TEACHING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN A SERVICE TECHNICAL WRITING COURSE: ALTERNATIVE WAYS OF PRESENTING INTERCULTURAL ISSUES IN TECHNICAL WRITING TEXTBOOKS AND IN REAL CLASSROOMS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

Presenting intercultural materials in a service technical writing course has been a challenge for instructors as well as textbook writers. The traditional predominant method of teaching is the information acquisition approach, which presupposes collecting information about cultures and labeling or characterizing cultures using various dimensions and typologies. In textbooks, such an approach leads to the prevalence of factual information about other cultures' communication practices and stereotypes. An alternative method is the dialogic/paralogic approach that sees intercultural communication as interpersonal communication, re-emphasizes the dialogic nature of communication, and focuses on developing in students a better understanding of culture through discussions of their own culture.

However, in order to accept any approach, one must explore the current contexts of teaching and reveal any potential constraints with intercultural teaching that instructors may face in real classrooms. This dissertation is the first in-depth study that examines the teaching contexts and textbooks, using survey, discourse analysis, and quasi-experiment as methodologies, and discusses the problems and constraints that teachers face with intercultural teaching. Such examination allows for better understanding of instructors' needs and helps create an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course.

Based on the analysis of teaching and textbook discourses and further theoretical inquiry, I articulate and justify the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural

teaching in a service technical writing course. Such a perspective is a compilation of theories and methods offered by philosophy (pragmatism), sociology (symbolic interactionism), applied linguistics (communicative teaching), rhetoric (paralogic hermeneutics), technical communication (Weiss's dialogic approach) and intercultural training (experiential learning). The combination of those ideas and techniques allows for more complex, thoughtful, and ethical intercultural teaching that relies on developing in students a better understanding of culture as a concept, experiencing cultures, treating intercultural communication as interpersonal communication, and avoiding stereotyping. Such perspective and the results of my research help me develop an alternative preliminary intercultural sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course that can be adapted by instructors for their classes.

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO INTERCULTURAL TEACHING IN TECHNICAL WRITING

Introduction

When I first started teaching a technical writing course at Texas Tech University, I was enthusiastic and reread parts of the textbook that I had previously used when taking technical writing. By the end of the first month, I was confused by some of my students' attitudes toward me as a teacher and was frustrated by the contents of the textbook, specifically with the passages that discussed audiences from other cultures and the way to "deal with them."

In actuality, I belonged to "them," to the "others," the "aliens" – nonresident aliens. I am a Russian from Russia and speak with an accent. I have been in the United States for six years, first doing my master's in English and then my Ph.D. Yes, I was speaking with an accent and making minor mistakes. My language and my culture were and will always be a big part of who I am. My language will improve over time, but I know it will never be perfect or native-like. The problem I had was how easily judgmental and hostile some students were based on my accent; how distrustful and demanding they were. For example, one of my students once wrote in his course evaluation something along the following lines: "She could not even spell 'werk' correctly. How can she teach us?" Apparently my writing on the board was not very clear and the student mistook "werk" for "work." I definitely know how to spell "work," and in reality, the student probably did not like his grade or me personally and decided to

“attack” me for my “otherness.”

However, this personal experience made me think more deeply than before about intercultural and interpersonal communication and where this hostility was coming from. I thought about myself and whether I am different from American TAs. In actuality, we have many more similarities than differences. I am an individual from the same planet who thinks and acts similarly. I do not need special treatment, different food, or different clothing here in the United States. I *can* survive without borsch (a Russian traditional beet soup) and a fur hat. I have my likes and dislikes, but so does everyone else, regardless of culture. The United States is one of the most diverse countries in the world and tends to support multiculturalism. So I thought to myself that the hostility probably did not come from not knowing the “other,” in other words, from a lack of cultural exposure. The hostility possibly came from the type of exposure, certain enculturation, and formed attitudes that support hostility, otherness, and differences.

The textbook that I was using for teaching was not helping either due to the lack of the discussion of culture, real life examples, and a variety of exercises. So, in my search for content to supplement my teaching, I looked at other textbooks. To my disappointment, most of the textbooks offered stereotypes or general, commonsensical, vague suggestions, such as “be aware of cultural differences.” Some examples in the textbooks were troublesome because they could instigate negative responses and biases in American students; for example, “Dogs are considered pets in much of the west. To many Asians, they are food. Cattle have an honored position in India, but in the United States their meat is eaten” (Houp et al. 148). In some textbooks, the amount of factual

information about other cultures seemed overwhelming, so students might not remember all of the tips and guidelines at the end of the course. The course had so much to cover already: major workplace genres, visual design, and style. Thus, I was faced with a dilemma. On one hand, I had students who easily stereotyped and judged me based on my accent. On the other hand, I could not teach students without using stereotypes because the textbooks offered plenty of them. In addition, I was not comfortable with teaching about intercultural issues because at that point I had not taken any courses in intercultural communication myself, which would have helped in my teaching. I thought that perhaps teaching intercultural communication in the course was a bad idea given the number of constraints and difficulties. To find an answer, I looked at the current journals that showed the popular trends in technical communication and reflected the demands of real workplaces. I also explored population trends in the U.S. to see if they would indicate that multiculturalism would indeed be a trend of the future. The next section describes some of my findings.

New Demands in the Age of Diversity

The Internet has revolutionized communication practices and has embraced the world's cultures in one virtual domain, mixed them, and reinforced Marshall McLuhan's idea of a global village. The number of international students, immigrants, and outsourcing trends in major businesses signal that we are all here together, not only on the same planet, but also in the same classroom, workplace, chatroom, and website. We need to know about similarities as much as we need to know about differences, and we

need to understand that sometimes something that we consider a cultural difference is simply a personal characteristic; thus, we should not make judgments about the whole nation based on just one or two people who we have briefly met and have not liked for some reason.

A traditional workplace has become more multicultural either through Internet access or the diversification of the working force. However, not only the workplace becomes more multicultural, but the United States themselves become more and more diverse because of steady immigration from various countries, such as Mexico. According to the prediction by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Hispanic Americans will constitute 24.4% of the whole US population by 2050 (compared to 12.6% in 2000), while Asian Americans will grow from 4% to 8% (Parrillo 181). At the same time, the agency predicts a slight increase in the African American population from 12.5% to 14.6% and a decrease in the Non-Hispanic white population from 70% in 2000 to 50.1% in 2050 (181). As a result, various disciplines, such as psychology, education, communication studies, and, of course, sociology and anthropology, are focusing their attention on multiculturalism and are conducting research in such new areas as multicultural and bilingual education, psychology of minority groups and cultural adaptation, cross-cultural communication, and others. Researchers from various disciplines come together and conduct interdisciplinary research on multiculturalism and develop new content areas localized for specific subjects. Technical communicators do the same. The next section discusses the origins of technical writing and two major stakeholders it serves.

Technical Writing: Serving Society and Its New Demands

Technical writing as a discipline from the very beginning aimed to prepare practitioners for various workplaces. It originated from engineering programs that needed better writers in the second part of the 19th and the early 20th centuries (Longo 64; Kynell 28). Not surprisingly, the early technical writing textbooks (and, as a result, the technical writing curriculum) of the early 20th century were written by engineers, i.e. practitioners, for example, by Rickard and Aydelotte (Kynell 51-52). The author of *A Guide to Technical Writing* (1908), T.A. Rickard, in his textbook put an emphasis on clear technical writing and considered it "the coinage of intellectual and scientific exchange" that would allow engineers to add effectively to the general knowledge of humankind (Longo 64-65).

Gradually, with the help and involvement of English teachers (S. Earle and S. Harbarger) and their articles and innovative textbooks, technical writing was moved from the engineering department to the English department (Kynell 101). This process was finalized after WWII with the technical writing boom shortly after the war. Industries needed more technical writers and, as a result, the number of technical writing programs rose dramatically. At the same time, "technical writing textbooks increasingly were written by authors with primary expertise in the field of English, with its liberal arts history" (Longo 115). One peculiarity of those books was the fact that academicians were combining "non-scientific knowledge of English" (enculturation knowledge) "with science-based engineering knowledge" (115). This quality of "English-based" technical

writing textbooks made and still makes them especially valuable as will be explained later.

Since the 1950s, academicians have done tremendous work shaping and reshaping the technical writing curriculum. They strived to include new skills, technologies, and genres based on practitioners' needs. For example, manuals were added to the textbooks during and after WWII because companies in America needed this genre to accompany various products (Connors 89). The same process happened with proposals. During the 1950s and 1960s, industries spent millions on proposal writing, which resulted in the inclusion of this genre in the technical writing curriculum and textbooks (for example, *Proposal and Inquiry Writing* (1962) by Mandel and Caldwell) (94).

Academicians explore, critique, and reflect on workplace practices and see how they can incorporate the results of their analysis into teaching. A good example of such research is Meyer and Bernhardt's article, "Workplace Realities and the Technical Communication Curriculum: A Call for Change" (See also Blakeslee; Tebeaux). The researchers use industry and government reports in order to define what "workplace literacy" is (Meyer and Bernhardt 86). Those reports specify the exact skills that are needed from college graduates: behavioral and social skills, personal development skills, interpersonal skills, reading and writing skills, problem-solving skills, and computer skills.

Taking a further step in the same research direction and approaching it from students' perspective, Anson and Forsberg, in "Moving beyond the Academic Community: Transitional Stages in Profession Writing," study six interns and their

adaptations to the real world practices (how they adapt to "situationally rooted knowledge," for example (395)). The goal of the article is to suggest some pedagogical changes to accommodate students' future needs and reshape their expectations.

But let us not forget about the enculturation knowledge (or "humanistic stem") (Kynell 96). As Killingsworth and Gilbertson state, "As a reaction to attempts to 'engineer' language and communication, then, a humanist role has emerged, predicated upon the need to put the personality back into technical prose" (146-147). Although one direction of technical writing pedagogy (including textbook writing) and research was to respond to the needs of real industries, another, equally strong, aspiration of English departments was to affect students' lives, by developing their critical thinking skills and ethical values, including cultural tolerance. Technical writing could not accept a simplistic role of "instrumental" discourse, but claimed to be humanistic and essentially rhetorical (Johnson, "Complicating Technology …" 25; also in Miller "A Humanistic Rational…" 22). When looking at current textbooks, one will find that ethics, audience analysis, rhetoric, critical thinking skills, research-based writing, and, of course, intercultural communication aim to infiltrate discussions of all workplace genres and principles (See Markel, 2004; Woolever, 2005).

By emphasizing the humanistic stem, in which ethics and intercultural communication are vital parts, academicians have accepted a much bigger role for technical writing than simply serving industry. Miller writes, "We ought not, in other words, simply design our courses and curricula to replicate existing practices, taking them for granted and seeking to make them more efficient on their own terms, making

our students ‘more valuable to industry’; we ought instead to question those practices and encourage our students to do so too” (Miller “What is Practical…” 163). Through critical assessment of social realities, academicians and teachers who write technical writing textbooks and shape the technical writing curriculum empower students by giving them skills of critical analysis, ethical judgment, and responsibility for their communication practices. Thus, although technical writing “emerged in response to technology, most specifically in the need to communicate or describe technology to an often less than sophisticated audience,” it does not stand as a subordinate to industry (Kynell 5). As Longo writes, “Using the strengths of both these science- [or industry, for that matter] and liberal arts-based research approaches, technical communicators are positioned to develop knowledge that compensates for weaknesses in any single way of knowing the world” (164; also in Miller “What is Practical …” 163). As far as intercultural communication is concerned, technical writing should not simply train skillful practitioners, but should also teach and prepare citizens of the world’s multicultural community who should know basics of effective and ethical intercultural communication.

If Americans are to work in multicultural groups in the United States or to connect to their international counterparts in various countries using virtual networks, they need to do so *ethically* and *efficiently*. Many former and recent technical writing textbooks draw special attention to intercultural communication and write about its importance in their prefaces. For example, Mike Markel, the author of one of the best selling technical writing books, writes in his *Technical Communication* (7th edition, 2004) that the textbook “contains a greatly expanded discussion of the challenges of addressing

readers from other cultures" (Markel vi). However, although many textbooks set the same goal and try to enrich and expand intercultural materials, textbook authors encounter difficulties with integrating intercultural communication. The following section discusses several research articles that target this problem.

Intercultural Teaching in Technical Writing: Textbooks and Our Goals

For many instructors, textbooks serve as a given curriculum. Although textbooks "might not reflect teaching practices, they often reflect dominant ideologies within the technical professions at a given time within a particular milieu" (Kynell and Moran 4). Textbooks give instructors various pedagogical tools and materials for classroom discussions and activities, and textbooks are essentially what students buy, read, and use in learning. Thus, at least to a significant extent, textbook contents form technical writing pedagogy, offering instructors choices in what to teach and how to teach it.

Many current articles and textbooks for teaching a technical writing course offer how-to models for intercultural teaching, including tips, guidelines, exercises, and some factual information about other cultures. However, although the methods and the content of intercultural teaching in the service technical writing course have evolved over the last 15 years, many problems remain. In 1993, Emily Thrush expressed her concern that "most textbooks on technical communication include little or no discussion of these [intercultural] issues, even though they are vital to an accurate analysis of audience and to the making of appropriate, effective choices in writing strategies" (Thrush 272). Almost a decade later, in 2002, DeVoss, Jasken, and Hayden restated Thrush's claim that

textbooks "are limited in how they help us think about these issues [intercultural communication] in more detailed and complicated ways" (70).

In the section "The Textbook Problem" of her article "Bridging the Gaps: Technical Communication in an International and Multicultural Society" (1993), Thrush talks about several textbooks in the field by Lannon (1991), Houp & Pearsall (1992), Burnett (1990), and Boiarsky (1992), and characterizes their discussion of intercultural communication as insufficient or non-existent. The authors of textbooks are faced with a question: "How do you discuss cultural differences without overgeneralizing and stereotyping?" (Thrush 280). Thrush blames a lack of research in contrastive rhetoric, and asserts more research in this field to resolve this problem.

When discussing some implications for the technical writing curriculum, Thrush offers preliminary goals and objectives, which she calls "a three-pronged approach" to teaching intercultural communication (280):

- raising students' awareness by introducing students to international documents and promoting direct communication with international audiences;
- "introducing students to sources of information" by showing them where and how to search for them; and
- "providing practice in communication."

These three directions are a good way to approach intercultural teaching, but several important questions arise:

- What are the needs of students, programs, and instructors? What

technological tools, knowledge and skills do instructors have for intercultural teaching?

- What specific skills and knowledge are we trying to develop in students? In other words, what are our specific goals and objectives in teaching?
- How can textbooks better accommodate these goals and objectives?

These and other questions stayed unanswered in Thrush's article, as in most of the articles that came after hers.

Jan Corbett (1996) also assessed several textbooks in the field, including Deborah & William Andrews (1988) and Lehman, Himstreet, & Baty (1996). The purpose of his study was to examine pedagogical theories for teaching intercultural communication. In the chosen range of books, Corbett identifies several approaches. The following are the initial two:

- an information-acquisition approach, based on observations of cultural practices and stereotyping (413)
- a case study approach, based on the discussion of real situations and their analyses (415)

He considers these two approaches problematic, as they are mostly discussion-oriented. Students are not exposed to real life situations that would "open [their minds] … to cultural change" (417). Corbett prefers a third approach – praxis pedagogy – which offers students various semester-long individual and collaborative projects targeting communication barriers in ethnically diverse communities in the U.S. and giving students first-hand intercultural experiences and knowledge. Although Corbett's article offered a

new perspective in intercultural pedagogy, the author, as in the case with Thrush's approach, did not address the questions mentioned above.

A year later, in 1997, Libby Miles published more systematic research on eight technical writing textbooks published in 1995: Anderson, Boiarsky & Soven, Bovee & Thill, Houp et al., Lay et al., Lesikar, Locker, and Varner & Beamer. It was probably the first partially quantitative study that was dedicated to the intercultural component within textbooks. Like Corbett, Miles makes a very similar critique of the information-acquisition approach. In her Table 1, she lists the numbers of *factoids* (stereotypes or factual details about other cultures), strategies, and exercises in the chosen textbooks. The important conclusion she makes is that "most of the textbooks contain catalogs of decontextualized cultural factoids rather than strategies for identifying and understanding cultural differences" (Miles 179). The only major suggestion for change that she offers is the more rigorous use of available research in professional communication and in ESL to complement our classroom practices and textbooks.

Finally in 2002, DeVoss, Jasken, and Hayden presented an even more sophisticated study, which offered an analysis of textbooks published over the last 40 years. Their research targets 15 out-of-print (1960-1975) and 15 new textbooks (1994 to 2001) in the field. The researchers search for terms, examples, anecdotes, and illustrations that deal with intercultural communication. However, they do not analyze exercises on multiculturalism, which is a vital element of intercultural teaching. The conclusion they make is that, "because the textbooks dedicate so little space to intercultural issues, the information tends to be vague or difficult to apply in workplace

environments" (DeVoss, Jasken, and Hayden 72). The analyzed books include stereotypes and lack the discussion of document design features (graphs, colors, fonts). Nevertheless, they identify the following common positive trends in the new textbooks: a stronger definition of culture, better usage of research articles, and the availability of specific documents from other cultures.

Although analyzing former editions is important from a socio-historical perspective, the results of their assessment may not be applicable when revising textbooks. The era of 1960-1975 was different politically and socially from the 1990s, which was definitely reflected in the content of the textbooks, and has, in my perception, underlying reasons for the lack of the intercultural component. At the same time, the period from 1994 to 2001 is quite diverse in new cultural and technological developments and research findings that should reveal themselves in textbooks.

To sum up, more than a decade has passed since the initiation of discussion of intercultural communication in technical writing, but the presentation of the intercultural component in technical writing textbooks and in the course remains one of the challenges for textbook writers and instructors. A thorough study of instructional contexts is needed in order to determine what we should teach and how. All elements of teaching are important: current practices, goals and objectives of intercultural teaching, prevalent pedagogical traditions, teacher preparedness, available textbook content, and research in intercultural technical communication and pedagogy.

Unfortunately, one can find few articles written on intercultural teaching and curriculum development specifically for a service technical writing course. There is no

extensive research done in textbook analysis and in teaching contexts (instructors, students, textbooks, and classrooms) that would help determine clear goals and objectives of intercultural teaching, materials, teaching methods, and assessment methods. To bridge this research gap in our scholarship, I explore the instructional contexts of the course in my dissertation in order to examine our current teaching practices, identify problems, and suggest alternative ways to teach intercultural communication. The next section offers an overview of my research questions and methodologies.

Importance of the Study: Goals, Objectives, and Research Questions

My research is focused on intercultural teaching in the service technical writing course as taught at my university – Texas Tech – and most public universities in the United States. This introduction to technical writing is a lower-division course that is a general degree requirement for students of many majors. The course offers an overview of basic technical writing genres (job application materials, instructions, proposals, and reports), principles, and procedures to prepare students for various workplace situations and tasks.

The study targets current practices and textbooks and, through a theoretical inquiry, explores various theories of communication and approaches to teaching intercultural communication. Such a study of the instructional contexts has never been done before. Based on my research findings, I devise a set of realistic goals and objectives for intercultural teaching using research in various disciplines, trying to respond to the needs of students, instructors, and programs. I examine a number of

alternative theories and methods (for example, paralogic rhetoric, symbolic interactionism, and intercultural training) that can be useful in teaching about cultures, and I use these ideas to create the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. The purpose of the perspective is to serve as a foundation for an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum in technical writing and compare its effectiveness to the approaches suggested by instructors and implied in current textbooks. The purpose of collecting the data is to create a new intercultural sub-curriculum that would offer a multifaceted approach to intercultural teaching based on solid research grounds.

I use three research methodologies: discourse/textbook analysis, online survey, and a quasi-experimental study. Through textbook analysis, I determine what is currently available to instructors for teaching. At the same time, teachers may supplement the contents of textbooks by in-class activities, exercises and articles based on some outside research. The online survey explores instructors' views on outcomes for intercultural teaching, classroom practices and contexts, and textbooks and their usage. The collected data help me generalize about the service technical writing curriculum nationwide and develop unified goals and objectives for intercultural teaching in the service course.

The next step is a theoretical inquiry that aims to explore communication theories and methods that can be used for intercultural teaching in technical communication. I examine such fields as philosophy, sociology, rhetoric, applied linguistics, and communication studies. After selecting certain useful theories and approaches, I formulate the dialogic pedagogical perspective and devise one teaching unit based on the perspective. I use this teaching unit in a quasi-experimental study that aims to determine

the impact of different ways of teaching on students' attitudes, specifically stereotyping. The quasi-experimental study compares the lesson using the dialogic pedagogical perspective to a lesson founded on the more traditional, information acquisition approach that employs Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Based on the results of the study, I devise an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum for technical writing that can be adapted in real classrooms and textbooks.

To sum up, my research goes through several steps:

1. to conduct discourse analysis (grounded theory (GT) with content analysis (CA)) of 15 current textbooks used by instructors for teaching the service course
2. to survey the online community of technical wring instructors through the ATTW listserv (attw-l@lyris.ttu.edu)
3. to determine goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in technical writing based of the results of the survey
4. to search for alternative theories and approaches to satisfy the chosen goals and objectives
5. to devise and test a teaching unit based on the dialogic perspective and compare it to the information acquisition approach
6. to devise and introduce a new intercultural sub-curriculum for technical writing and suggest possible changes to textbooks

The research questions that I answer in my dissertation are as follows:

1. What are current intercultural materials apparent in technical writing textbooks (those used for the service course) and what approaches do they support/respond to?

2. How can we characterize current perspectives and practices concerning goals and objectives, materials, approaches, tasks, and activities for intercultural teaching in the service course?
3. What are problems and constraints with current practices of intercultural teaching in the observed environment? How can the goals and objectives be modified taking into consideration instructors' problems and teaching constraints?
4. What heretofore unused theoretical frameworks can be used for successful intercultural teaching that will lead to the achievement of the new proposed goals and objectives? How can the technical writing curriculum accommodate the goals and objectives?
5. How should we revise our textbooks to accommodate the new curricular paradigm?

The next section describes some of the concepts that need to be defined for my dissertation.

Definitions

In my dissertation, I use a rather general definition of *culture* offered by Gudykunst and Kim who state that culture "refer[s] to the 'system of knowledge' shared by a relatively large group of people. The boundaries between cultures usually, but not always, coincide with the political boundaries between countries" (Gudykunst and Kim 13). Culture is not a homogeneous entity and includes numerous subcultures. A subculture "is a subset of a culture having some different values, norms, and/or symbols that are not shared by all members of the larger culture. In other words, a subculture

involves a set of ideas that arise from the larger culture but differ in some respects" (Gudykunst and Kim 14). Subcultures involve races (based on biological similarity) and ethnic groups ("a group of people who share a common cultural heritage usually based on a common national origin or language") (14; also in Chen and Starosta 14). In addition to national cultures, there are also corporate ("within a specific organization") and professional cultures ("functions within organizations") (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 7). For the purpose of my dissertation, I concentrate on national cultures although the findings of my research can be applied to interracial, interethnic, corporate, or professional communication.

Although the terms "intercultural," "multicultural," and "cross-cultural" in some cases in scholarly literature are used interchangeably, I would like to reemphasize some differences in their focus and usage. To avoid confusion, I define them. *Intercultural communication* "is used to refer to the communication process between members of different cultural communities (e.g., business negotiations between a Dutch importer and an Indonesian exporter)" (Ting-Toomey 16). It explores "group membership factors such as beliefs, values, norms, and interaction scripts" (16). Intercultural communication "includes a focus on both the 'interactive' and the 'interpersonal' … and encompasses the areas of intercultural, interracial, and interethnic communication" (Gudykunst, quoted from Chen and Starosta 15). To avoid repetition, I sometimes use the term "intercultural issues" interchangeably with "intercultural communication." Both mean the same in my dissertation.

Cross-cultural communication "is used in the intercultural literature to refer to the

communication process that is comparative in nature (e.g., comparing conflict styles in cultures X, Y, and Z)" (Ting-Toomey 16; also in Gudykunst and Kim 14). The focus of my dissertation research is not a specific comparative communication process, but the general field of intercultural communication. Thus, I will use the term intercultural communication in my dissertation. The term *multicultural* is used to define groups of people, for example, *multicultural audiences*.

Intercultural teaching materials in my dissertation is used to identify theories, discussions, examples, guidelines, tips, and exercises with an intercultural emphasis offered in textbooks or used in classes. In other words, it is a collective term for any contents of intercultural teaching.

A service technical writing course refers to a course for non-majors. It is low-division, introductory technical writing for students who do not major in technical communication. The course introduces students to technical writing genres, such as job application materials, instructions, proposals, reports, memos, letters, and the basic principles of effective workplace communication. The next section offers a brief description of the chapters in my dissertation.

Overview of the Chapters

My dissertation has eight chapters that will be of interest to educators, textbook writers, and program directors.

Chapter II: Literature Review

This chapter explores the existing research articles that focus on intercultural teaching in technical communication: proposed programs, goals and objectives of intercultural teaching, and intercultural materials. I discuss the information acquisition approach and the dialogic approach. These are two main approaches to intercultural teaching that can be identified in current scholarship and come from different epistemologies and ontologies.

The traditional way of intercultural teaching (based on Hall, Hofstede) that has been adapted mainly from anthropology for intercultural teaching in technical writing emphasizes information acquisition. Such an approach presupposes researching about other cultures using various sources and proposing ways to communicate with this or that culture by responding to this culture's needs, i.e. accommodating. The alternative approach, the dialogic approach, is based on experiencing diversity and the meaning of culture first-hand. At the same time, in order to choose any approach to teaching intercultural communication, one must investigate instructional contexts in order to identify the factors that can affect the curriculum. Current literature in technical communication lacks the discussion of constraints and problems that instructors face with intercultural teaching. The analysis of such constraints and problems, as well as the discussion of successful and unsuccessful practices, should help us devise clear unified goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in technical writing. The two methodologies that are most appropriate for this type of inquiry are survey and discourse analysis that I use to answer the research questions specified earlier in this chapter.

Chapter III: Methodology

The third chapter describes and validates the chosen methodologies for the investigation of technical writing instructional contexts. By instructional contexts I mean instructors, students, teaching methods, assessment techniques, and textbooks. The purpose of the research is to investigate various instructional constraints that instructors face with intercultural teaching and create unified goals and objectives considering these constraints and difficulties. The goals and objectives then help develop an intercultural sub-curriculum with justified themes, methods, activities, and assessment.

Chapter IV: Discourse Analysis and Survey: Results and Analysis

This chapter presents the results of my discourse analysis and survey. First, I describe the results of my textbook analysis. Then I analyze my data qualitatively and quantitatively. Specifically, I compare various intercultural materials in 15 textbooks: theoretical discussions, tips and guidelines, exercises and activities. The purpose of such an analysis is to understand what is available for instructors and discuss some successful and not so successful presentations of intercultural materials.

The second part of the chapter is dedicated to the results of the survey. As with discourse analysis, I first present the results of the study and then analyze them qualitatively and quantitatively. I discuss instructors' demographic information, classes, and available technologies. Then I talk about prevalent methods, goals and objectives, assessment techniques, and textbook satisfaction. At the end of this section, I propose

unified goals and objectives based on the instructors' responses. Later, I use those goals and objectives to build a contextualized, multifaceted intercultural sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course.

Chapter V: Theoretical Inquiry

Chapter V aims to present additional research, i.e. theoretical inquiry, in various disciplines that can be useful for intercultural teaching. Specifically, I examine theories and methods with a social constructivist orientation offered by philosophy, sociology, rhetoric, communication studies (intercultural training), and applied linguistics. Such research seems to support the dialogic teaching and shows general social constructivist trends in other disciplines. At the end of the chapter, I formulate the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching in technical writing that can serve as a foundation for my alternative intercultural sub-curriculum.

Chapter VI: Quasi-Experimental Study: Testing Alternative Theories

In Chapter VI, I present the results of my quasi-experimental study that I use to test one teaching plan based on the dialogic approach and one plan based on the information acquisition approach. The purpose of the study is to see the effects of different ways of teaching and determine which approach produces less stereotyping in students. I describe my methodology and discuss the results and their implications for developing the alternative sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course.

Chapter VII: An Alternative Intercultural Sub-curriculum Model for a Service Technical Writing Course

In Chapter VII, I develop the intercultural sub-curriculum based on the results of the survey, discourse analysis, theoretical inquiry, and quasi-experiment. I discuss the curriculum development process, conduct needs and situation analyses, restate goals and objectives, offer a possible schedule, suggest themes, materials, and their sources, and recommend possible assessment techniques. In addition, I provide recommendations for textbook writers on how to revise textbooks to satisfy the new sub-curriculum.

Chapter VIII: Conclusion

In the last chapter, Chapter VIII, I answer my research questions, offer main results, conclusions, and recommendations of my dissertation, and talk about possible research and teaching implications of my study and directions for future research.

Conclusion

This chapter is an overview of my dissertation project. Intercultural communication becomes a dimension of many disciplines because of the growing social demand for better intercultural preparedness. In my dissertation, I investigated intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course in order to propose changes to the existing curriculum paradigm. I explored major elements of instructional contexts, such as textbooks and current teaching and assessment methods. This first chapter discussed my research interests, research questions, and methodologies that I had used to investigate and propose a new multifaceted intercultural sub-curriculum with a unified set

of goals and objectives, themes, activities, and assessment tools. The next chapter focuses on the theoretical foundation of my research and offers a literature review of current scholarship on the topic.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The goal of this chapter is to discuss the existing scholarship dedicated to intercultural teaching in technical and business communication. The chapter examines suggested intercultural pedagogies proposed by various researchers. By pedagogies I mean proposed goals and objectives as well as materials for intercultural teaching. I discuss two directions in intercultural pedagogy based on the existing scholarship in technical communication: the information acquisition approach and the dialogic approach.

I first discuss the information acquisition approach and its overall epistemological and ontological foundation. I then discuss the dialogic approach and argue that while the information acquisition approach may be valuable, relying heavily on acquiring information about other cultures through various sources or categorizing cultures using various dimensions and variables (instead of learning how to experience other cultures and negotiate) may not be so useful in intercultural teaching. I conclude that although both approaches can be used in intercultural teaching, a comprehensive analysis of instructional contexts is needed to determine the goals and objectives of intercultural teaching and to explore various constraints that instructors face. Based on such analysis, one can develop a unified intercultural sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course and determine the roles that the information acquisition and dialogic approaches can play in the course to satisfy the chosen goals and objectives.

Teaching Intercultural Communication in a Service Technical Writing Course: Pedagogies, Materials, and Suggested Directions

Intercultural communication within technical writing is a relatively new direction that was initiated in the late 1980s and further developed in the 1990s and in recent years. In contrast to traditional anthropological and linguistic research (which was initiated in the 1950s and has a much longer tradition), intercultural teaching in technical communication addresses field-specific issues of the field. For example, entire issues or individual sections in *The Bulletin of the Association for Business Communication* (1994; March, September, December issues have special sections), *Journal of Business and Technical Communication* (1997), *Technical Communication Quarterly*, *Technical Communication*, and *Business Communication Quarterly* are dedicated to research in specific cultures and genres (See Dragga; Qiuye; Sapienza; Tebeaux), intercultural pedagogy (See Limaye; Hulbert; Corbett), or textbooks (See DeVoss, Jasken, and Hayden; Miles; Woolever). Many textbook writers emphasize intercultural teaching and talk about its importance in the prefaces to their textbooks.

The examined literature on intercultural pedagogy has generated several major directions. The early 1990s, generally speaking, concentrated on competencies and models of successful intercultural communication, leaning heavily on the available research in anthropology and contrastive rhetoric (Beamer; Thrush; T. Weiss). Then in the middle 1990s, many put efforts into developing specific exercises and projects for intercultural communication (Vesper; Hulbert; Boiarsky). The late 1990s and recent years brought a new emphasis on universal communication practices (Goby; E. Weiss), technologies, and textbooks (St.Amant; Corbett; Miles; Yuan; Woolever; Limaye;

DeVoss, Jasken, and Hayden). Overall, the examined literature has produced quality research on the intercultural component in technical writing, and this list of articles is definitely not exhaustive.

In this rather diverse body of knowledge, one may identify two traditions in intercultural teaching that constituted a scholarly debate in the early 1990s: the information acquisition approach (Thrush; Beamer; the terminology is borrowed from Corbett) and the dialogic approach (T. Weiss; Yuan). The two pedagogical perspectives come from conflicting paradigms, positivism versus social constructivism, which govern the intercultural pedagogy in technical writing courses today and are reflected in some ways in current textbooks. Each direction sees intercultural communication in a different light and proposes different programs and goals for teaching.

The Information Acquisition Approach

This approach to intercultural communication and teaching entails establishing in students the "knowledge of cultural differences in communication strategies and an awareness of how those differences affect the communication process" (Thrush 281). The approach is built on earlier research from contrastive rhetoric, cognitive psychology, semiotics, and anthropology (Kaplan; Hall; Hofstede). E. Weiss and Hunsinger use a different term and call such an approach heuristic in that it "'treats members of a group as instances of a profile,' an essentializing practice that displaces cultural identity from concrete individual into a typical instance of the individuals who share a culture" (E. Weiss 260; quoted from Hunsinger 33). The approach essentially "place[s] too high a

value on locating definitive culture" through describing and categorizing it (Hunsinger 31).

Beamer was one of the researchers who initiated the discussion of the lack of research related to "[intercultural] competence for business purposes" (Beamer 285). She acknowledges the interest in intercultural communication by many, but stresses that "the process by which intercultural communication competence is learned is not well understood." In her article, she aims to define what intercultural communication competence is and to present "a learning process model" that "lay[s] the foundation for a pedagogical posture" (285, 291). "Intercultural communication competence" means "becom[ing] 'fluent' in more than one culture," and acquiring such competence is a goal of intercultural teaching (289).

Beamer's research is based on linguistic studies and psychology. First, she appeals to semiotics in order to explain what is happening when intercultural communication takes place. She concludes that the "cognitively learned knowledge of the cultures involved may be the basis for developing communication competence" and that cognitive abilities to understand other cultures are more important than the personality (inner qualities) of a communicator (289). At the same time, she challenges previous research, emphasizing that it does not explain the process of "learning intercultural *communication* competence" in the business world.

Next, Beamer explains about five levels of intercultural learning represented as a circle: "(a) acknowledging diversity, (b) organizing information according to stereotypes, (c) posing questions to challenge the stereotypes, (d) analyzing communication episodes,

and (e) generating 'other culture' messages." The goal of this process is to decode cultural signs and then encode them according to the meaning of the members of other cultures in business contexts. She calls this process "cyclical" and puts an accent on the fact that "diversity is always being experienced" (Beamer 293).

At the same time, to become fluent in another culture requires much time and dedication. Decoding cultural signs and then encoding them according to the other culture's meanings are the essential skills that students must develop. I would like to look closely at level b and c: "organizing information according to stereotypes" and "posing questions to challenge the stereotypes." As Beamer writes, one can find plenty of those stereotypes (for example, "Arabs like to stand very near a listener when speaking") that appear in books that offer "the lists of do's and taboos" (293, 294). The process of challenging stereotypes is rather complex. To successfully challenge the stereotypes, a researcher has to use value orientations based on "the cultural differences in behavior and attitude that affect business communication." These value orientations categorize cultures based on various aspects of social life and understandings of reality: "Thinking and Knowing, Doing and Achieving, the Self, Social Organization, and the Universe" (295). Each of the five areas consider opposing value orientations that may prevail in one culture or another: for example, context pattern, associating, experience in Thinking and Knowing; or community, formality, private in Organization of Society. The profiles of different cultures are presented in a form of hourglass-shaped dimensions that are grouped in hexagons, octagons, or decagons. Students have to research those orientations and classify cultures. At the end, students generate some information about other cultures

that they can use to create “other-culture” messages (301). In addition, what is important for Beamer and what underlies her theory is the assumption that “culture is learnable” and that “cultures are whole and coherent” (291).

As far as textbooks and intercultural contents are concerned, Beamer does not talk about textbooks directly, but mentions the existing books that contain “the lists of do’s and taboos, so beloved of business people, [which] are helpful in categorizing the unfamiliar, but … rarely offer more than stereotypes” (Beamer 294). As a solution to the problem, she suggests that teachers need to pose questions in the five “areas of valuable orientations” that I mentioned earlier (295). These orientations can be used “for a culture-general learning strategy as well as culture-specific understanding” (295).

Thrush has a similar approach to teaching intercultural communication. In her article, she discusses various cultural factors that affect technical communication: “world experience, the amount of common knowledge shared within a culture, the hierarchical structure of society and workplace, culturally specific rhetorical strategies, and cultural differences in processing graphics” (274). She supports her discussion with factual examples of cultural differences. In teaching, Thrush emphasizes knowledge and awareness, and her pedagogical model and the goal of intercultural teaching is “a three-pronged approach,” mentioned in Chapter I, that also leads to the formation of a body of knowledge about other cultures: “raising awareness of the problem, introducing students to sources of information, and providing practice in communicating with people of other cultures” (280). Each of the three elements has a set of exercises that should promote students’ understanding of different cultures: using samples of writing from other

cultures, asking students to write reports on other cultures, drawing conclusions about cultural writing strategies, reading articles in linguistics and anthropology, and responding to documents from other cultures.

Still, the "end" of intercultural learning is to generate information about other cultures. When explaining the importance of intercultural communication, she uses examples from other cultures that she borrows from Hall. Some of these examples may be considered factoids: "In Japan, for example, where personal relationships and the establishment of trust between individuals and companies are important, documents are written in ways that maintain distance and status…. In the Japanese context, U.S. friendliness and informality can seem crude, unsophisticated, and disrespectful" (Thrush 276). Thrush concludes that "differences such as these not only make communication difficult; they can completely derail documents from accomplishing their purpose" (277). In other words, according to Thrush, there is only *one correct way* to communicate with the Japanese people that students must know before interacting with representatives of this culture. Thus, the information acquisition approach treats culture as "a prediscursive, effectively autonomous essence posing as a set of durable habits and practices and cultural identity [as] something brought to communication rather than constructed and mobilized during communication" (Hunsinger 34). The next section describes a different approach to understanding cultures, cultural differences, and intercultural teaching: the dialogic approach.

The Dialogic Approach

The dialogic approach to intercultural teaching was never a "mainstream" approach, but also appeared in the early 1990s and has been developed by several researchers (T.Weiss, Yuan, Corbett, Hunsinger, Miles) as a response to the predominant information acquisition approach. The overall emphasis in the dialogic approach is made on the discussion of culture as a concept and the way it comes into being, not on information acquisition as with Beamer or Thrush's research. In 1992, Timothy Weiss discussed a problematic attitude toward intercultural communication within technical writing. Through textbook research, he concludes, "In one guise or another, often under the rubric of 'persuasion,' the sell-job metaphor operates explicitly or implicitly in the business and technical writing textbooks" (T. Weiss "'Ourselves …" 25). The sell-job metaphor is revealed through the advice: know how "they" communicate, think about their attitude toward you and your product, and structure your messages accordingly. This metaphor that underlies intercultural teaching may lead to manipulation, misconceptions, and hostility toward a reader (also in Yuan 300). Weiss suggests that our teaching should be redirected toward constructing understanding and a "bridge-building" activity.

T.Weiss criticizes several existing theories of intercultural communications that he considers limiting. He argues that Hofstede's and Hall's approaches, which understand the process of gaining the intercultural knowledge as programming, do not reflect reality. A culture constantly changes and is "an open-ended construction" (T.Weiss "The Gods …" 199). Following the terminology offered by a Russian literary scholar-philosopher, Mikhail Bakhtin, Weiss claims that "a culture comes into being in part through intra- and

intercultural processes; it is hybridization" (Weiss "'The Gods …" 202). Differences are the meat of any communication and are useful (On the contrary, Thrush considers them obstacles.).

The goal of teaching, according to T.Weiss, is for students to "learn to be attuned to the instability and ambiguity of signifiers, comprehend that a culture is a changing construction as well as a heritage and an acquisition, perceive the plurality and mixing of cultures within a culture, and appreciate the dialogic nature of intercultural communication" (202). Cultures are not homogeneous but consist of many other cultures within, so cultural purity is a misconception that may lead to misunderstandings and overgeneralizations. His proposed alternative model is

> a framework of concepts for pedagogy and research [that encompasses discussions of] (a) cultural construction; (b) cultural heterogeneity; (c) intercultural communication – models of intercultural encounter and exchange, and approaches and appraisals that interfere with that exchange; and (d) core topics for a unit on intercultural and international communication in a business and technical writing course [("the local and the global, culture and nation, modes of communication and types of miscommunication, individuals as carriers and constructors of their culture, the necessity of second-language training and cross-cultural experience")]. (197, 212)

The fundamental difference between these two approaches, dialogic and information acquisition, is in their underlying paradigms. The information acquisition pedagogical model is based on a positivistic view of the world and knowledge. For this paradigm, the world is knowable, and truth about other cultures is out there waiting to be found. At the same time, a student, as a rational researcher, then comes, discovers it, and successfully uses it in interactions. In textbooks, this approach leads to the prevalence of factual information about selected cultures, "decontextualized cultural factoids" (Miles

179). For example, some textbooks have adopted conceptual models and classifications from intercultural studies to explain cultural variables to technical writing students. The most popular of these are the following:

- Hall's high-context and low-context cultures (*Technical Communication at Work* (1995) by Collins and Bosley; *Writing for the Technical Professions* (2002) by Woolever);
- Hofstede's cultural variables (*Writing for the Technical Professions* (1999) by Woolever; *Reporting Technical Information* (2002) by Houp, Pearsall, Tableaux, and Dragga);
- Hoft's variables (*Writing for the Technical Professions* (2002) by Woolever; *Technical Communication* (2003) by Markel);
- Bosley's research (*Writing for the Technical Professions* (2002) by Woolever; *Technical Communication: A Reader-Centered Approach* (2003) by Anderson; *Technical Communication for Readers and Writers* (1998) by Sims; *Technical Communication* (1997) by Burnett).

Although these resources are present in some textbooks, in many cases, they are not supplemented by actual practical exercises and are simply brought to students' attention. At the same time, the prevalence of factual information about cultures may lead to stereotyping and negative attitudes about cultural differences.

Factoids may have their use and purpose in intercultural teaching, but "focusing exclusively on cultural awareness does not enable students to cross cultural borders; it can even have the opposite effect of reinforcing these borders" (Corbett 414). As Corbett

concludes,

> … the information approach devalues both the cultural practices and the persons who engage in these practices, reinforcing difference rather than negotiating it. Students who are subjected to this model tend to look for the ways in which persons from other cultures are unique, overlooking the qualities diverse cultures have in common. This deprives students of rich, humanizing, intercultural encounters in which cultural boundaries are negotiated through mutual sharing. (413)

The dialogic approach belongs to the social constructivist epistemology and ontology (See Subbiah; Thralls and Blyler) that interpret culture as fluid and socially constructed with multiple situational truths that are created collaboratively. Such a perspective is insightful, especially in the light of a new global exchange through the Internet and economic franchising. Cultures can indeed step into the global trade of similarities and dissimilarities and adopt or adapt cultural practices and values.

In this respect, I would like to discuss paralogic hermeneutics, one of the "theoretical approaches that [has] been developing within a social perspective" that offers the understanding of a communication process similar to T.Weiss's dialogic approach (Thralls and Blyler 5). The tenets of paralogic hermeneutics can be useful in teaching about what culture is and how it comes into being. The next section is dedicated to the conception of paralogy and its main principles.

Paralogic Hermeneutics

Paralogic hermeneutics is a social constructivist theory of communication that can be useful for intercultural teaching. As Thomas Kent writes, it is an "alternative conception of communicative interaction" (Kent *Paralogic Rhetoric…* x). "Paralogy

means ‘beyond logic’ in that it accounts for the attribute of language-in-use that defies reduction to a codifiable process or to a system of logical relations,” while hermeneutics means a theory of interpretation (3). Paralogy sees an act of communication, “both discourse production and discourse analysis,” as an interpretative and dialogic act, “open-ended" and "nonsystemic” (36, 42).

Paralogic hermeneutics favors the philosophy of externalism, which states that “understanding develops out of ‘the give and take of communicative interaction’” (Thralls and Blyler 23). The different turns that an act of communication can take are endless and unpredictable. As a result, it is impossible to prescribe certain models of successful communication as they may or may not work for a particular situation. Paralogic hermeneutics offers three principles for understanding a communicative act: the passing theory, the principle of triangulation, and the principle of charity.

The communication between participants of a communicative situation is based on guesses. Each act creates a new “meaning” and some resolution of interaction that participants will use later in other interactions (Kent *Paralogic Rhetoric…* 42). This process of making guesses is called a “passing theory,” which “means the tentative guess or theory we employ either to understand an utterance or to produce an utterance” (87). The participants of a communicative act should “match their interpretations to others’ interpretations in *particular ways* in order to be more effective communicators” (Dobrin 142-143). Thus, previous experiences build a type of database of passing theories that participants use and correct depending on a new situation.

Paralogic hermeneutics sees participants of a communicative situation as mutually

reliant on each other for knowledge and meaning construction: "knowledge of our own minds, knowledge of other minds, and knowledge of the shared world" (Kent, quoted from Yuan 309). Kent calls this co-dependency the principle of triangulation. "Without the other and a world we share, we cannot have thoughts or mental states" (Yuan 310). Participants of a communicative act need each other to understand themselves, others, and the surrounding world.

Another principle that Kent talks about is the principle of charity. It is an acceptance principle, which means that "'when we communicate, we have no choice but to minimize error and to maximize agreement concerning the meaning of another's utterance'" (Kent, quoted from Yuan 310). Participants strive for mutual understanding, but errors are unavoidable. Participants should accept this fact and work toward some resolution through mutual acceptance and respect for differences.

Overall, paralogic hermeneutics with its concepts of passing theory, triangulation, and the principle of charity may become an extremely valuable framework for pedagogy. It emphasizes the humanistic and democratic nature of communication and can bring new social awareness and change into workplace situations. The paragraphs that follow describe its value for technical communication.

Most of the pedagogic practices that are currently used for teaching technical writing are based on process pedagogy that asks students to "learn to repeat strategies rather than to manipulate discourse from communicative scenario to communicative scenario" (Dobrin 139). These strategies usually come from textbooks in the field. The research, mostly case studies, that is used to provide these communication strategies and

guidelines cannot consider all possible situations and cannot be used “to codify composing process behavior as it occurs on the job” (Blyler “Research in Professional …” 68). Blyler concludes that we should rethink “the goal of research and its connection to professional communication pedagogy" (77).

Thralls and Blyler, and later Subbiah, write that paralogic hermeneutics reconsiders the definitions of community, knowledge and consensus, discourse conventions, and collaboration. For example, the problem with the existing definition of discourse communities and the qualities of their discourses is that we overgeneralize about them and do not account for individual variations. We see genres as formulas, while in reality they may vary significantly from workplace to workplace. Paralogic hermeneutics, on the contrary, defines knowledge (genres, expertise, practices) as “a [temporary] agreement reached with other communicants through the process of interacting” (Thralls and Blyler “The Social Perspective …” 25) and through “consultation, negotiation, and consensus, as well as through struggle and contention” (Subbiah “Social Construction …” 58). Discourse conventions cannot be defined as successful unless they are effective in the “use of background knowledge" or “hermeneutic guessing in particular interactions” (Thralls and Blyler “The Social Perspective …” 27). Thus, we are misleading students when we prescribe and establish "universal truths."

Dobrin explains that if applied to a technical writing classroom, paralogic hermeneutics would bring many changes as far as the question of classroom authority is concerned and would “re-conceptualize not only how and what we teach, but what we

think teaching *is*" (Dobrin 134). Scenario-based pedagogy, using role-playing and simulations, would be an alternative to the existing methods of teaching technical communication. Through these activities, students and a teacher would negotiate and establish principles and genres that would respond to a specific communicative situation. However, such pedagogy would require some revisions of current textbooks and teacher motivation to undertake the challenge of the new method.

Woolever argues that many textbooks contain cultural stereotypes and portray international audiences as "others" (Woolever "Doing Global Business …" 61). Many ignore the fact that cultures change because of the Internet and other means of communication. Woolever suggests that "textbooks should weave issues of cultural negotiation throughout the chapters, offering methods for approaching communication collaboratively in a global enterprise with common goals" (62). The scholars have also proposed a richer presentation of intercultural materials, including examples of current workplace documents, readings, and exercises, as well as complimentary activities that could supplement in-class reading materials (Woolever, Vesper, Limaye, Hulbert).

Paralogic hermeneutics can bring new changes and complement existing intercultural theory and practice in a technical writing course. Paralogy, through its passing theory, triangulation, and the principle of charity, (1) can serve as a philosophical foundation for a discussion about the concept of culture and an act of communication in general and (2) gives new directions for possible activities, exercises, and games. However, despite its valuable insights into interpersonal interaction and the possibility of its adaptation to teaching intercultural communication, only a few researchers have tried

to adapt/adopt paralogic hermeneutics or similar approaches to teaching intercultural communication.

As Yuan writes, “Passing theory applied in intercultural communication would mean, first of all, that there is no recipe for intercultural communication” (311). No model of intercultural communication can be universally acceptable. Intercultural communication should be treated like interpersonal communication with its various dimensions, such as gender, age, or professional distinctions. At the same time, researchers can also use any prior intercultural research, including their knowledge of other cultures from currently used approaches. These theories may be undated, revised, and modified depending on specific situations.

The principle of triangulation, which emphasizes the co-dependency of participants in a communicative act and collaborative knowledge construction, can help establish objectivity and promote tolerance in cross-cultural conflict resolutions: both sides should strive for some mutual consensus and cultural understanding through negotiation.

The principle of charity intensifies the principle of triangulation by acknowledging the inevitability of miscommunications, but also by stressing a positive interpretation and attitude. Such an attitude would help participants from different cultures see each other's actions as rational and appropriate for the situation. For instance, this would “mean trusting the good intentions of a second-language writer” although his/her message may sound rude or inconsiderate (Yuan 314).

The list of topics I mentioned earlier as suggested by T.Weiss – “the local and the

global, culture and nation, modes of communication and types of miscommunication, individuals as carriers and constructors of their culture, the necessity of second-language training and cross-cultural experience" (T.Weiss "'The Gods …" 212) – makes it possible to introduce the major principles of paralogic hermeneutics in class. These principles teach students about ethical, humanistic behavior and attitudes toward other cultures, the world, and their own culture. Communicative scenarios, games, and simulations of real and hypothetical workplace contexts would allow students to live through situations that they most likely would encounter after graduating from college. One such simulation or a game was suggested by Jack Hulbert in his article "Overcoming Intercultural Communication Barriers" (1994). Overall, if combined, paralogic hermeneutics and the dialogic approach complement each other offering instructors possible topics and communication principles for discussion and application, which can serve as an alternative to the information acquisition approach predominant in some textbooks.

Intercultural Sub-curriculum in a Service Course

The two discussed approaches, information acquisition and dialogic, are not mutually exclusive, serve different purposes, and may be combined in one curriculum/course, but as with any curriculum, their selection should be based on specific goals and objectives. That is where all challenges lie. What are those goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in a service course? How much information or practice is enough for the course? What materials and methods are more appropriate than others? Current

research lacks the answers to these questions.

In order to design goals and objectives for any given course, one must conduct "needs analysis" and "situation analysis" of a teaching context (Brown 41). Needs analysis targets the needs of different stakeholders in the educational process: teachers, learners, program directors, and industries (54). These may vary considerably from program to program and instructor to instructor. Situation analysis addresses current practices, teacher factors (preparation, teaching philosophies), demographics of students, and available technologies (98, 99, 100, 101). Applied to the service course, the unified goals and objectives should come out of the needs and situation analyses of our academic and professional community and also through textbook analysis and available teaching materials. A survey is to determine prevalent teaching philosophies (current-traditional, expressivist, cognitivist, or social-constructivist; see Chapter III), course goals and objectives, student populations, and prevalent materials and available technologies.

Chapter III offers discussion of my research methods. Using an on-line survey and discourse analysis, I explore those factors and, based on their results, construct a feasible set of common goals and objectives, create a new intercultural sub-curriculum, and propose changes to textbooks that would address the context of a service technical writing course. In addition to discourse analysis and survey, I also use theoretical inquiry into existing research in other disciplines that can contribute to intercultural teaching, and an experimental study to explore the teaching effectiveness of the alternative teaching approach suggested in Chapter V.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to introduce current research findings in intercultural teaching in technical and business communication. In the existing body of knowledge, one can identify two traditions in intercultural teaching: information acquisition and dialogic. The information acquisition approach presupposes collecting information about other cultures, which is the overall goal of teaching. Students then should learn how to categorize cultures and adjust to different communication practices. At the same time, this approach is problematic because it can potentially lead to stereotyping and an attitude that culture is merely another knowledge barrier to get over before making "a sale." Thus, it may not help students be better or more ethical communicators.

The dialogic approach, along with its subsidiary strategy of paralogic hermeneutics, aims to develop in students a better understanding of how intercultural communication happens. The approach relies on experiencing diversity first hand and creating contextual knowledge through negotiation and interaction. In other words, with the second approach, the goal is for students to create their own knowledge based on their experiences in various situations. The two approaches are not mutually exclusive and can be used for different purposes and on different stages of intercultural teaching; however, in order to choose this or that approach, we must explore current practices and reveal possible constraints that can influence our methods, materials, textbooks, and assessment. In my research, I used several different methodologies to explore the instructional contexts of the service course. Chapter III offers a thorough description of my study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the methodologies that I used to explore instructional contexts of a service technical writing course. I used two primary methods to investigate intercultural materials and teaching practices: (1) discourse analysis of textbooks and (2) a survey of our academic community (mainly, instructors of the service course). Later in my dissertation, I used an additional methodology, a quasi-experimental study, to test alternative theories in intercultural teaching. For convenience and chronology, I do not describe this methodology in this chapter.

These methodologies, a survey, discourse analysis and, later, a quasi-experimental study, had been chosen due to several factors: (1) the focus of my study, (2) my research questions, (3) the availability of resources for conducting research, and (4) the knowledge that the chosen research methods could produce. In the paragraphs that follow, I explain how these methodologies together produced valid, reliable, and generalizable results that provided insights into how to improve teaching intercultural issues in the course.

Cindy Johanek writes, "All research methods are limited in the kinds of questions they can answer and depend on the contexts in which those questions are asked; similarly, all research methods have value within certain ranges of research contexts and questions" (27). Because my dissertation research examined the intercultural pedagogy in a service technical writing course, I investigated the existing instructional contexts in order to suggest a possible intercultural sub-curriculum (teaching methods and materials

for textbooks and the course). The instructional contexts include

- instructors and their knowledge of intercultural communication;
- teaching methods used for intercultural communication;
- goals and objectives for intercultural teaching;
- classrooms and available technologies for teaching intercultural issues; and
- textbooks and intercultural materials in them.

The chosen methodologies (a survey and discourse analysis) allowed for looking at each element of an instructional context. In the sections that follow, I describe each methodology in detail.

Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis, as a research methodology, comes from linguistics and literary studies. As Mary Sue MacNealy writes, "scholars use discourse analysis to provide data for making inferences about people, events, and objects that cannot be directly observed" (124). I could not observe all technical writing sections in the United States, but I could make some hypotheses based on textbook contents and I also knew with some degree of certainty that technical communication textbooks were what students would buy and read. The question that I was trying to answer using this methodology was my first research question identified in Chapter I:

- What are current intercultural materials apparent in technical writing textbooks (those used for the service course) and what approaches do they support/respond to?

Discourses and texts form and are formed by their contexts, i.e. the world,

participants, language, purpose, media, and other discourses (Johnstone 9). For my research, I was looking at textbooks as isolated discourses. Extra-linguistic factors that had shaped the texts (publishers or field research that may influence the contents of the textbooks) were secondary to my research. What I was really interested in is what knowledge they offered, what skills they aimed to develop, and what pedagogical traditions (social constructivist, current traditionalist, cognitivist, and expressivist; those are described later in this chapter) they might support.

The most important factor in discourse analysis is to select the right discourse for analysis (MacNealy 128). I selected 15 former and current textbooks (See Appendix A: List of Analyzed Textbooks). To assess and organize the textbook discourse in a systematic fashion, I combined some elements of *grounded theory* (GT) with *content analysis* (CA). GT is most useful on the early stages of determining categories for coding and "can be used as an interim stage in the research process of content analysis, since [its] main focus is on the discovery rather than the testing of hypotheses" (Titscher et al. 85). GT emphasizes "that texts should not be approached using ready-made concepts, rather these should be developed on the basis of the material itself" (85). In other words, instead of prescribing categories of information and then looking for instances of those categories in the text, grounded theory would suggest that the researcher first look at the text and then determine what types of classification would seem to emerge and what logical patterns of classification the information in the text would seem to fall into.

Once the categories had been established (based on 3-5 textbooks), I used CA "for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of

communication" (Berelson, 1952: 18; quoted from Titscher et al. 57). CA was more suitable as a principal methodology because I worked with a large number of texts and needed a simple and structured technique for analysis (GT is rather fluid and holistic in this respect). CA offered a step-by-step procedure for identifying units for analysis, characterizing variables, collecting numeric information about variables, and comparing them across different texts. It also allowed for creating qualitative "summary" of the variables (i.e. paraphrasing, generalizing, and reducing) and conducting a simple analysis of how variables interacted and complemented each other in texts (Titscher et al. 61-62).

One of the drawbacks of discourse and text analysis lies in a researcher's possible subjectivity in data collection. The chosen categories must be mutually exclusive and well described, while the process of counting should be accurate. In order to avoid distortions in data collection and representation, a researcher could use a co-researcher or co-coder and determine inter-coder reliability for the discourses, for example, by using a simple formula of the reliability index π suggested by Herkner (Titscher et al. 65). However, for my dissertation, I did not conduct a reliability analysis for several reasons. The first reason was that it was hard to recruit a co-researcher for my dissertation work. Second, I did not set a goal to quantify the contents of the textbooks with precision. I aimed to identify general tendencies that would help me look at the overall textbook discourse (all textbooks as one discourse). At the same time, the techniques of data collection that I used for the discourse analysis (described below) were rather simple and could be replicated by any researcher.

For my analysis, I used technical writing textbooks that were published from 1993

to 2006. I identified three periods (each three to six years long): 1993-1995, 1996-1999, and 2000-2006. Within each period, I selected five textbooks, some of them with repeating editions. The books were chosen based on their availability and also based on the results of the survey in which instructors specified the textbooks that they were using at the time of the study. It would be reasonable to select several examples of those textbooks for a better understanding of the instructors' instructional contexts.

The reason for the period division was that the world has changed since the introduction of the Internet to the public in the mid-90s. In each period, the World Wide Web and other technologies brought cultures closer and provided new opportunities for intense interaction and cultural exchange. The year 1993 was the early beginning of the Internet era; by 1996, the Internet had obtained popularity; and by 2000, it had become a necessity.

In my research, some of the textbooks appeared in different editions in two or three periods. Some appeared just once and were usually the first editions of textbooks. Such an approach to selection of books allowed me to compare the changes made in several editions of the same textbook, as well as to see the emphasis, if any, made on the intercultural component in the newly published books. The overall selection of the textbooks was governed by the idea that each textbook was representative of a certain social time and was used in different programs in different periods to teach technical writing.

My discourse analysis was mostly structural and semantic. I looked "at texts in terms of how the information [was] arranged to be helpful to readers" and also compared

texts and counted the pages dedicated to multiculturalism in order to determine the importance of intercultural communication within each textbook (MacNealy 140). The initial procedure for conducting discourse analysis is "to carefully define the construct" of interest (132). My construct measured the quantity and the interconnectedness of teaching elements (exercises, discussions, examples, guidelines, and tips) in the textbooks. The process included several steps during which I created categories that constituted the intercultural contents of the textbooks.

First, in the selected textbooks, I looked for the following terms that indicated intercultural topics: intercultural, international, cross-cultural, multicultural, globalization, multinational, and culture. I examined indexes, the table of contents, and then looked through chapters and exercises at the end of the chapters. The relevant contents were then categorized into the following types or teaching elements:

- Theoretical discussions, which meant loosely any discussions of multiculturalism and factual information that were based on intercultural research, various modes, models, or frameworks for intercultural communication;
- Cultural artifacts, which meant examples of real documents and visuals;
- Intercultural tips, which were present in the overall checklists and tips at the end of the chapters; and
- Exercises and projects, or any activities that would require students to interact with or to expand their knowledge about other cultures.

Second, I counted the instances of the categories in the textbooks. I counted the number of pages dedicated to the discussions, artifacts, instances of intercultural tips in

checklists, exercises, and projects. I organized the data into tables and then compared the contents of different textbooks, identifying some similar and different patterns in teaching elements.

Next, I analyzed each category – (1) theoretical discussions, (2) cultural artifacts, (3) intercultural tips present in checklists, and (4) exercises and projects – qualitatively. I gave examples, identified common trends, and discussed some unique "solutions" or ways to implement the intercultural teaching offered by different textbooks. Qualitative analysis helped me identify common problems in textbooks and hypothesize about the pedagogies that the contents might support if used in classrooms.

In Chapter IV, I presented the results of my analysis and discussed common problems and some implications of those problems for intercultural pedagogy in a service technical writing course. In Chapter VII, I made suggestions to textbook writers and identified possible directions for improvement based on an alternative curriculum. The next section discusses my second methodology: survey.

Survey

Survey is a quite popular methodology in technical communication (See examples in Blakeslee and Spilka; Dayton and Bernhardt; and Harner). This methodology has a number of advantages considering the chosen research site and questions. First, surveys allow a wider variety of instructors to be reached compared to case studies or ethnographies. Surveys can be descriptive, exploratory, or explanatory in nature (Brown 19-20), offering "insights into the characteristics of the population, and such insights

form the basis for making better-informed decisions" (Murphy 108). My survey, mostly descriptive and exploratory, aimed to collect important demographic information about the chosen population and to identify leading teaching practices and materials.

The second reason for choosing a survey is practical. As Murphy writes, "… surveys are generally less costly, entail less risk on the part of those charged with gathering the information, and take less time to administer" (96). This methodology used to be a costly one (if mailing paper surveys or calling participants); however, new technologies, such as electronic mail and the Internet tools, allow the creation of an online survey that subjects can access and fill out in a matter of minutes.

The third reason for using a survey is that it allows the collection and analysis of my data both qualitatively and quantitatively through various types of questions and techniques. I used "closed-response (questions that can be answered by selecting from among options)" and "open-response (questions that require the respondent to produce a spoken or written answer)" questions (Brown 9). Ragin notes, "Most quantitative data techniques are data condensers. They condense data in order to see the big picture …. Qualitative methods, by contrast, are best understood as data enhancers. When data are enhanced, it is possible to see key aspects of cases more clearly (sited from "Distinguishing …" 9). To generalize about the population and, at the same time, to see some individual cases, I first looked at the numbers and identified general tendencies and then looked at individual responses to find some patterns in my non-numerical data.

The survey was distributed among American instructors of a service technical writing course in November and December, 2005, and in January, 2006, using the ATTW

listserv and online software, *SelectSurveyASP Advanced*, located on http://english.ttu.edu/survey/ (See Appendix D: Online Survey for Instructors). The purpose of the survey was to answer the following research questions:

- How can we characterize current perspectives and practices concerning goals and objectives, materials, approaches, tasks, and activities for intercultural teaching in the service course?
- What are problems and constraints with current practices of intercultural teaching in the observed environment? How can the goals and objectives be modified taking into consideration instructors' problems and teaching constraints?

The survey was anonymous and required around 20 minutes to be completed. The survey was divided into several sections that targeted various aspects of intercultural teaching. The first part of the survey collected *demographic information* about instructors and their preparedness for teaching intercultural communication, students and their makeup or diversity, and available technology. This information was important for the characterization of teaching contexts and their limitations that could influence intercultural teaching, for example, if an instructor did not have any preparation for teaching intercultural communication, or the classroom was not culturally diverse, or Internet access was not available in classrooms as a resource for all students.

The next section addressed *goals and objectives, and assessment* of intercultural teaching in a basic technical writing. This section was extremely important. In order to develop a curriculum for any course, one must set clear goals and objectives (or outcomes) that would shape the curriculum. Technical writing textbooks, which

frequently serve as a given curriculum for instructors, in most cases provide general directions without clear goals and objectives and put this responsibility on the shoulders of instructors. However, for those instructors who have never taken courses in intercultural communication, have not read books, or have never had any traveling experience, integrating intercultural communication may be a real challenge. It is challenging even for those who have taken such courses because it is hard to decide what materials to use and what materials are more appropriate than others.

The survey asked instructors about their goals, objectives, and the type of assessment they used to evaluate student learning. Applied linguistics has well-developed scholarship on curriculum development in language teaching, which is in a sense intercultural teaching, and can be applied to developing a sub-curriculum in technical writing. In the survey, I used several categorizations for tests and objectives offered by Gorsuch (Gorsuch *Chapter Two* … 32). Specifically, I asked about the knowledge and skill objectives that instructors had set for their teaching.

The last question in this section asked about the overall effectiveness of instructors' intercultural teaching based on the assessment results. The collected information allowed me to generalize about prevalent teaching goals and objectives and types of assessment in order to suggest a unified set of goals and objectives based on the responses of all instructors and available scholarship in technical communication.

The next part of the survey examined instructors' specific *teaching methods*: pedagogical traditions (current-traditionalism, expressivism, cognitivism, and social-constructivism) that instructors felt closest to. I assumed that instructors were familiar

with these pedagogical traditions as they constitute the foundations of writing instruction. The paragraphs that follow describe these traditions.

Current traditional rhetoric was a predominant perspective on writing instruction at the beginning of the 20th century, which was reflected in textbooks by Baldwin and by Hill (Berlin 36, 37, 41). Such a perspective places “truth in the external world, existing prior to the individual’s perception of it” and should be “discovered through correct perception” (36, 37). The emphasis in teaching writing is made on descriptions, exposition, narration, and also translation. Correctness in writing (grammar and punctuation) is the overall goal of teaching, which could be achieved through constant practice.

Expressivist rhetoric emerged as a response to current traditionalism. Expressivists emphasize the “personal and private nature of knowledge and of composing” (Berlin 73). Expressivists believe that “writing is creative” and it should happen each time in a classroom (Lutz 35). They have introduced the concept of “happening” (by Deemer 1967), which is "structure in unstructure; a random series of ordered events' order in chaos; the logical illogicality of dreams" (35). Writing is “discovery of self” (Berlin 146). Each individual possesses unique abilities that should be revealed, not repressed. A teacher should not interfere in this sacred act of creativity and self-realization or "self-actualization" (Rohman 108). Free-writing, journal writing and “student-peer evaluation” are the principal expressivist forms of in-class activities, and teachers still use these forms extensively in their classrooms today (Berlin 148). Elbow suggests that teachers should choose the position of a “facilitator” or a “role-model” for

students to create a comfortable atmosphere and also to allow students “to teach [themselves]” (98).

Cognitivism appeared in response to new scientific discoveries in the ways the mind processes information. Researchers looked at human cognitive activities that determine writing practices: "Order, arrangement, structure - these concepts seem to be a necessary precondition in order for the mind to be able to understand anything" (D'Angelo *A Conceptual Theory* … 10). For example, Lev Vygotsky, a prominent developmental psychologists of the early 20th century, started his research from children to find and to distinguish conscious and subconscious levels of human thinking and formulated his theory of interdependency of through and language. Cognitivists aimed to document unique thinking processes on paper using "the techniques of protocol analysis" (Flower and Hayes “Identifying the Organization …” 3).

Cognitivists see writing as a complex cognitive process consisting of planning, generating, translating, and editing. Writing is perceived as an evolution: "the composing process is analogous to universal evolutionary process, in which an original, amorphous, undifferentiated whole gradually evolves into a more complex, differentiated one" (D'Angelo “An Ontological Bias …” 79). Cognitivists use this deductive method from general to specific, from evolution in minds and bodies to evolution in the process of thinking and writing while writing: "they [students] must plan, generate knowledge, translate it into speech, and edit what they've written" (Flower and Hayes “The Dynamics of Composing …” 31).

Another tradition, which is currently one of the most popular perspectives in

writing instruction, is social constructivism. Social-constructivists reemphasize the social nature of writing (Faigley 528). Bizzell writes in her article, "We must help our students, and our fellow citizens, to engage in a rhetorical process that can collectively generate trustworthy knowledge and beliefs to the common good – knowledge and beliefs to displace the repressive ideologies an unjust social order would inscribe in the skeptical void" (Bizzell 671; also see Berlin "Rhetoric and Ideology …" 477). Developing in students' critical thinking and social and cultural awareness is the overall goal of teaching writing for social constructivists. As Faigley writes,

> A social view […] rejects the assumption that writing is the act of private consciousness and that everything else - readers, subjects, and texts - is 'out there' in the world. The focus of a social view of writing, therefore, is not on how the social situation influences the individual, but on how the individual is a constituent of a culture. (535)

For social constructivists, reality is socially constructed. Each individual represents a concentration of certain values and prejudices that will be reflected in writing and will be imposed in writing. Bakhtin writes that "words carry with them the places where they have been," and then Bazerman adds "the texts are 'active social tools in the complex interactions of a research community'" (quoted from Faigley 535, 536). Overall, these four traditions, current traditionalism, expressivism, cognitivism, and social constructivism, are still alive and are frequently combined by teachers to address different purposes in teaching.

The next section on the survey asked where the intercultural materials were located in the course, and in association with what topics the instructors discussed intercultural communication. Instructors also had to identify the prevalent methods of

teaching (lecture, discussions, or games and simulations) that they used in classrooms and to explain about what outside sources on intercultural communication, if any, they used to complement textbook materials. The last question of this section inquired about cultural theories, dimensions or typologies that the instructors used for intercultural teaching.

The next section was the overall *instructors' evaluation of their own efforts and problems* that they encountered in intercultural teaching. This section revealed common problems, such as the lack of adequate resources, the lack of time, or the lack of adequate training. By knowing the constraints that instructors face, one could devise realistic goals and objectives and a curriculum that would work around these problems.

The last section on the survey examined *textbooks*. Instructors had an opportunity to rate the sufficiency of textbook materials for their purposes and classes and also suggest possible changes (additions or deletions) of such teaching elements as examples, discussions, cases, and exercises. This last part helped me discuss the role of textbooks in teaching and curriculum development and suggest changes to textbook writers based on the instructors' experiences.

To sum up, the survey addressed all elements of teaching: instructors, students, classrooms, textbooks, goals and objectives, assessment, and teaching methods. Such broad coverage allowed for better understanding of teaching contexts and constraints that instructors face.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the methodologies that I used to investigate the instructional context of the service technical writing course. On the whole, the chosen methodologies, discourse analysis and survey, complemented each other and allowed for some methodological triangulation through qualitative and quantitative analysis. The selection of discussed methods was governed by their suitability for specific contexts and purposes. Content analysis and ground theory helped understand what teaching practices textbooks might shape: what was available for students and instructors in the textbooks and what pedagogies the contents of the textbooks might support. An online survey complemented the discourse analysis and was chosen because it reached more participants and investigated real teaching contexts. The next chapter, Chapter IV, describes the results of the survey and discourse analysis. The results help shape goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course.

CHAPTER IV

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND SURVEY: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of my discourse analysis and survey. I first discuss the chosen textbooks and present the numeric results of my discourse analysis in several tables. Then I analyze the data qualitatively. I talk about categories of intercultural materials (theoretical discussions, checklists, cultural artifacts, and exercises and projects). Each category serves a certain purpose, but all of them altogether create a discourse of intercultural communication in a service technical writing course. I examine how categories complement and work with one another, and such an analysis helps identify potential problems and lacks. Overall, this section reveals what is available to technical writing instructors for teaching and what pedagogies the intercultural materials may support or promote. I also form hypotheses about the effects that the textbook contents may have on students' learning.

The second part of the chapter deals with the results of my online survey that targeted technical writing instructors and the teaching contexts of service technical writing courses. I describe and analyze the results of each specific section on the survey. Then I look at the patterns and identify common challenges that instructors face when teaching about intercultural communication. The survey reveals the current practices of intercultural teaching and helps identify some of the instructors' difficulties. The survey and textbook analysis help me propose a realistic set of goals and objectives for intercultural teaching that would take into consideration the challenges and constraints

that the instructors are working with in real classrooms.

Discourse Analysis

I report discourse analysis of 15 textbooks published during 1993-2006. Some of the textbooks with 2006 as an official date of publication (for example, by Lannon (2006) or by Houp, Pearsal, Tebeaux, and Dragga (2006)) were actually available for instructors in 2005. My choice of textbooks was based on their availability in the department of English at TTU at the time of my research and was also governed by the selections that instructors made in the survey (The survey asked instructors to identify the textbooks that they used in their classrooms). In addition, each textbook represents a certain discourse that at some point in time could serve as the foundation of intercultural teaching in a service course. Thus, all of them are valid representatives of their time and place within the technical writing discourse.

Quantitative Analysis

You can see the numeric results for the textbooks in Table 4.1. The analysis counts instances of discussions of intercultural communication and the number of related examples (artifacts), also exploring whether such discussions are reinforced in the end-of-chapter reviews and exercises. I have organized the data in periods and calculated the totals for each period to see the differences in different years. For the complete results of my discourse analysis, see Appendix B: Results of the Textbook Analysis.

Table 4.1: Detailed Numerical Results for Each Textbook (in the number of pages, instances, and location)

Textbook	Theoretical discussions (in the number of pages and location)	Cultural artifacts	In checklists and reviews for the chapters	Exercises/projects (in the number of instances and location)
1993-1995				
Anderson, P. 1995.	Approx. 4.5	4	0	1
Boiarsky, C. 1993.	Approx. 3.5	5	1	2
Burnett, R. 1994.	Approx. 5.5	0	1	1
Collins, E. & D. Bosley. 1995.	Approx. 3.5	0	0	1
Lannon, J. 1994.	Approx. 7	0	0	1
Overall results for 5 books	R=7-3.5 Mean=4.8 *Accum.: 24	R=5-0 Mean=1.8 *Accum.: 9	R=1-0 Mean=0.4 *Accum.: 2	R=2-1 Mean=1.2 *Accum.: 6
1996-1999				
Burnett, R. 1997.	Approx. 6.5	1	2	1
Killingsworth, J. 1996.	Approx. 0.08	1	0	0
Markel, M. 1998.	Approx. 11.5	0	1	8
Sims, B. 1998.	Approx. 5	0	1	1
Woolever, K. 1999.	Approx. 18	2	7	5
Overall results for 5 books	R=18-0.08 Mean=8.2 *Accum.: 41	R=2-0 Mean=0.8 *Accum.: 4	R=7-0 Mean=2.2 *Accum.: 11	R=8-0 Mean=3 *Accum.: 15
2000-2006				
Anderson, P. 2003.	Approx. 7	4	0	1
Houp, K., T. Pearsall, E. Tebeaux, & S.	Approx. 23	9	2	8

Dragga. 2006.				
Lannon, J. 2006.	Approx. 10	0	3	11
Markel, M. 2003.	Approx. 18	5	5	9
Woolever, K. 2005.	Approx. 22	2	7	4
Overall results for 5 books	R=23-7 Mean=16 *Accum.: 80	R=9-0 Mean=4 *Accum.: 20	R=7-0 Mean=3.4 *Accum.: 17	R=11-1 Mean=6.6 *Accum.: 33

NOTE: *Accum. stands for the accumulative number for 5 books.

Based on the results, each category of intercultural materials has been expanded over the last 13 years. See Table 4.2 for a simplified version of the results for each period.

Table 4.2: Overall Number of Pages, Examples, and Exercises and Their Averages

Textbook	Theoretical discussions (in the number of pages and location)	Cultural artifacts	In checklists and reviews for the chapters	Exercises/projects (in the number of instances and location)
1993-1995	R=7-3.5 Mean=4.8 *Accum.: 24	R=5-0 Mean=1.8 *Accum.: 9	R=1-0 Mean=0.4 *Accum.: 2	R=2-1 Mean=1.2 *Accum.: 6
1996-1999	R=18-0.08 Mean=8.2 *Accum.: 41	R=2-0 Mean=0.8 *Accum.: 4	R=7-0 Mean=2.2 *Accum.: 11	R=8-0 Mean=3 *Accum.: 15
2000-2006	R=23-7 Mean=16 *Accum.: 80	R=9-0 Mean=4 *Accum.: 20	R=7-0 Mean=3.4 *Accum.: 17	R=11-1 Mean=6.6 *Accum.: 33

NOTE: *Accum. stands for the accumulative number for 5 books.

The overall length of intercultural discussions has increased from an average of 4.8 pages per book to 16 pages, or has increased approximately *three* times. The number of artifacts has also slightly increased in some textbooks, though it remains small. For example, Markel's fifth edition (1998) had zero artifacts, whereas his seventh edition (2003) has five. However, other textbooks, such as Woolever's first and third editions,

have not increased the number of artifacts. The one problem that can easily be seen through this numeric analysis is that on average, in current textbooks published between 2000 and 2006, only one artifact backs up four pages of intercultural discussions.

The number of exercises is also few in the current textbooks. Assuming that the average number of chapters in each book is approximately 19, there is on average only one exercise with a multicultural emphasis per three chapters in a book. The books published in the first and the second periods have even fewer exercises and activities (one per 19 chapters and six per 19 chapters correspondingly). See Table 4.3 for the overview of the results for artifacts and exercises.

Table 4.3: The Approximate Number of Artifacts and Exercises per Total Pages and Chapters

Period	1 artifact per … pages of theoretical discussions	1 exercise or project per … chapters in a single book
1993-95	2.5 pages	19 chapters
1996-99	8 pages	6 chapters
2000-06	4 pages	3 chapters

One exercise per three chapters in a textbook means that more than a half of the chapters in a textbook may have no practical application of the intercultural discussions presented within the topics of various chapters.

Overall, the intercultural component has gradually become recognized as an essential part of technical writing textbooks, with a slow but steady expansion. If we consider the overall number of pages for theoretical discussions that the current textbooks have (around 650 pages), this expansion may seem insignificant. Nevertheless, taking into account other numerous issues that the textbooks cover and possible limitations in textbook length, I may conclude that this average of 16 pages does represent a

recognizable increase from previous editions. However, even if the textbooks have slightly longer discussions of intercultural issues, the continued shortage of artifacts and exercises may limit student learning. Students will not have any opportunity to apply the tips or guidelines (the number of which has also slightly increased) or have sufficient practice for real world contexts.

Qualitative Analysis

In this section, I present qualitative analysis of my findings. I look at specific categories, examine their contents, and give examples.

Theoretical Discussions

One may be baffled, looking at the numbers in the "Results" section, as to what current textbooks are discussing if there are not many real intercultural documents to back up their statements about multiculturalism. For example, some authors talk about localization (writing for a specific culture) and internationalization (writing for all cultures) of documents or Simplified English (Markel (2004); Woolever (2005)). At the same time, although many writers discuss differences in writing across cultures, in my research, I have not found one textbook that mentions contrastive rhetoric or discuss explicitly the basic principles of contrastive rhetorical analysis.

A common trend in especially current textbooks is to include various dimensions, such as Hofstede's (individualism vs. collectivism, feminine vs. masculine, and others) or Hall's (high-context and low-context cultures) (See examples in Woolever (2005); Houp

et al. (2006)). Frequently, in conjunction with those or with various technical writing topics, textbook writers introduce cultural factoids that Miles and Corbett argued against in the mid 1990s. Thus, overall, the information acquisition approach is still predominant in current textbooks. For example, Lannon's 6th edition (1994) states: "Japanese readers expect multiple perspectives on the material, with liberal use of graphics and a friendly, encouraging tone (Hein 125-26)" (Lannon (1994) 104). In Lannon's 10th edition (2003), one will read similar factoids: "British correspondence, for instance, typically expresses the bad news directly up front, instead of taking the indirect approach preferred in the United States" (Lannon (2006) 227).

Such cultural factoids are not completely useless and may have a place in intercultural teaching. The problem is that authors usually borrow those factoids from research articles. Many of the articles are case studies, and there is some danger of taking those research findings out of context (time and place). In addition, because of the fast developing electronic communication, the research in particular cultures needs to be frequently updated. For example, Anderson's 3rd (1995) and 5th (2003) editions and Boiarsky's (1993) book use the initial lines from a Japanese business letter, "The season of cherry blossom …," as an example of an intercultural document; however, this example appeared in Haneda & Shima back in 1983. Can this single and potentially outdated example represent the contemporary Japanese business letter writing style? Another difficulty for students is to remember all these factoids, which may be quite overwhelming. As Miles writes, "These factoids are a good way to sensitize students to the fact that differences exist, but the numerous details presented in these textbooks will

certainly not stick with most students" (Miles 188).

Cultural Artifacts

The lack of real intercultural documents deprives students of the flavor of intercultural communication. Useful artifacts include visual and verbal types, and the more current editions of textbooks offer a larger variety compared to the previous editions. For instance, in Boiarsky's textbook (1993), students could find only an example from the beginning of the Japanese letter ("The season of cherry blossom …") and a couple of international safety symbols. The current textbooks, including Houp et al. (2006), Markel (2004), and Anderson (2003), offer the "verbal" examples of Pakistani and Mexican business letters in English with analyses, "Passages Reflecting Cultural Variables" (Japan, India, Finland), and a "visual" example of a page in Japanese. The examples are becoming more and more workplace writing-oriented and are situated within particular technical communication genres, which allow students to get firsthand experience with real intercultural documents. For example, Markel's "Passages Reflecting Cultural Variables" (Japan, India, and Finland) can be useful for introducing the basics of contrastive rhetorical analysis.

Intercultural Tips in Checklists

The results of the quantitative analysis show an increase in the number of instances when intercultural tips become a part of overall checklists or reviews for the chapters in textbooks. Including the intercultural component in the overall reviews and

checklists forces students to reexamine or reevaluate chapter-related materials in the light of intercultural communication. Some textbook writers, such as Markel and Woolever, have included those in five to seven chapters. However, although the checklists and reviews remind students about the intercultural dimension of workplace writing, the question remains whether students will actually remember the suggestions or take them seriously, especially if those tips and reviews are not supported by any practical application (i.e. exercises at the end of the chapters). To give an example, Woolever's latest edition (2005) has intercultural tips in the reviews for seven chapters, but contains only four exercises and projects and two cultural artifacts.

Exercises and Projects

The number of exercises has increased since the early 90s from the approximate average of one per book to six and a half per book. The type of exercises and their frequency are shown in Table 4.4. For detailed results, see Appendix C: Detailed Results for the Types of Exercises and Projects in the Examined Textbooks.

Table 4.4: The Number and Types of Exercises and Projects in All Examined Textbooks

Types	**1993-95**	**1996-99**	**2000-06**
"Research" or "Research and write" about another culture or an international issue	2	5	13
"Write, create, or revise" for a person from another culture	2	6	11
"Find and examine" a foreign document or a situation	2	3	8
"Interview" a person from another culture	0	1	1
Totals	**6**	**15**	**33**
*Web assignments from the overall number	0	3	12

In the examined textbooks, published between 2000 and 2006, the exercises that ask students to search for information online or in books are the highest in number (almost a half of all exercises). Such a high number means that acquiring information about other cultures through published sources is a predominant approach in the examined textbooks. It sends a message about the goals and objectives the textbook writers establish for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. These are to acquire information, build knowledge, but not so much to develop communication skills. For example, such exercises may ask students to do the following: "Collaborative projects: Prepare a written report on the challenges associated with doing business in a specific country. Focus your report on issues such as the following: management styles, corporate culture, negotiation style, social values, economics, and political systems" (Houp et al. 133).

The exercises that ask students to communicate with people from other cultures in real life, for examples, interviewing a person from another culture, are the least in number (1). These types of exercises may be compensated by the second common type of exercises, "Write, create, or revise" for a person from another culture. They are also high in number (one third of all exercises). However, if closely examined, such exercises may create potential problems. First, they support only one-directional communication. Second, they are frequently based on the information (factoids or stereotypes) provided in the chapters or no discussion at all, and may create potential difficulties for students. For example, one of the projects offered by Markel asks students the following:

> Locate a graphic on the Web that you consider inappropriate for an international audience because it might be offensive or unclear in some cultures. Imagine an

> audience for the graphic, such as people from the Middle East, and write a brief statement explaining the potential problem. Finally, revise the graphic so that it would be appropriate for its intended audience. (Markel (2004) 360)

The phrasing of the first line of the exercise is quite confusing. Is there such a concept as an "international audience"? If there is, they will vary drastically. Something that is "offensive" for one culture can be appropriate for another. But overall, this line, in my perception, separates "them" (foreigners) from "us" (American students). There is also a slight judgment in the statement: a graphic is "unclear" for "them," and it is "clear" for us.

The second line of the exercise narrows the "international audience" down to the Middle East. However, the region is diverse. The chapter itself does not provide a sufficient discussion about the countries in the Middle East. Instead, Markel gives *Strategies for Intercultural Communication* and offers plenty of factoids. In one of the guidelines, "Portray people very carefully," one can read the following: "a photograph of a woman in casual Western attire seated at a workstation would not be effective in an Islamic culture, where only the hands and eyes of a woman may be shown" (355). First of all, what is "an Islamic culture" and who defines what it is? In many Islamic countries, where Islam is a predominant religion, it is ok to wear western clothing and sit at a workstation. Such generalizations can easily instigate stereotyping and negative attitudes in students on the basis of religion, not even cultural differences. Religion is a big part of a culture, but not the entirety of culture. Instead of generalizing in such a way, one needs to specify countries or ethnic groups. This example is just one of the examples when factoids defeat the purpose of including intercultural materials in textbooks because such

examples do not enlighten students, but reinforce misconceptions and wrongful generalizations.

Another important lack in textbooks which makes it hard to use "Write, create, or revise" exercises in classes is that only few textbooks discuss localization and internationalization of documents. If textbook writers want students to be able to write, create or revise for people from other cultures, they need to discuss these approaches in detail and provide some basic principles for students to use. In the examined current textbooks, only Markel and Woolever offer some explanation on the topic. Woolever (2005) discusses international English and also briefly defines what localization is (237). At the same time, the practical guidelines are given only for international English; so based on the contents of the textbook, students can probably internationalize a document or use Simplified English, but they will not be able to localize a document. Markel (2004) also introduces Simplified English, but not localization (259-260). Overall, the skills of localization and globalization of documents are not easy to acquire. Only professional translators and technical writers specializing in these skills can do a good job of localizing or internationalizing documents. Thus, when including the exercises on writing, creating, or revising for other cultures, writers should be aware of what is introduced to students in the chapters and phrase the exercises and projects in an appropriate way.

One of the big changes in exercises over the last decade is the use of the web for locating intercultural artifacts (approximately one third of all the exercises in the current textbooks). For example, half of the exercises that can be classified as "Find and

Examine" exercises utilize the web as a source of examples. Textbook writers strive for more exercises that would involve searching the web for intercultural documents, which is an excellent use of intercultural resources that are available to all American students. At the same time, asking students to find an international document on the web may be a difficult task simply because many of the students may not know how to do that. Explaining about online translators or suggesting websites with English language versions, for examples, universities around the globe, would alleviate the process of finding the documents (for example, see http://www.ksu.ru/eng/index.php3 for the English website of Kazan State University, Russia).

One of the downfalls of the current exercises is that there is a lack of those that would facilitate discussions about culture and diversity in general or exercises that would promote an inquiry into the American culture. If students do not understand fully what constitutes a culture and what is the American culture and how it comes into being, then the discussion of other cultures and cultural differences may not be effective. In other words, how can students understand other cultures if they do not know what constitutes their own culture? The exercises (including games and simulations) that would promote inquiry into the cultures that surround students will give them a better understanding of how other cultures might be.

Major Conclusions: Challenges of Presenting Intercultural Materials in Textbooks

Based on the discourse analysis, I have identified the following current trends in intercultural materials in textbooks:

1. The textbook authors seek to expand their discussion of multiculturalism by adding more factual information about cultures, various typologies, and dimensions to look at cultural differences (for example, dimensions offered by Hall (1976) and by Hofstede (2004)).
2. There is an imbalance in the number of discussions, their demonstrations (artifacts), and their application (exercises and projects). For example, there is a discussion of intercultural matters in the chapter, but there are no cultural artifacts to back up the discussions, or the chapters lack exercises or project that would help students develop relevant skills. This imbalance may lead to a significant decrease in the effectiveness of teaching.
3. The textbooks include a larger variety of examples. Although the number of visual and verbal cultural artifacts remains relatively small, the quality and the variety represented within current textbooks are expanding and improving. Examples give students an opportunity to experience intercultural similarities and differences and, in my perception, examples, not factoids, should be at the basis of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course.
4. The inclusion of the intercultural dimension in the general reviews and checklists at the end of the chapters reinforces the importance of those issues for technical writing topics. However, minimizing the intercultural component to checklists is not always helpful. There should be a balance of various teaching elements, including discussions, exercises, and examples, that would give instructors an opportunity to select appropriate teaching elements for their classrooms.

5. The textbooks lack exercises and projects that would promote discussion of culture and, specifically, the U.S. cultures. Such exercises would target students' understanding of what culture is and how it is formed.
6. The most prevalent exercises ask students to search for information about other cultures instead of promoting cultural exposure. Working with cultural artifacts can alleviate this problem, but instructors should be careful not to give students ready answers in the form of factoids in chapters. Instead, students may benefit more from acquiring skills of analysis, such as the basic contrastive rhetorical analysis of the documents produced in English by other cultures. Another possible direction can be learning to use the principles of simplified language/English, which also is gradually becoming a government standard for the documentation addressed to the public in the United States.
7. Textbooks do not present a variety of types of activities, such as simulations or games that would require role-playing. Role-playing develops communication skills in simulated environments. If students are simply referred to written documents and work mainly with written communication, they do not have a chance to experience culture and negotiate meaning. Such simulations may also develop students' understanding of the concept of culture and its dimensions. I talk more about such games and experiential learning in Chapter V.

The major conclusions of my textbook analysis show that the integration of the intercultural materials is still a challenge for many textbook writers. The overall tendency is an expansion of the multicultural emphasis, which is a very positive and beneficial

change. At the same time, it seems there is no consensus among textbook writers on how much is enough and what materials are more appropriate than others. I claim that this ambiguity comes from the lack of clear unified goals and objectives of intercultural teaching, which can be addressed by surveying our academic community.

Limitations of Discourse Analysis

One of the drawbacks of discourse and text analysis lies in possible researcher's subjectivity in data collection (or seeing the data that is not there). The chosen categories must be mutually exclusive and well described, and the process of counting should be accurate. In order to avoid distortions in data collection and representation, one would have to use a co-researcher or coder and determine inter-coder reliability for the books. A researcher then could use a simple formula of the reliability index π suggested by Herkner (Titscher et al. 65). Unfortunately, I could not use a co-research for my dissertation work. To add reliability to my findings, I repeated the process of collecting and measuring my data twice. I first defined categories and counted the instances of these categories two years ago. Then I repeated the exact process two years later and updated freshly emerging categories of materials to clarify my coding procedures. The categories of materials are much clearer and focused now. Therefore, I argue that the reliability of my findings is quite high, and the discourse analysis can be easily repeated by any other researcher because all categories are explicitly described and the results of my study can be found in Appendixes B and C.

There are some limitations as far as the external validity of my findings is

concerned, specifically my sampling procedures. I use only five textbooks in each identified period, and some of the textbooks appear in several editions, while others appear only once. The problem is that some of the current textbooks used by instructors are new textbooks and did not appear until the second period. At the same time, I did not want to exclude the newly published textbooks. Thus, I selected textbooks based on their availability in the Department of English at the time of my study, which presupposed some degree of random selection. I also considered the fact that each textbook was a valid representative of a certain period because it was used by different programs for teaching technical writing. As I explained in Chapter III, such textbook selection allowed me to examine a wider range of textbooks and also trace the changes that textbook writers made in several editions.

As far as generalizability is concerned, my discourse analysis does have some limitations because five textbooks are definitely not enough to characterize the whole "population" of textbooks. As Hayes et al. write, "If we want to generalize from the study, that is, if we want to claim that many or all instances are like the one that has been investigated, then it is important that the sample be fairly large and that it be representative of the whole category of instances" (92). Because of the time constraints, I limited my research to 15 books, and, I claim, this number of textbooks was quite sufficient for my purpose: to see major trends in former and current textbooks, identify major problems in the presentation of intercultural materials, and suggest possible solutions. Thus, my findings may not characterize all textbooks, but they do show the overall trends in textbooks.

Textbook writers are not the only "providers" or creators of the technical writing curriculum. Many would claim that the instructors are the ones who are responsible for curriculum development. Although it is true that some instructors use a textbook as an additional source, but not as the main source of their teaching materials, textbooks are what students buy and read, and textbooks do provide a teaching plan or a curriculum. For the purpose of my dissertation, I look at both the textbooks and the real life practices in order to triangulate the research methods, as well as textbook and classroom discourses. I surveyed instructors of a service technical writing course and inquired about their goals and objectives, additional materials they use for intercultural teaching, instructors' teaching methods, and the constraints that they face when teaching about intercultural communication. The next section describes the results of the survey, reveals teaching contexts of the service course, and shows what kind of adaptation textbooks go through within different academic settings.

Survey

I received responses from 43 respondents. From this number, I deleted 13 as incomplete submissions. Therefore, the overall number of respondents subject to analysis was 30. I cross-checked the submissions for duplicates using IP addresses, a feature that was offered through *SelectSurveyASP Advanced*. For a better understanding of the data when reporting the result, I use percentages as well as the actual number of respondents in parentheses.

Demographic Information

Instructors. The survey shows that a technical writing course is usually taught by professors: assistant professors (27% (8)), associate professors (13% (4)), and full professors (7% (2)). The next common category is graduate students completing their degrees (30% (9)). 23% (7) of respondents were lecturers and instructors that identified themselves as "Other."

Exposure to Other Cultures and Languages. 90% (27) of the respondents have traveled abroad, and 40% (12) lived overseas for at least two months. 57% (17) can read and speak in one or more foreign languages, which can help in teaching about other cultures. Only 7% (2) of respondents are non-native English speakers who come from outside of the United States. In addition, several instructors reported that they tutored international students, and a very small number said they participated in a seminar/colloquium type of training in intercultural communication.

Education. 30% (9) of the respondents conduct research in intercultural communication. 33% (10) have read 5 or more books and articles on intercultural communication; 27% (8) have read 3-4 books, while 37% (11) have read only 1-2 books on intercultural communication. At the same time, only 23% (7) have taken formal classes on intercultural communication.

Classes. Most of the respondents teach onsite (90% (27)), normally 1-2 sections (83% (24)), 2-3 times per week 50 minutes (25% (7)) or 1:20 minutes per class (29% (8)). The rest of the instructors have different schedules; some classes, for example, online teaching, do not require weekly meetings (13% (4) of the respondents). A small

number of instructors reported that they have just one weekly meeting more than an hour long. The number of students in the classes varied from 8 to 27. From this number, the mode for the overall number of international students in *all* their sections was 2, varying from 0 to 6 (with several outliers with more than 20 international students).

Technology. As far as technology is concerned, 59% (17) of respondents reported that their classrooms have computers for all students; 14% (4) have limited number of computers in their classes, which does not allow for individual work; and 17% (5) have separate computer labs. At the same time, many instructors noted that even if the classrooms do not have computers for all students, classes are held in computer labs once or twice a week. *None* of the instructors reported that the computers are *not* connected to the Internet.

Goals, Objectives and Assessment

This section of the survey was one of the most important in my research because it showed how instructors understand what constitutes knowledge and what constitute skills in intercultural teaching. I selected the most frequent key words in the responses and classified those into categories. Overall, 80% (24) of respondents do teach about intercultural communication. 20% (6) responded that they do not.

The result of the survey revealed that expectations, emphasis, or even understanding of what knowledge and skills are needed and how much is enough for a technical writing course vary from instructor to instructor. This situation is problematic because, as I mentioned in the previous section of this chapter about the textbook

analysis, the textbook writers do not offer a clear set of goals or objectives of intercultural teaching for their textbook contents either. In the forthcoming sections, I discuss knowledge and skills objectives and talk about the most common objectives identified by instructors. Some respondents indicated several or most of the listed objectives in the categories below (See categories below). Some chose only one. Many of the responses were not specific enough as far as objectives are concerned. Such responses usually started with "be aware …" or "be sensitive …," which are rather abstract goals/objectives that are hard to teach and assess.

Knowledge Objectives. When asked about what instructors want their students *to know* about intercultural communication, participants offered various responses, and most of them were rather general:

1. Awareness of cultural differences and different communication styles/conventions (written or oral communication): 19 respondents

This type of knowledge objective was the most common one. Most of the instructors reported that students needed to know or be aware of cultural differences in written and oral communication: "awareness of issues involving intercultural communication" or "awareness that there ARE other cultures and that they have to work with and communicate with them." To clarify, awareness is synonymous with knowledge in responses and is used interchangeably, i.e. knowledge of differences or knowledge of other cultures.

2. Intercultural audience analysis: 4 respondents

A rather insignificant number of instructors reported audience analysis as their

knowledge objective: “how to analyze an audience within that groups’ specific culture” or “know how to conduct a good multicultural-based audience analysis.” These responses re-emphasized the need for audience analysis when dealing with various cultures. At the same time, audience analysis is more a skill than knowledge. Interestingly, this fact shows that there is some confusion about what skills and knowledge in teaching are and what each term means.

3. Cultural variables/dimensions: 3 respondents

Several instructors reported that students should know cultural dimensions and variables. For example, one of the respondents wrote “that there are hidden and more obvious cultural variables.” Another wrote, “I use Hofstede’s dimensions to launch the discussion and a small project.” So for a small group of instructors, dimensions and variables are the knowledge of intercultural teaching that students should have.

4. Culture and language, contrastive rhetoric: 3 respondents

Some instructors specified discussion of language issues and culture as an objective: one of them wrote, “we occasionally discuss communicating in a trans-national organization, culturally-specific language, and gender-specific language”; or “I want them to know basic ideas about contrastive rhetoric.”

5. Miscellaneous

- Simplified English: 2 respondents
- Problems of translation: 2 respondents
- World Englishes: 1 respondent
- Culture and its definition/understanding: 1 respondent

- Localization, stereotypes, ethnocentrism: 1 respondent

Several instructors suggested the knowledge of principles of Simplified English and translation issues. Only one person mentioned culture and its understanding and one person mentioned such intercultural communication concepts as stereotypes and ethnocentrism. At the same time, these concepts are the core content of intercultural communication.

Skills Objectives. When asked what instructors want their students to be able to do, several stated the same or similar objectives as for the knowledge objectives. This signals that we still do not distinguish clearly what we want our students to know and what we want them to do. The responses fell into the following categories:

1. Write to readers from other cultures: 15 respondents

Half of the respondents want their students to be able to write to intercultural audiences. For example, one of the instructors wrote that students should "be able to write in a culturally sensitive way." Unfortunately, most of the instructors did not specify what they meant by writing "in a sensitive way." This objective may signify localizing (tailoring documents for one specific culture/country) or internationalizing (making them universal and appropriate for any culture) documents or writing in specific genres. Only 3 instructors mentioned Simplified English.

2. Design visuals for other cultures: 4 respondents

Several instructors mentioned designing visuals for international audiences as skills objectives. However, they did not specify what types of visuals, or whether the objective asked students to localize visuals for specific cultures or create ones that would

be appropriate for any culture.

3. Use Simplified English: 3 respondents

Three instructors mentioned using simplified English in writing, which can be used when a writer internationalizes documents.

4. Be sensitive to people from other cultures; respect cultural differences: 3 respondents

A small number of respondents also named sensitivity and respect for cultural differences as a skill students need to develop: "to be more understanding and patient, when communicating with someone from a different culture." However, such an objective is not specific enough and is more like instructors' wish, than a skill to develop.

5. Miscellaneous:

- Conduct basic contrastive analysis: 2 respondents
- Classify cultures according to cultural dimensions: 1 respondent
- Interview people from other cultures: 1 respondent
- Analyze documents from other cultures: 1 respondent
- Resolve communication conflicts: 1 respondent

In addition to the most frequent responses, several instructors also mentioned contrastive analysis, classification of cultures, interviewing, and document analysis as skills to develop. Only one instructor mentioned resolving communication conflicts. So, if we look at all classified objectives, most of the proposed skills address written communication. At the same time, skills of effective oral communication across cultures are a must in multicultural workplaces.

Assessment. The next portion of the survey asked respondents to specify the types

of assessment they use in their classrooms. 60% (18) of respondents said they use participation in discussions as an assessment technique for intercultural learning. 27% (8) use oral presentations, 20% (6) require students to produce documents for other cultures, while another 20% (6) reported that they ask students to write papers about other cultures. 13% (4) use reading quizzes, and one instructor uses written exams. These numbers are interesting because they show that although half of the respondents (15) want their students to be able to write to other cultures, only 20% of respondents (6) ask students to produce documents for other cultures as an assignment for formal assignment. Moreover, 47% of instructors (14) do not have any formal assessment of intercultural teaching.

When the survey asked those respondents who do use formal assessment in their classes to rank the effectiveness of the present teaching based on student performances on a scale from 1 (ineffective) to 5 (effective), none of the respondents was completely satisfied with the results (i.e. nobody chose 5). Only 2 instructors indicated 4 on the scale, 7 respondents chose number 3, 6 instructors chose 2, and one instructor chose 1. So, the scale of the responses was leaning slightly towards ineffective: 2.6 was the average response.

Teaching Methods

Pedagogical Traditions. The survey asked instructors which pedagogical tradition (cognitivism, expressivism, current-traditionalism, or social-constructivism) they felt closest to. 73% (22) of instructors chose social-constructivism, 37% (11) selected

cognitivism, and 33% (10 respondents) chose current-traditionalism. An insignificant number of instructors (1 respondent for each) chose expressivism or none of the traditions specified.

Technical Writing Topics and Multiculturalism. When asked with which topics instructors discussed intercultural issues, 90% (27) of respondents indicated audience analysis. 63% (19) also indicated visual design and visuals. 50% (15) discuss intercultural communication with such topics as persuasion and rhetoric. 47% (14) also address intercultural communication when teaching about instructions and workplace correspondence. These topics are, therefore, the most common. A slightly smaller number of instructors, 30% (9), also teach interculturalism when discussing editing, style, job application materials, oral presentations, grammar, usage, and mechanics. A small number of respondents also do so in connection to report writing (20% (6)), proposal writing (13% (4)), or research process (10% (3)). Only one instructor specified that he/she teaches intercultural communication as a separate unit, not associated with any other topics.

When asked where intercultural issues were positioned in their courses, 60% (18) responded that they talk about them throughout the semester. 30% discuss them in the middle of the course and 7% (2) address intercultural communication at the beginning of the semester. Therefore, most of the instructors prefer a “dispersal” method, i.e. addressing those issues all though the semester. 33% (10) reported that they have several assignments (3-5) in the course that deal with intercultural issues directly or indirectly. 30% (9) responded that they have a few (1-2). 33% (10) reported that none of their

assignments addressed intercultural communication.

Teaching Methods for Intercultural Communication. When asked about how instructors teach about interculturalism, 90% (27) responded that they use classroom discussions. 53% (16) use lectures. Half of the respondents use outside readings (50% (15)), which tells us something about the usefulness of textbook contents. The contents are not sufficient. 37% (11) examine documents and cultural artifacts. 33% (10) use web searches. Only 17% (5) use games, simulations or exercises. 7% (2) use music or films.

For specific outside resources on multiculturalism, 47% (14) refer students to articles, 43% (13) ask students to search the web, and 20% (6) use pictures or cultural artifacts. 3% (1) use films or music. 23% (7) reported that they do not refer students to any outside sources; i.e. they use the classroom textbook only.

As far as cultural theories, dimensions, and typologies are concerned, such as Hall's (1976) high-context and low-context cultures, Hofstede's dimensions (2004), or Hoft's (1995) variables, 52% (15) of the respondents reported that they do not use any. 28% (8) use Hall's theory, 24% (7) use Hofstede's dimensions, and 14% (4) use Hoft's variables.

Instructors' Evaluation of Their Own Efforts and Problems

Teaching Assessment. The next two questions of the survey addressed how instructors assessed their own intercultural teaching in their courses. 50% (15) reported that their teaching was insufficient, while 27% (8) described it as more or less sufficient. Only 7% (2) said that their teaching was sufficient, and 7% (2) chose "I do not know."

The other 10% (3) responded that they do not teach about intercultural communication.

Biggest Challenges in Intercultural Teaching. When asked what were the biggest challenges in teaching about intercultural communication, 59% (17) of respondents blamed a lack of time. 38% (11) blamed a lack of adequate training in intercultural communication, while 31% (9) chose a lack of adequate resources. 10% (3) said that they do not teach about intercultural communication. In addition, 2 instructors said that "students perceive the topic as irrelevant to them."

Textbooks

Textbooks. Out of 30 instructors, 24% (7) were using Markel's *Technical Communication*, 14% (4) used Anderson's *Technical Communication: A Reader-Centered Approach*, 10% used Andrew's *Technical Communication in the Global Community*, 10% (3) *Reporting Technical Information* by Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, Dragga; 7% (2) used Johnson-Sheehan *Technical Communication Today*, 7% (2) used Woolever's *Writing for the Technical Professions*. Individual instructors also specified Lannon's *Technical Communication*, Reep's *Technical Writing: Principles, Strategies, and Readings*, Sims's *Technical Communication for Readers and Writers*, VanAlstyne's *Professional and Technical Writing Strategies*, *Writing that Works* by Oliu, Brusaw, and Alred, Harty's *Strategies for Business and Technical Writing*, *MIT Guide to Science and Engineering Communication*, Patterson's *A Technical Writing Manual*, and *Technical Communication: Strategies for College and the Workplace* by Jones and Lane, and others.

Instructors' Textbook Evaluations. In addition, respondents were asked to rate the sufficiency of the intercultural materials presented in the chosen textbooks on the scale from 1 (insufficient) to 5 (sufficient); the response average was 2.1. Specifically, 63% (17) of the respondents said that textbooks needed more examples, 56% (15) said that textbooks needed more cases, 41% (11) – more web resources, 37% (10) – more projects, 33% (9) – more exercises, 33% (9) – more short articles, 26% (7) – more theoretical discussions, and 22% (6) – more guidelines and bibliographies. These numbers show overall support of the results of my discourse analysis presented in the first part of this chapter.

When asked, what textbook writers should decrease in their textbooks, 45% (10) said they did not know, 27% (6) said nothing. 23% (5) indicated theoretical discussions, while several individual instructors also suggested projects, web resources, guidelines, or bibliographies. One of the instructors specified that the teaching materials should be more up to date, while another said that the textbooks should reduce the number of "cases that promote stereotyping and reductive examples ('Never use color C in a document for culture X')."

Major Conclusions: Challenges of Intercultural Teaching in Real Classrooms

The survey has revealed the following major challenges of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course:

Challenge 1: Training

Most of the instructors were not satisfied with their overall intercultural teaching, and one of the reasons for this dissatisfaction was the lack of adequate training. Although most of the respondents have had some real-life experiences with other cultures and countries and half of the respondents can speak some other languages, only 1/5 of the respondents have formal education in intercultural communication (coursework) and only 1/3 have read and researched extensively in intercultural communication. In a comment box at the very end of the survey, one of the instructors summed up his/her challenge: "I have no real formal training in it." Another wrote, "I do worry that textbook resources and my own knowledge are too watered down, too brief, too insufficient." I suggest that instructors need more training, more courses that should be offered by departments pertaining to intercultural communication, and some type of established minimum of reading materials. Those reading materials should cover the concept of culture, examples of dimensions/typologies (for example, Hofstede (2004), Hall (1976), Hoft (1995), or any others), curriculum development sources (for example, Brown (1995); Richards (2001)), pedagogical traditions in technical writing (Subbiah (1997); Thralls & Blyler (1993); and others), articles on teaching intercultural communication in technical communication (see several mentioned above), and general sources on understanding culture and intercultural communication (any textbook on intercultural communication would suffice). Instructors should also remember about valuable sources on the Internet including dictionaries, translators, and the websites of professional organizations (for example, electronic sources on localization and internationalization of documents). In Chapter VII, I

discussed specific sources that can be valuable in learning about intercultural communication and pedagogy.

Challenge 2: Time and Proposed Goals and Objectives

Half of the instructors were not satisfied with their intercultural teaching because of the lack of time. Many instructors wrote in the commentary that their courses have to cover too much already. There is little time for intercultural communication: "It is very difficult to cover important topics, including multiculturalism, in a 14-week course in a class where as many as ten different majors may be represented." Another respondent wrote, "Too many projects, too little time to do more than mention intercultural aspects for this one-semester service course." Based on the specified goals and objectives used by some instructors, intercultural teaching would indeed require considerable time because we want students to be aware of cultural differences, and we want them to be able to write to the representatives of other cultures. At the end of this chapter, I proposed an alternative scope of intercultural teaching in a service course and very specific goals and objectives that can alleviate the problem of time. Many instructors (19) proposed the awareness of cultural differences and different communication styles/conventions as a knowledge objective and writing to other cultures as a skill objective. I see the need to discuss these two most popular objectives.

Objective: Awareness of Cultural Differences

Cultural awareness as an objective from a methodological point of view is a rather

general and broad concept that is hard to describe and assess. Awareness in itself is a byproduct of more specific objectives. It is not a particular knowledge or skill. It is rather a state of mind. It is hard to determine if after reading such and such article, a student is culturally aware and, as a result, has completed the requirements for this course. At the same time, based on the responses from instructors, it seems that instructors want their students to know that other cultures exist and that the way communication operates in those cultures is different from the students' culture. The objective then is for students to know about other cultures and their ways of communicating. Such a knowledge objective puts emphasis on teaching about differences based on the selected articles, dimensions, and typologies, and essentially concentrates on collecting and defining characteristics of various cultures.

At the same time, knowing about differences does not target students' skills and may not help them communicate better or bring multicultural audiences closer. On the contrary, it separates us from them, builds a border, an obstacle, a problem, a barrier (T.Weiss (1992, 1993); Corbett (1996); Woolever (2000)). As a result, after teaching about other cultures and their peculiarities, students may easily develop and relearn new and old stereotypes because – let's face it – thinking one's culture is more logical and better is an unavoidable cultural bias, which few American students can overcome at their young age.

In addition, the knowledge of cultural differences as an objective is hard to fulfill within just a one-semester course. We cannot physically provide our students with knowledge about all cultures and discuss thoroughly dimensions or typologies that may

require semester-long readings in addition to a selected technical writing textbook. At the same time, if I look back at the results, only one or two instructors teach about the meaning of culture, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism based on the collected responses. It is important to note that there is also a lack of these concepts in the discussion of the examined textbooks. These concepts are of paramount importance for understanding intercultural communication and for becoming better technical communicators in international or local corporate settings. That same instructor wrote,

> I want them to know that 'culture' is a complicated word. We CANNOT know another culture by simply saying 'Japanese are like this and Canadians are like this and Arabs are like this.' The spectrum of human behavior is complex and I DO NOT want to create/recreate simple stereotypes (which we have been TRYING SO HARD all these years to eradicate).

This response is exceptionally valuable because, in my perception, it is very true. As much as we want to reemphasize cultural awareness in our classes, teaching about differences in written and oral conventions may not help students develop an ethical and productive stance when communicating in multicultural settings. Cultural exchanges, interdependencies, and influences due to globalized economies, outsourcing, and new information technologies that connect cultures as never before shake cultural boundaries that become more and more blurry. I believe that that is what we need to teach about. Besides, from my own experience, American students do not suffer from the lack of cultural exposure. The United States is one of the most diverse nations in the world. But I believe that a lot of them suffer from stereotyping and ethnocentrism, regardless of what cultural group they belong to.

Objective: Writing to Readers from Other Cultures

Being able to write to different cultures as a skill is also problematic. As I noted above, although half of the respondents (15) set this objective, only 6 instructors require that their students write documents for other cultures. From the responses on the survey, it is hard to define what instructors meant by writing. Three instructors mentioned Simplified English when describing skills objectives of their teaching, which is at the basis of the internationalization of documents. If we understand "writing" as the localization or internationalization of documents, then these are the skills that are required from professional translators or professional technical writers and cannot be taught in just one semester. They require years of practice and experience. Also, to write to other cultures is just one direction and one channel: written communication. We forget about reading and comprehension and also oral communication skills. So the question rises:

- What types of skills would be the most appropriate and teachable given the time constraints of the course?

If we hypothesize about possible workplace situations, the most probable of all is when Americans are working in multicultural teams/groups, and they need some basic skills of *negotiating or constructing* meaning using written, visual, and oral channels with representatives of other cultures who have some English language proficiency or use a translator. Negotiation requires sending and receiving messages and interpreting them adequately. These skills can be taught through simulation games and activities that I suggest in Chapter VII.

As the course itself is introductory basic technical writing, we can also familiarize students with the basic definitions of localization and internationalization of documents, their purposes and techniques. Such introduction can be initiated by discussing the basics of contrastive rhetoric: examining documents (visual and verbal) in English produced by representatives of other cultures and finding similarities and dissimilarities in formatting, style, and persuasive techniques. Some textbooks offer such documents (for example, Markel (2004); Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, & Dragga (2006)). Such an introduction will help students develop some perceptive and analytical skills. As productive skills, students can be introduced to the basics of Plain English (or Simplified English) which is at the basis of the internationalization of documents and is becoming the government standard for communicating with the public. Plain English can address not only multicultural audiences, but also local ones, and simplifies the process of translation. Plain Language.gov offers simple suggestions not only for written, but also for oral communication. See http://www.plainlanguage.gov/ for teaching materials.

Challenge 3: Teaching Materials and Methods

Most of the instructors talk about intercultural issues either all through the semester or in the middle of the semester; only one instructor approaches intercultural communication as a separate unit. Most of them discuss it in connection with some other topics and rely on lecturing and classroom discussions, using outside readings, including articles in journals and online. A very small number of respondents use simulations, games, and exercises on interculturalism. Classroom discussions and lecturing may

satisfy knowledge objectives, but students may not develop skills. Skills are developed by the completion of tasks (assignments, exercises, etc.) that should be formally assessed. Unfortunately, half of the instructors do not offer any formal assessment of those skills or knowledge.

Half of the instructors talk about interculturalism when teaching about instructions and workplace correspondence, which is reasonable as these genres may be transferred from one culture to another in a workplace; only a small number of instructors discuss interculturalism with proposal and reports. Workplace correspondence and instructions can serve as two topics in conjunction with which skills objectives can be introduced to students: for example, re-writing instructions using Plain English or writing a business letter and then rewriting it using Plain English.

Textbooks offer different amounts of information. Some emphasize intercultural teaching. Others do not. The general satisfaction with the textbook contents was leaning towards insufficient (2.1 on the scale from 1 to 5). In a recent article in *TCQ*, Thomas Barker and I proposed a technique for textbook selection for a service technical writing course (Barker & Matveeva (2006)). We devised assessment techniques that would measure instructor preparedness for teaching about interculturalism and a textbook assessment tool that would assess the amount of intercultural materials presented in the textbooks. This article may help those who do not know which textbook to choose for their needs.

One of the biggest problems with current textbooks, which is pointed out by instructors and also supported by the results of my discourse analysis at the beginning of

this chapter, is an insufficient number of examples. 63% (17) of instructors reported that they would like to see more examples of real documents. Without showing actual visual and verbal artifacts, instructors cannot teach skills. Instructors also need cases (as well as web resources, exercises, and short articles) that present real and hypothetical workplace situations. At the same time, these cases should not simply give information, but should develop students' skills of analysis and reemphasize the complexity of any communication process. I discuss possible sources of example and cases in Chapter VII.

Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations to my survey. I used only one listserv, the ATTW listserv, and did not use any other mailing lists, which is a threat to external validity. However, as with discourse analysis, the research focus and the obtained data, in my perception, were sufficient for the purpose of my research: to determine major problems with intercultural teaching and uncover prevalent methods and teaching materials.

As far as the reliability of my findings is concerned, the online survey may not yield exactly the same numerical results if repeated because the sample size was quite small; the population may change if one conducts the survey at a different time. However, most likely the survey would reveal the same general trends in responses, and in my study, the available number of responses (30 responses) was sufficient for identifying the main problems, teaching methods, and materials.

The ATTW listserv was an appropriate site for the data collection because it is one of the leading listservs in our field. The low response rate may be attributed to the

instructors' overall lack of time or disinterest in the issue. Thus, it is hard to generalize about the whole population of the technical writing instructors based on my findings. For this reason, I used percentages clarified by the actual numbers of subjects that selected different options. Using percentages only could misrepresent the overall population of potential subjects who did not participate in the survey.

The identified challenges help me develop the preliminary goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in technical writing. These are not exclusive, but in my perception, are sufficient based on the given constraints that the survey and textbook analysis revealed.

Preliminary Goals and Objectives of Intercultural Teaching in Technical Writing

Considering the humanistic value of multicultural education that was re-emphasized in Chapter I and the results of the textbook analysis and survey, I propose the following goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in the service course: the overall goal of intercultural teaching in technical writing is for students in American universities to develop *basic skills and knowledge* that would allow them to *negotiate ethically and efficiently across cultures using written, oral, and visual channels*.

Based on the results of the survey, I have developed the main knowledge and skills objectives for intercultural teaching. Although some of the objectives are quite broad and can be considered as goals, I will still call them objectives to differentiate them from the overall goal of intercultural teaching in the course that was outlined above. At the same time, it is important to remember that instructors should outline knowledge and

skills objectives for each specific class. These objectives will be narrower in scope compared to the overall objectives that I am offering in this section. Some of the instructors are already using some of the objectives in their classes. For *knowledge objectives*, students will

1. learn basic definitions of the following concepts:

    a. the concepts of culture, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism;

    b. the concept of localization and internationalization of documents;

    c. the concept of contrastive rhetorical analysis and its procedures;

    d. the concept of Plain English;

    e. basic principles of international visual communication.

As *skills objectives*, students will

    1. develop the basic skills of negotiation in multicultural workplace settings through understanding the nature of social interactions and applying the principles of humanistic communication;

    2. develop the basic skills of contrastive rhetorical analysis of verbal and visual artifacts;

    3. develop the basic skills of revision of written artifacts using Plain English (at the basis of the internationalization of documents) that can be suitable for both local and international audiences; and

    4. develop the basic skills of revision of visual artifacts using a set of guidelines

for intercultural visual communication offered in current scholarship on visual communication.

To teach these skills and knowledge, instructors can choose materials and suggestions from the information acquisition and dialogic traditions of intercultural teaching depending on what their preferences are. The application of these materials is discussed in Chapter VII.

The topics that are well suited for the knowledge objectives include (as many instructors pointed out in the survey) audience analysis and also ethics. As teaching methods for the selected objectives, some lecturing and discussions can be recommended; most of all, students need games and simulations (for example, about American culture) that would address stereotyping and develop their negotiation skills. In Chapters V and VII, I discuss possible sources that can be found in various professional journals, including *The Bulletin of the Association for Business Communication*, that publish successful examples of games and exercises for intercultural teaching. To develop the basic skills of contrastive rhetorical analysis and Plain English, instructors can use workplace collaboration as a topic (teaching oral skills) and instructions and workplace correspondence as genres (teaching written skills).

The established goals and objectives can be assessed through a variety of different ways: multiple choice quizzes, situation/case analyses, tests, essays on culture (corporate and national), and the editing of documents for multicultural readers. The most important concern is to have solid, specific concepts and skills for students to grasp. I provide more details about the assessment techniques and their use in Chapter VII.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of my discourse analysis and survey that aim to investigate instructional contexts and textbook discourse in order to propose a realistic goals and objective contextualized specifically for a service course. I first described the results of my discourse analysis and talked about the major challenges of presenting intercultural materials in textbooks: a small number of examples; a certain imbalance in the number of discussions, their demonstrations, and their applications; the lack of discussions, exercises, and projects that promote discussion about culture; and a lack of variety of activities, such as games, cases, and simulations.

The online survey revealed several constraints that instructors are facing when teaching about interculturalism. Several of them include time, preparedness, teaching materials, and textbook contents. In my analysis, I made an attempt to address these challenges and propose some specific changes that may lead to better teaching and learning. A more thorough discussion and recommendations for instructors and textbook writers are also offered in Chapter VIII. The next chapter presents the results of the additional theoretical inquiry that helps me develop the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. This perspective combines tools and theories, including the dialogic approach, and the elements of the information acquisition approach. The new proposed perspective can serve as a solid foundation for an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum based on the outlined goals and objectives.

CHAPTER V

THEORETICAL INQUIRY

As I discussed in Chapters II and IV, current teaching methods and book contents are problematic for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. Instructors work with many constraints, such as time, preparation, materials, and the lack of clear goals and objectives for intercultural teaching. These constraints make it difficult for instructors to introduce intercultural issues to students and decide on how much is enough for this introductory course. As I conducted my survey, several instructors contacted me and said that the survey made them think about what and how they teach. The prevalent approach is to provide students with additional readings, i.e. information about cultures (factoids) that come from research articles. Only a few instructors discuss the nature of social interaction and culture (how it comes into being) or talk about stereotyping or ethnocentrism as they may apply to workplace communication. Overall, these and other issues can be resolved by introducing a solid philosophical foundation for teaching and by exploring the developments in conjoint disciplines that deal with teaching about cultures, society, and language. The goal is to combine those theories and redefine and introduce the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching that can be adapted by instructors and can help resolve current problems with intercultural teaching.

This chapter presents additional research in other disciplines that deals with communication across cultures, specifically, (1) theories of culture and social interactions and (2) alternative pedagogies and teaching methods. The purpose of the additional

theoretical inquiry is to investigate what is available for instructors that may come from other disciplines and can be used in a service course. The disciplines and theories that I have selected, such as sociology, communication studies, and applied linguistics, were chosen based on their applicability to intercultural pedagogy and social constructivist epistemology and ontology.

The frameworks, methods, and concepts that are discussed in this chapter reinforce the dialogic approach to teaching about culture and social interactions and offer alternative teaching methods. The chapter is divided into several sections. First, I discuss the theories of social interactions that are similar to the dialogic approach outlined in Chapter II and the applicability of these theories for teaching about culture. The purpose of this section is to examine the roots of dialogic teaching and determine its place in social studies and pedagogy. It situates paralogic rhetoric and the dialogic approach within pragmatism, a broader philosophical epistemology, which can serve as a philosophical underpinning of a curriculum. I also show how symbolic interactionism, a branch of sociology that shares ideas with paralogic hermeneutics, has important implications for intercultural teaching in a service course.

The subsequent sections of the chapter address theoretical and practical issues of intercultural pedagogy available in applied linguistics and intercultural training. Specifically, I talk about communicative teaching as a pedagogical perspective in teaching foreign and second languages and also give an overview of experiential pedagogy that is rooted in pragmatism and is used extensively in intercultural training. Such theories and pedagogies, because of their usefulness and applicability, can be united

in the new intercultural sub-curriculum and, in combination, form the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. The contents of this chapter also set the stage for the quasi-experimental study and help me create a teaching unit to test the effectiveness of the dialogic pedagogical perspective in real classrooms.

Theories of Culture and Social Interactions and Their Pedagogical Implications

In order to build a solid curriculum, one must define the philosophical foundation of the curriculum that would "animate and assess aims, values, and means … [and would] provide generalized meaning for the widest range of conditions" (Tanner and Tanner 301). The philosophy "can be conceived as either (1) the base or starting point in curriculum development or (2) an independent function with other functions in curriculum development," to provide a framework for goals and methods (Ornstein and Hunkins 36).

Kent's paralogic hermeneutics, which I situate within the dialogic approach in the current scholarship in technical communication, offers a conception of human interaction and communication principles and, to a significant extent, is based on the philosophy of Donald Davidson and his understanding of communicative interaction. Davidson's main ideas are as follows: "(1) communicative interaction is a thoroughly hermeneutic act, and (2) this hermeneutic act cannot be converted into a logical framework or system of social conventions that determines the meaning of our utterances" (Kent x). Davidson's work is traditionally discussed within a pragmatist and neo-pragmatist epistemology in philosophy and was developed in the earlier works by Rorty, Quine, Goodman, and

Putnam (Sundin and Johannisson 28). In order to explore and establish how pragmatism can become the philosophical foundation of a curriculum, I need to describe its major tenets and discuss their implications for understanding teaching goals and objectives, the roles of learners and teachers, and teaching methods.

Pragmatism

Pragmatism, a major philosophical epistemology, that has significantly influenced social studies, education, literature, languages, arts, and technical communication, is represented by the works of Charles Peirce, William James, and John Dewey in the late 19th and early 20th century and later by works of neo-pragmatists, such as Richard Rorty, Orman Quine, Andrew Goodman, Hilary Putnam, and Donald Davidson. Pragmatism was a response to the traditional views of idealism and realism and, influenced by Darwin's *Origin of the Species* (1859), "(1) rejected the dogmas of preconceived truths and eternal values, and (2) promoted the method of testing and verifying ideas" (Ornstein and Hunkins 39).

For a pragmatist, "true reality does not exist 'out there' in the real world; it 'is actively created as we act in and towards the world'" (Hewitt (1984); see also Shalin (1986); quoted from Ritzer and Goodman 201). Another important assumption that pragmatists make is that "people remember and base their knowledge of the world on what has proved to be useful to them" (Ritzer and Goodman 201). In other words, the durability of an idea depends on whether it is useful or not useful in practice (Sundin and Johannisson 27). The last important idea is that "people define the social and physical

‘objects’ that they encounter in the world according to their use for them” (Ritzer and Goodman 201). In other words, to understand actors of actions, one must look at the actions (201).

Pragmatism, as a philosophy that influenced pedagogy in the Unites States, reemphasizes “change, process, and relativity” (Ornstein and Hunkins 39). The environment and a learner are constantly changing, and the truth also changes with them. Learning as a process happens through transactions between a learner and his/her environment, i.e. through solving problems in various situations. “Truths” are substituted by “guides” that are “generalizations or tentative assertions that are subject to further research and verification” (39). According to pragmatism, in education, the purpose of teaching is not information transmission, but the development of skills of critical thinking, problem solving, analysis, and scientific method (39). “Teaching is more exploratory than explanatory” (39). Learning has to happen in “an active way” individually or in groups.

In Chapter IV, I discussed the information acquisition or factoid approach to the presentation of intercultural materials in technical writing textbooks, and the drawbacks of current teaching methods and practices in intercultural teaching. If taken seriously as the broader foundation of the curriculum, pragmatism as a philosophy can give a new direction and a new meaning to intercultural pedagogy by reemphasizing interactive, changing, dialogic nature of social interaction, teaching (methods, materials and assessment methods), and learning (See examples of the adaptation of Davidson’s principles to teaching in Porter 574). Such understanding would better respond to the

constantly changing nature of social environments, cultures, and cultural mutual influences due to new technologies, global economies, and travel at the beginning of the 21st century.

One of the theories that is rooted in pragmatism and is similar to paralogic hermeneutics is a branch of sociology called *symbolic interactionism* (Ritzer and Goodman 201). Several researchers have discussed its relevancy to social constructivist pedagogy and intercultural communication. For example, Biesta writes that when symbolic interactionism is applied to education, "education is no longer understood as manipulation of the behavior or the behavioral disposition of the child; education is considered to be a process of social interaction, constituted by the interpretive actions of all participants" (Biesta 3). A researcher in intercultural communication, Ting-Toomey, uses symbolic interactionism for the conceptualization of "situational identities" in intercultural communication when developing her "identity negotiation theory" and emplaning about mindfulness in intercultural communication (Ting-Toomey 38-41; see also Weber 196). In the next section, I explain the major tenets of symbolic interactionism and discuss its implications for intercultural teaching.

Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionism was founded through the work of George Herbert Mead in the mid 20th century and was developed by the scholars at University of Chicago who examined social interactions on a micro level, i.e. interactions between individual people. The three critical points that symbolic interactionism adopts from pragmatism are as

follows: "(1) a focus on the interaction between the actor and the world, (2) a view of both the actor and the world as dynamic processes and not static structures, and (3) the great importance attributed to the actor's ability to interpret the social world" (Ritzer and Goodman 201). Overall, symbolic interactionism, as Blumer explains, is situated on three main premises:

1. " … human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them" (2)
2. " … the meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows" (2)
3. " … these meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretative process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters" (Blumer 2; also see Mead 45)

The premises are similar to the principles of paralogic hermeneutics. The second premise, for example, evokes the principle of triangulation: participants of a communicative situation are mutually reliant on each other for knowledge and meaning construction. The third premise has much in common with the principles of building passing theories: participants are making guesses in communication and build effective communication theories based on their experiences; later they use and correct those depending on new situations.

At the same time, symbolic interactionism and, specifically, Mead's scholarship adds to paralogic hermeneutics through the conceptualization of the self, the act, and social interaction that can enrich intercultural teaching through an alternative

understanding of the role of an individual in society and, as a result, in culture. I see the need to briefly discuss each concept.

The Self

In his book *Mind, Self and Society*, Mead explains that people live in the environments of objects (things and other human beings). A human being has a self, which is "different from that of the physiological organism proper," but "arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relations to that process as a whole and to other individuals within that process" (Mead 135). The self, as well as things and people in social world, is also an object to a human being. "The human being may perceive himself, have conceptions of himself, communicate with himself, and act toward himself" (Blumer 62). What is the most important is that the self constitutes a process, not a structure (62). Such understanding of the self as a *process* is important in teaching about cultures and understanding individuals as representatives of cultures. Human beings construct and re-construct their selves through interactions, and such construction of selves never ends. As a result, culture is also a perpetual process, not a structure.

Moreover, because a human being has a self and can act toward the self, the "human being ceases to be a responding organism whose behavior is a product of what plays upon him from outside, the inside, or both. Instead he acts toward his world, interpreting what confronts him and organizing his action on the basis of interpretation" (Blumer 63). Thus, another important point that symbolic interactionism makes is the

emphasis on human agency in communication and individual interpretive powers of all human beings, (I add) *regardless of or independent of culture*.

The Act

According to symbolic interactionism, actions are "built up in coping with the world instead of merely being released from a pre-existing psychological structure by factors playing on that structure" (64). Such a perception is different from the dominant views in psychology and sociology that see human actions as a "product of factors that play upon or through the human actor" (65). In other words, we act based on our previous experiences. Applied to cultural studies, actions of individuals come not from culture as a factor, but from individual experiences in a certain environment or environments; and what is important is that those experiences may be similar to other people's experiences or completely different from them. Thus, symbolic interactionism stresses the importance of individual experiences in building who we are and how we act, and people from the same culture may act in similar and opposite ways.

Social Interaction

Mead distinguishes two types of interactions: symbolic and non-symbolic. The non-symbolic interaction is a direct response to the other person's action. The symbolic interaction involves the interpretation and definition of actions. As a result, they obtain a certain meaning and become symbolic objects that are shared by a social group; for example, a language is a symbolic object (Mead 46-47). Social actions and their

participants are continuously interpreted and re-interpreted. The actions are adjusted by humans based on the feedback they get from the world.

Social interaction is seen as "a process that forms human conduct instead of being merely a means of a setting for the expression or release of human conduct" (Blumer 8). Even the established communication patterns cannot exist on their own, but "are dependent for their continuity on recurrent affirmative definition" (67). If individuals change definitions or reinterpret the patterns, the patterns can quickly disappear or change completely. Thus, overall, symbolic interactionism stresses the importance of the powers of negotiation that humans have and the fluid and perpetual nature of social interaction and society. People are seen as active builders of their social environments and, as a result, cultures can be interpreted as constant processes. In intercultural teaching, when we rely heavily on providing students with information about cultures in a form of cultural prototypes or good and bad stereotypes (which we have seen from the results of the survey and discourse analysis), we may do our students disservice because we interpret societies and cultures as products, and we misrepresent the nature of social interaction. In my perception, such understanding does not promote future interaction, cultural exposure, and negotiation. On the contrary, it reinforces segregation because of the inevitable cultural bias that all individuals have not only on an *inter*cultural level, but also on an *intra*cultural level, i.e. among individuals of the same culture. Understanding cultures as built by interactions, in my perception, helps shift the emphasis from segregation, difference, and stereotyping to the importance of interaction and negotiation. Cultures are constant processes, and students are participants and active builders of these

processes.

The implications of symbolic interactionism for teaching about culture, thus, are theoretical and practical. From a theoretical point, symbolic interactionism adds to the communication principles of paralogic hermeneutics by reemphasizing cultures as processes, communication as constant negotiation, and individual representatives as active participants and builders of cultures. The participants have unique experiences that change who they are and how they construct their selves. Such a theoretical stand can provide a foundation for the discussions of cultures, society, and individuals in those cultures and can also serve as a basis for activities, readings, and assignments.

From a practical point of view, such a perspective leads to teaching and pedagogical methods that are geared towards collaborative, communicative, and experiential learning and teaching that would (1) reemphasize developing in students *inter*cultural and *intra*cultural negotiation skills, (2) provide students with situations and experiences that will help them develop those skills, and (3) promote a life-long interest and inquiry in interculturalism. And indeed, some disciplines have made such teaching the leading teaching methodology. One of such fields is applied linguistics (the learning and teaching of foreign languages). I will explain the major tenets of communicative language teaching, which does have a lot of similarities with culture teaching, and will talk about how we can learn from applied linguistics and apply what we learn to teaching about cultures in a service course.

Communicative Teaching in Applied Linguistics

The communicative method of teaching languages appeared in the 1980s as a response to audiolingualism (Lee and VanPatten 22). Audiolingualism as a method was developed by the military in the 1950s and became a popular method of teaching in the 1960s. The method presupposes teacher controlled classrooms and an emphasis on drills (through "practicing patterns") that would target structural and formal language features (7). The method was founded on behaviorism that understands language learning as habit formation.

According to audiolingualism, language acquisition was mainly oral acquisition. A teacher would provide students with correct phrases that students had to memorize, repeat, and substitute in various situations. Such a method was criticized for the limited applicability that such explicit instruction could produce. Emerging research in first and second language acquisition in the 1970s and the 1980s led to the development of a new communicative language pedagogy. Such research included the stages of language development, i.e. what language structures are learned first, second, third; negative and positive transfer, i.e. the influences that the native language has on the acquisition of the second/foreign languages; and Krashen's input hypothesis discussed below.

Communicative language teaching appeared in the 1980s and offered a new model of learning and teaching that changed the roles of a teacher and students, as well as the tasks that they had to perform. The communicative method states that "learners must be given opportunities to construct communicative interactions in the classroom as they would outside the classroom – to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning" (Lee and

VanPatten 18).

In the 1980s, Krashen introduced the *Input Hypothesis* which posited that "successful language acquisition cannot happen without comprehensible input" (29). He distinguished acquisition from learning. Acquisition is a way small children learn their first language (the natural approach) that happens subconsciously, informally, and implicitly. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious explicit process that happens in a classroom. Acquisition is slow, and teachers do not have any control over it. It comes gradually with the exposure to language. Fluency in language, however, comes from acquisition, not learning. Learning can function as a monitor (the *monitor hypothesis*), but there are certain conditions that have to be present to monitor your language successfully: time, focus on form, and the knowledge of rules.

Krashen re-emphasized the importance of comprehensible input in language acquisition. Input is the language that students hear and read. The exposure to a language through listening or reading provides students with natural communication and develops students' comprehension for meaning. Input should have some message and be comprehensible, i.e. students must be able to understand most of what the message says. Not all scholars in applied linguistics see comprehensible input as a major factor in language acquisition, but almost everybody agrees that it does play a significant role in language acquisition.

In addition to comprehensible input, the advocates of the communicative language teaching talk about the importance of *communicative interaction* in order for students to develop "communicative language ability" (29):

> …communicative language ability – the ability to express one's self and to understand others – develops as learners engage in communication and not as a result of habit formation with grammatical items. …and there is reason to believe that communicative activities should be present from the earliest stages of classroom language learning. (Lee and VanPatten 35)

Lee and VanPatten propose using "information-exchange tasks" during which students have to interact with each other (158). Each task has "a particular communicative or information goal" (107). At the same time, the purpose of a task is not so much information exchange, as what students *do* with the information (Lee and VanPatten 158). The information-exchange tasks promote expression and interpretation of meaning. In addition to the tasks, it is important to develop students' skills of negotiating meaning or "strategic competence," which is "analogous to the need for *coping* and *survival strategies*" (Savignon 40; quoted from Lee and VanPatten 162). Such competence may include the ability to paraphrase or mime (162). At the end of each task, students have to produce some output, or "language that has a communicative purpose; it is language that learners produce to express some kind of meaning" (VanPatten 62).

Such an emphasis on communicative teaching in language teaching should inform the methods that we use for intercultural communication for two reasons. First, it is reasonable to teach intercultural communication through communication, interactions, and negotiations that can be brought into classes through various activities, exercises, tasks, games, and simulations. A second important reason and a lesson from applied linguistics is the importance of input in teaching about cultures, similar to the comprehensible input in language teaching. The input can come from real workplace documents and intercultural interactions (or simulations of those), so that students could

experience the flavor of other cultures' communicative artifacts.

The source of the communicative activities can be another discipline that deals with intercultural teaching: communication studies. Communication studies, specifically, intercultural training, can provide insights into possible techniques to bring intercultural contexts (through simulations and games) into classrooms that are not culturally diverse. The next section discusses some of the tools that intercultural training can offer for intercultural teaching in a service course.

Intercultural Training

Intercultural training has a rather long 30-year history, professional societies (for example, the Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research (SIETAR)) and conferences, and well developed scholarship offering methods and techniques for training professionals who are going abroad or work in multicultural settings. Training and teaching differ in many fundamental ways, and I need to briefly explain each.

As Baron writes, intercultural training of professionals is usually shorter and narrower in scope; it is done by experts in the field of training and focuses on practical application of theories, not so much on theories themselves (1). The trainers use various experiential activities to develop learners' skills and assess those through the learners' performances. Teaching, on the other hand, happens in a formal classroom setting, requires more time, and a formal textbook. It is broader in scope and is administered by academicians. Teaching relies on theory and background information. Learning is assessed formally through quizzes, exams, and written papers.

At the same time, teaching and training are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, Baron writes that because our students are of different ages, our teaching goals, objectives, and methods need to be adjusted: the older students "are apt to be much more focused on the practical aspects of college education than their younger, inexperienced classmates" (Baron 1). Baron suggests that by introducing small changes, we can combine the best of both training and teaching in universities. The additions to traditional teaching may include chunking lessons into segments, using interactive problem-solving activities, dividing materials into smaller chunks, and re-emphasizing the practical application of theories that are discussed in classrooms (Baron 1).

Intercultural training literature indeed provides a rich database of possible activities for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course or "common methodological forms," such as "the case study, the critical incident, the culture assimilator, the role play, and the simulation" (Seelye 7-8). I explain about these types in detail in Chapter VII. Since many of these activities are based on the tenets of experiential learning, which is grounded in the ideas of John Dewey, the founder of pragmatism, I will briefly discuss the major tenets of experiential learning and its benefits for intercultural teaching.

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning, a pedagogical movement of the mid and late 19th century, appeared as a shift from an abstract education to an applied, experiential education grounded in real life applications. Experiential learning simply "means learning from

experience or learning by doing" (Lewis and Williams 5). In his book *Experience and Education*, John Dewey writes that "the creation of new knowledge or the transformation of oneself through learning to perform new roles was more fundamental than simply learning how to do something" (6). Learning is a constant process that goes through stages of "'trying' and 'undergoing' by becoming aware of a problem, getting an idea, trying out a response, experiencing the consequences, and either confirming or modifying previous conceptions" (6).

In the 1980s, Dewey's ideas were further developed by David Kolb who offered a spiral model of experiential learning that gradually increased in complexity with more experiences. Kolb distinguished two ways of acquiring information ("concrete experiences" and "abstract conceptualizations") and two ways to process it ("reflective observation" and "active experimentation") (7). Kolb also specified fours types of learning: "(1) get involved fully and openly in new experiences; (2) reflect on and interpret these experiences from different perspectives; (3) create concepts and ideas to integrate their observations logically; and (4) use their learning and newly derived theories to make decisions, solve problems, and meet new challenges" (10). In a classroom, experiential teaching methods, such as role playing or simulations, "place learners into fairly realistic yet psychologically-safe learning situations where they can experiment with new behaviors with immediate, constructive feedback" (Wolf and Keys 1; see also Lewis and Williams 8-9). Such methods can be applied in the service course and have several advantages, as well as some disadvantages.

Some of the advantages of experiential learning are that it allows students to

rehearse their skills before applying them in real life. Such activities may also bring some new dynamics in the classroom with the active involvement of students in the activities. The activities could make learning fun and engaging. Moreover, through simulations, experiential teaching can bring contexts, including multicultural ones (simulated culturally diverse workplaces), to classroom settings.

However, as several researchers pointed out, sometimes educators do not specify clear goals and objectives for experiential activities and do not develop formal assessment of them, which marginalizes those activities and their value in learning (Lewis and Williams 9). Thus, when used in classrooms, the experiential activities as a vital part of the curriculum should have a clear purpose, target specific skills, and have specific outcomes for formal evaluation. Another potential difficulty in using experiential activities is that instructors will have to prepare and adapt those activities for their specific classrooms. The activities may also require additional classroom time and resources.

Another important point about using experiential activities is that instructors have to be selective and read the specifications for goals and objectives when they borrow the experiential activities from the intercultural training literature. Some of the experiential activities are based on the information acquisition approach to intercultural teaching and use various cultural dimensions and typologies that should be explained to students thoroughly and in advance. For example, some of those activities use Hall's high and low-context cultures (Ratiu 57) or Hofstede's dimensions (Singelis and Brislin 67; Ady 111; Gelfand and Holcombe 121).

Some authors also use an extensive number of factoids when introducing experiential activities; for example, "East Asians differ from Americans in what they think should be revealed and what should be kept private" (Klopf 66). Klopf never specifies his source of information, which is important when assigning certain characteristics to cultures. But even if the proposed experiential activities provide sources of their information, such as research articles, instructors should be aware of the time of publication and possible reliability, validity, and generalizability issues of these research findings. For example, for their experiential activity, some use research articles published in the 1980s and the early and mid 1990s (Goto and Abe-Kim 151-152; Smith 81). Such findings may or may not be accurate for the year 2006. Because of rapidly developing technologies, especially communication technologies, and global travel, cultures mix and affect one another in different ways. The research done between 2000 and 2006 is more relevant and up-to-date with the new technological innovations than the research that was done in the early and mid 1990s.

Overall, factoids or stereotypes, supported or unsupported by research, may defeat the purpose of having experiential activities by providing already made "cultural tags/labels" or cultural information and lead to unwanted division into "us" and "them." Another problem, which also comes from pre-existing information or assumptions about other cultures, can stem from offering students a description of situations in which various cultures behave in different ways. In several activities that I have examined, the authors compare cultural behaviors and attitudes (for example, Americans versus the Japanese) (Imanishi 175). Such scenarios frequently portray the other cultures as "weird"

and “strange” compared to Americans. This negative representation once again defeats the purpose of having an experiential activity by building borders and instigating negative responses in American students.

One way to avoid the mentioned problems is to take a “culture-unspecific” approach for games and simulations: make up a culture without labeling any existing ones, for example, culture A and culture B, or make up certain names for those cultures. In this case, a teacher can still talk about possible differences and similarities between cultural groups. At the same time, by avoiding labeling cultures, an instructor is able to shift the focus of the experiential activities from providing information, which may or may not be useful or true in real life situations, to experiencing and developing theories about communication.

To conclude, certain intercultural training methods, such as simulations and games, can be a source of in-class activities if adapted to intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. Those experiential activities can help in situations when the student body is not diverse, and, as a result, intercultural teaching may suffer from a lack of a diverse context or input that can promote intercultural learning. Such activities put an emphasis on experiencing instead of information gathering.

Overall, the scholarship described in this chapter and the theoretical inquiry in such disciplines as sociology, applied linguistics, and communication studies provide me with the rich basis for formulating a new dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching with its philosophical foundation, major principles, and preferred teaching methods. I outline those in the next section of the chapter.

Dialogic Pedagogical Perspective for Intercultural Teaching

Based on the scholarship in technical and business communication, rhetoric, social studies, applied linguistics, and communication studies discussed, I propose a new dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course that is a compilation of various theories and methods. These methods and theories, in my perception, can better respond to the changing nature of social environments and global communication in the 21st century and promote ethical and humanistic attitudes and practices in students. Such a perspective favors the selected theories of culture, individuals, society, and social interaction and reemphasizes the value of the discussed pedagogical approaches. I use two tables to summarize the perspective:

Table 5.1: The Dialogic Pedagogical Perspective for Intercultural Communication: Theories of Culture, Individuals, Society, and Social Interaction

Concepts	**Explanation**	**Source/s**
Culture	▪ Is an open system ▪ Is a process ▪ Consists of multiple cultures ▪ Is a construction that come out of experiences that its representatives have (people as active builders of their social environments and cultures)	▪ Dialogic perspective in technical and business writing (T. Weiss) ▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead)
Intercultural Communication	▪ Is dialogic in nature ▪ Is constant negotiation of meaning ▪ Is interpersonal communication (with its various dimensions, such as gender, age, or professional distinctions) ▪ Does not have a given recipe for success ▪ Presupposes the inevitability of miscommunications ▪ Presupposes the co-dependency of participants in a communicative act and collaborative knowledge construction ▪ Happens between individuals with	▪ Dialogic perspective in technical and business writing (T. Weiss) ▪ Paralogic hermeneutics (Kent; Yuan) ▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead)

	unique experiences that may be similar to other people's experiences or completely different from them		
Individuals vs. Society	▪ The focus is on how individuals and the social world interact. ▪ The social world and the individuals are processes (fluid and perpetual), not static structures. ▪ Individuals can interpret and reinterpret the social world. ▪ Individuals have individual interpretive powers regardless of or independent of culture.		▪ Pragmatism (Dewey)
	The Self	▪ Is a process ▪ Is constructed and interpreted through experiences	▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead)
	The Act	▪ Is a process ▪ Is built on passing theories, the principle of triangulation, and the principle of charity ▪ Comes from individual experiences of people in an environment or various environments ▪ Is continuously interpreted and re-interpreted ▪ Is adjusted by humans based on the feedback they get from the world	▪ Paralogic hermeneutics (Kent) ▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead; Blumer)
	Communicative interaction	▪ Is a process, fluid and perpetual ▪ Is not codifiable	▪ Paralogic hermeneutics (Kent) ▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead)

Table 5.2: The Dialogic Pedagogical Perspective for Intercultural Communication: Pedagogy

Elements	Principles	Source/s
The Nature of Intercultural Teaching	▪ Is not based on information transmission, but on the development of skills of critical thinking, problem solving, and analysis ▪ Should minimize labeling cultures by using culture-unspecific examples and experiential activities (simulations and games) ▪ Promotes collaborative, communicative, and experiential learning ▪ Reemphasizes developing students' *inter*cultural and *intra*cultural negotiation skills ▪ Provides students with situations and experiences that will help them develop those skills ▪ Promotes a life-long interest and inquiry into interculturalism	▪ Pragmatism (Dewey) ▪ Symbolic interactionism (Mead) ▪ Experiential education (Dewey; Kolb)
The Nature of Intercultural Learning	▪ Is exploratory ▪ Is active and experiential, or happens by doing ▪ Happens through cultural exposure to verbal, visual, and oral artifacts or examples	▪ Pragmatism (Dewey) ▪ Experiential education (Dewey; Kolb) ▪ Applied linguistics (Krashen)
Preferred Intercultural Teaching Methods	▪ Favor communicative teaching through interactions and negotiations that can be brought into classes through various activities ▪ Favor a scenario-based pedagogy using role-playing and simulations ▪ Are geared toward active and experiential learning, i.e. promotes cultural exposure through verbal, visual, and oral artifacts or examples	▪ Pragmatism; Experiential education (Dewey) ▪ Applied linguistics

Teaching Tools	▪ Are based on experiential activities that encourage students to experience communication and develop theories about communication	▪ Communication studies (Intercultural training)

What the two tables offer is a set of definitions and explanations that form the philosophical and methodological foundation of the dialogic perspective: the nature of culture, communicative interactions, and their participants as processes, and the nature of learning and teaching as fluid and experiential.

The next step is to develop the intercultural sub-curriculum for a service technical writing course. To validate the use of the new dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural communication, I use a quasi-experimental study, described in Chapter VI. This study is needed for several reasons. As I discussed in Chapter II, several researchers pointed out that factoids, as well as cultural dimensions and variables that define cultures in current textbooks, may have negative effects on students' understanding of cultural differences and may lead to stereotyping (See T. Weiss; Corbett; Woolever; Hunsinger). However, current scholarship on intercultural teaching lacks studies that would compare the effectiveness of different methods. Thus, we need to explore whether the critique of the information acquisition approach is valid and whether some approaches can potentially produce more stereotyping in students than others.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed theories and methods in social sciences, applied linguistics, and communication studies that can enrich intercultural teaching in a service

technical writing course. I first discussed pragmatism, which is a philosophical foundation of paralogic hermeneutics that can be helpful in intercultural teaching. I also discussed symbolic interactionism, a branch of sociology that came out of pragmatism. This field further adds to pragmatism and to the principles of paralogic hermeneutics through its interpretation of individuals as active builders of society and, as a result, cultures. I showed that similar social constructivist trends are currently used in applied linguistics and intercultural training, which underlines the importance of experiential methods in teaching about languages and cultures and shows the progressive trends that intercultural teaching in a service course can adapt for its purposes.

At the end of the chapter, I combined the discussed theories with the ones that were introduced earlier in Chapter II to establish a unified *dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching* in a service technical writing course. Such a perspective can become the foundation of a new intercultural sub-curriculum. To investigate its potential effectiveness and validate its use for the new intercultural sub-curriculum, I compare the theoretical and methodological principles of the new perspective to the principles of the information acquisition approach, using a teaching lesson with different activities in several classes at Texas Tech University. The next chapter, Chapter VI, offers the discussion of the study's methodology, results, and implications for further intercultural research and teaching in a service technical writing course.

CHAPTER VI

QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to show one example of how the dialogic pedagogical perspective can be applied for teaching intercultural communication. The chapter offers the results of a quasi-experimental study that explores the possible effects of two different intercultural communication activities on students' attitudes toward stereotyping. One of these, the information acquisition approach, relies on labeling cultures (for example, individualistic vs. collectivistic or masculine vs. feminine) and has been accused of reinforcing stereotypical behaviors in students (See T. Weiss, Corbett, Woolever, Miles). However, this critique was never supported by empirical data. My quasi-experimental study aims to compare an activity based on the information acquisition approach to an activity based on the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. At the same time, because of some limitations in its scale, design, and measurements, the study can offer only preliminary and provisional results on the effectiveness of the two approaches considering the chosen criteria. Those preliminary results and the design of the study can be used later to organize a future large-scale quasi-experiment that would assess the new proposed curriculum for intercultural communication in a service technical writing course.

The chapter is divided into several sections. First, I describe an example of an experiential activity and talk about its structure and content. Then I discuss the quasi-experimental study: my rationale for the study, methodology, participants, measures,

procedures, and data analysis. In the subsequent sections, I present the results of the study, analyze these results, and talk about the limitations of the study. The last section of this chapter discusses the implications of the study for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course.

A Lesson with a Dialogic Pedagogical Perspective in Mind

This lesson comes from the teaching tools that I use to address interculturalism in my classes. I have been using these tools for several semesters and, based on pilot evaluations, they have proved to be effective and interesting for students in technical writing classes. The purpose of the lesson is to introduce students to the issues of intercultural communication and situate intercultural communication within technical writing. The lesson usually appears at the very beginning of the semester and has an introductory lecture and an activity, specifically, a simulation game based on the game proposed by Jack Hulbert (Hulbert 41). The purpose of the game is to create a simulated intercultural experience for students to teach them about culture and the stages of the communication process.

In my adaptation of this game, students are divided into two groups, and each group gets a set of behavioral characteristics or descriptions. The characteristics address the body language, personal space, concept of time, vocal qualities, personality, and negotiation style of the participants. Students are asked to read the characteristics and think and act according to the characteristics. Then I create a situation for the two groups to meet. Usually, it is a multicultural workplace context; for example, students can meet

at a company's party and interact with a certain purpose in mind (introducing themselves and asking about their hypothetical jobs). Students from one group are asked to observe the other group and then compile a list of behavioral characteristics for the other group. After that, during a classroom discussion, students read their findings and see how accurate their observations were. The overall conclusion of the simulation game on the part of the participants is that some of the characteristics are easily observable and some are not. Such an observation helps students build theories (which are equal to passing theories in paralogic rhetoric) about other cultures'/people's communication styles and preferences and consider those in the future.

During the advanced stages of my dissertation writing, by doing more research and building the foundation of the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching, I enriched this simple simulation with the theories of communicative interaction, specifically, several principles of paralogic hermeneutics, and created a revised simulation game that has become a collaborative exercise with a specific outcome and reflective stages in the activity. Reflecting on experiences is one of the most important stages in experiential learning (Kolb; quoted from Lewis and Williams 10). I have also changed the sets of initial characteristics that students used for the simulation. Initially, both groups were assigned a different set of characteristics, which were seemingly dichotomous in nature. When reading more about stereotypes and simulations, one statement caught my attention: "'unless persons recognize their own culture-based values, feelings, and attitudes, are able to communicate them to others, and experientially learn the logic of other culture systems, practical information about another culture will

be of little use'" (Pedersen and Howell xi; quoted from Casmir 10). I felt that this statement was very true and changed the emphasis of Hulbert's simulation. In his game, the two groups were (1) "Aggressivians" (roughly based on the prototype of the "western cultures" and resemble stereotypes about Americans) and (2) "Passivians" (roughly based on the prototype of the "eastern cultures") (Hulbert 42). In my version of the activity, I asked the first group of students to behave as "Aggressivians" and the other group to behave as they normally do. I thought the best way to teach students about stereotyping was for them to confront the stereotypes about themselves through a simulation game. In this case, they can understand from personal experiences how stereotypes work and how they may drastically differ from reality.

Such an activity was the foundation of my quasi-experiential study that aimed to compare two lessons: one based on the information acquisition approach and one based on the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. The next sections talk about the rationale for the study.

Rationale

The purpose of the study was to compare the effects of two different ways of teaching intercultural communication, experiencing cultures versus labeling cultures, and measure how each of them potentially affect students' explicit attitudes toward stereotypes about Americans, i.e. stereotypes about themselves. In other words, my construct of interest is measuring students' immediate and short-term attitude change to stereotyping about their own culture. Several researchers, such as T. Weiss, Miles,

Corbett, Woolever, and Hunsinger, criticized the information acquisition approach for providing quick fixes to complex communication situations, instigating a "sell-job" metaphor in students, promoting stereotyping, and "locating definitive culture" (Hunsinger 31). The possible type of activity that is associated with such teaching is (1) collecting information about other cultures and (2) using dimensions or variables to characterize cultures coming up with possible strategies for successful communication (See examples in Houp et al. 132-133; or see Appendix A: Results of Textbook Analysis for the same textbook). Essentially, such a process is the process of labeling or defining characteristics of cultures. In textbooks, such an approach frequently leads to the prevalence of factual information about other cultures (factoids as Miles describes them) that can lead to stereotypical attitudes toward other cultures and their communication practices.

The simulation game that I discussed above (which is based on the dialogic pedagogical perspective) aims to create and reflect on cultural experiences and confront stereotypes. In the study, I wanted to find out whether labeling cultures reinforces stereotypes to a greater extent compared to experiencing cultures. These concerns are expressed in the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the effect of the two different activities, one based on labeling cultures (the information acquisition approach) and one based on experiencing cultures (the dialogic pedagogical perspective), on the student *attitudes toward stereotypes about themselves*, as determined by a developed attitude scale?

RQ2: What is the effect of the two different activities on students' *attitudes*

toward the activity itself and intercultural communication, as determined by a developed attitude scale?

The two main hypotheses that I am testing are as follows:

H1: If the instructor uses an activity based on experiencing cultures, students will express a lower degree of stereotyping about themselves immediately after the lesson, compared to the activity based on labeling cultures, or classes with no treatment at all.

H2: If the instructor uses an activity based on experiencing cultures, students will enjoy it more, and the activity will promote a future intercultural inquiry with a greater degree, compared to the activity based on labeling cultures.

The following variables were considered when developing the quasi-experimental study (MacNealy 79-80):

- two different activities: one based on labeling and one based on experiencing (the independent variable as a factor that is manipulated in the experiment)
- the degree of immediate attitude change in American students toward stereotypes about Americans (the dependent variable that is being tested)
- students' characteristics, including their gender, intercultural exposure, age, and education level; instructors' characteristics (moderator variables, i.e. not of specific interest to my study, but may affect its results)

The materials, plans, and scripts of the activities are presented in Appendix E.

Methodology

In order to answer my research questions, I selected a quasi-experimental research model because it responded to the needs and limitations of my study. An experimental study in general is "a process of carefully controlled observation and inference" (Caporaso and Roos 5). For a strictly experimental study, a researcher needs to use isolated laboratory settings and to assign subjects to the control and experimental groups randomly, to eliminate as many confounding variables as possible. For my purposes, such isolation and randomization were impossible because I worked with the existing classroom settings and students that could not be moved or reassigned. Thus, I chose a quasi-experimental study, specifically, the nonequivalent control group design (12). Although there are threats to internal and external validity in quasi-experimental designs (for example, students' characteristics and backgrounds, education, maturation, or selection bias), such a design is "useful in judging the effects of a variable on a group where that group has assembled naturally" (12).

For the study, I recruited three instructors during the 2006 fall semester. Each instructor taught two section of introductory technical writing with approximately 20 students in each section. Thus, I used three instructors and six sections of technical writing in my study. I assigned one nonequivalent control and two experimental groups. The treatment groups (four sections of introductory technical writing) got treatments based on the two approaches. The control group (two sections) did not get any treatment, but took a pre- and post-test at the very beginning of the semester to measure their attitudes before the instructors had introduced any materials on multiculturalism.

Participants

The three instructors who participated in my study were American native English speakers. Participation in the study for students and instructors was anonymous and voluntary. The students were undergraduates with various majors who took the class as a general degree requirement course. All groups had approximately the same number of students (36-38 subjects) in each group. As I explain in the limitations section later in this chapter, assigning specific treatments to specific groups was governed by two factors: (1) the instructors' schedule (and how my study could fit within their schedules) and (2) the instructors' preferences and previously used teaching approaches to intercultural communication (i.e. whether instructors preferred the traditional, information acquisition approach or the dialogic pedagogical perspective). At the same time, I did not have any control over which students were enrolled in the treatment and control groups, which satisfied the requirement of random selection.

Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures") was more ethnically diverse than the other two groups. Approximately, one third of all respondents belonged to ethnic minorities, such as African American, Asian American, and Hispanic American. Two thirds were female. Most of the students had not been abroad for more than two months although almost two thirds of them did travel to some other country (approximately one third of all students) or several countries (approximately one third of all students). Almost one third of the students could speak another language or a variety of Englishes besides American English. More than half of students reported that they had taken only one or two classes that dealt with intercultural communication directly or indirectly, while one

third reported that they had not taken any classes with the intercultural emphasis. To sum up, although students in this group were somewhat ethnically diverse, they did not have substantial or long-term traveling or educational intercultural experiences.

Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures") was not as ethnically diverse as the previous group. Only six out of 35 students belonged to some other ethnic groups besides non-Hispanic white. The group had an approximately equal number of females and males, with a slightly higher number of males. As far as the international experiences were concerned, this group had approximately the same experiences as the previous group: a very small number of students had spent more than two months outside of the United States, and approximately two thirds of them had traveled to some other country. As with the previous group a small number reported minoring in another language, and fewer students reported the knowledge of another language (4 out of 36) compared to the first treatment group. Compared with the previous group (approximately one third), more students (slightly more than a half) reported that they had not taken any courses that dealt with intercultural communication directly or indirectly. Thus, the second treatment group was less ethnically diverse and had fewer courses that dealt with intercultural communication than the first treatment group.

The *Control Group* was even less culturally diverse than the two treatment groups. Only one student out of 34 reported that he/she belonged to some other ethnic group besides non-Hispanic white. Two thirds of the group were females as with the first treatment group. As far as traveling was concerned, similar to the previous groups, most of the students had not been abroad for more than two months, but slightly more than two

thirds had traveled to another country or countries. A very small number of students reported that they were minoring in other foreign language. At the same time, the control group reported slightly higher scores on intercultural communication educational experiences. Only one fourth of students reported that they had not had any classes that dealt with intercultural communication directly or indirectly (compared to more than one third in the first treatment group and close to two thirds in the second treatment group). To sum up, the control group was less culturally diverse, but scored slightly higher on the educational experiences compared to the other two treatment groups.

Overall, although the groups were similar in such characteristics as past international experiences, *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")* had a slight advantage compared to the other two groups because it was more ethnically diverse, while the *Control Group* had slightly more intercultural communication educational experiences than the other groups. As the classes were formed randomly, I could not control for the unexpected ethnic diversity. At the same time, such inequality was considered when interpreting the results of the study and was recognized as one of the confounding factors and limitations of the quasi-experiment.

Measures

The quasi-experiment was designed to measure the immediate effects of the treatments (activities) on students. Measuring actual student learning using criterion-referenced tests, performance tests, or norm-referenced tests did not seem useful or effective for my study because of its scope, design, and purpose. I was using just one

lesson plan and wanted to determine whether different activities led to a change in the degree of stereotyping. Stereotyping is not a skill or knowledge, but an attitude (but one which is based on some knowledge and experience even if it is not accurate). That is why I turned to Social Psychology, the discipline that deals with measuring human behaviors and attitudes.

The current literature in social psychology does offer explicit and implicit measuring instruments (Fernandez-Ballesteros 110). Explicit measures are based on direct questions about subjects' attitudes toward common stereotypes. Another way of measuring the attitudes is to offer statements that contain stereotypes that subjects have to rate (See McCauley and Still (1978); Singall and Page (1971); Madon et al. (2001)). The explicit measures of stereotyping have some disadvantages. The measures may be less reliable and less effective for various reasons. For example, the subjects may not reveal their true attitudes because they want to keep a good self image; in other words, the explicit measures may not address the deeper feelings and uncontrolled reactions. That is why many researchers in social psychology prefer using implicit measures that target those uncontrolled reactions (See Fazio et al. (1995)). The implicit measures may employ different techniques such as recording bodily responses (Petty and Cacioppo (1983)) or asking subjects to respond to words "that signify the attitude object and words with positive or negative valence" (Fernandez-Ballesteros 113). Such implicit measures target deeper feelings of people and have a higher degree of reliability and validity, compared to the explicit measures.

Unfortunately, when examined closely, none of the instruments could adequately

respond to the needs of my study. In order to measure what I wanted to measure (the degree of student *immediate attitude change* toward stereotypes about the American culture), I used several studies as an example and developed an instrument with 16 items or statements about Americans that I used as an online pre- and post-tests (See McCauley and Stitt 929). My instrument was explicit and asked students to rate statements about Americans on a scale from 1 (Absolutely Disagree) to 7 (Absolutely Agree). The statements were based on the most current stereotypes about Americans offered in the recent study by Madon et al. (Madon et al. (2001) 996). In the study, researchers identified, listed, and ranked approximately 50 attributes/stereotypes based on how well the stereotypes can characterize Americans (i.e. "much more characteristic of Americans than other people" Madon et al. 999). Out of this extensive list, I selected 16 attributes using two criteria: the attributes should score the highest in the given list and they should pertain to possible workplace communication styles or values. Here is the list of the selected attributes:

1. Materialistic
2. Aggressive
3. Individualists
4. Straightforward
5. Competitive
6. Loud
7. Independent
8. Outspoken
9. Ignorant
10. Rude
11. Democratic
12. Stubborn
13. Lazy
14. Show-Offs
15. Industrious
16. Opinionated

I designed an explicit measure for several reasons. First, because of the scale of the study (just one lesson), it would be logically and physically impossible to change students' deeply engrained beliefs and attitudes, which are measured by implicit measures. Such a change, similar to language acquisition, requires time, life experiences, and inner personal growth. However, explicit measures, i.e. explicit direct statements, may reveal what students have retained during the class and measure their immediate explicit attitude change. Another reason for choosing the explicit measure is the fact that as a reading assignment for *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")*, I assigned a part of Chapter 6 from Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, and Dragga's *Reporting Technical Information*. This chapter offers an extensive discussion of Hofstede's dimensions which belong to the information acquisition approach. The chapter offers plenty of explicit statements about the American and other cultures, i.e. factoids about other cultures. Those statements, if phrased definitively, form current stereotypes about Americans, which were identified by Madon et al. (the article that was the source of the attributes/stereotypes about Americans that I used to create my explicit measuring instrument (Madon et al. 999)). Thus, by choosing explicit measures, I was trying to determine the effects of introducing factoids to students (explicit statements about Americans and other cultures) that are used in the reading materials for *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")*. In addition, I piloted the study and the pre- and post-tests in two sections of a technical writing class in Summer II, 2006, and some of the chosen statements (some of the listed attributes about Americans) discriminated well between the two experimental groups. Then I revised the original instruments based on the results of

the pilot study. Thus, choosing an explicit measure was the most reasonable choice given the purpose of the study and its design.

The pre-test for the study had a demographic section and collected information about students' ethnic background, traveling experience, intercultural communication educational experience, knowledge of foreign languages, and international friends. The post-test excluded this section but had an additional section that collected students' feedback on the activity: whether the activity challenged students' beliefs, whether it promoted further intercultural inquiry, and whether it was interesting to students. See Appendix E: Quasi-Experimental Study for the questions on the pre- and post-tests.

Procedures

The experiment required just one hour (1) of a normal one hour and twenty minutes class. See Appendix E: Quasi-Experimental Study for online pre- and post-test, lesson plans, scripts, and handouts. For both treatment groups, the lessons were an introduction to intercultural workplace communication, which is a part of the current technical writing curriculum at TTU and satisfies the multicultural requirement for the course.

The procedures required the following steps:

1. I held a 30-minute orientation meeting before the study with the instructors who agreed to participate. During the meeting, instructors were given explanations and materials for teaching the lessons.
2. Instructors of the control and treatment groups asked students to complete an

online pre-test a class before the quasi-experiment. This test helped me (1) collect background information on subjects (students), their intercultural preparedness, and intercultural experiences (traveling, foreign languages), and (2) measure the degree of students' attitudes toward stereotypes about Americans.

3. The next class session, the instructors of the treatment groups administered the treatments, while the instructor of the control group asked students to complete the post-test at the very beginnings of the class.

Treatments:

a. The instructors showed an introductory Power Point presentation with a pre-recorded narration that was distributed on a CD and was given to instructors before the class. The presentation was narrated by a native English speaker to avoid any additional confounding factors that could influence students' perceptions or attitudes.

b. Instructors facilitated two different activities, one with labeling and one with experiencing cultures: *Treatment Group I (Experiencing)* and *Treatment Group II (Labeling)*.

4. The study was completed by administering *an online post-test* that collected information on student attitudes toward stereotypes (the same as the pre-test) and the activity itself. The next section describes my treatments in more detail.

Treatments

The treatments for the two groups were similar and different in many fundamental ways. The overall objectives for both classes were similar. See Table 6.1 for details:

Table 6.1: The Comparison of Knowledge and Skills Objectives for the Two Treatment Groups

Groups	Knowledge Objectives	Skills Objectives
Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")	Students will know basic facts about diversity in the U.S. and workplace cross-cultural collaboration. Students will know definitions of stereotypes.	Students will start developing skills of experiencing other cultures and building communication strategies for future communications.
Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")	Students will know basic facts about diversity in the U.S. and workplace cross-cultural collaboration. Students will know definitions of stereotypes. Students will have the basic understanding of Hofstede's cultural dimensions.	Students will learn how to characterize cultures using Hofstede's cultural dimensions.

In both groups students were familiarized with the basic facts about diversity in the United States and workplace cross-cultural collaboration by the means of a pre-recorded Power Point Presentation. Students were also introduced to the definition of stereotypes and their examples. However, *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")* had an additional reading assignment: pages 102-113 from "Chapter 6: Writing for International Readers," by Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, and Dragga, in *Reporting Technical Information*, which was available to students through electronic reserve at the TTU Library and was also given to them in a form of a handout. Thus, as an additional knowledge objective, students in *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")* had to develop a basic understanding of Hofstede's cultural dimensions through readings and the activity.

The skills objectives (because of the types of activities) for the two treatment groups varied significantly. In *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")*, students had to develop the skills of experiencing other cultures and building communication strategies for future communications. In the design of the activity for this group, I used the principles of paralogic rhetoric, specifically the principle of triangulation and the principle of passing theories. In *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")*, students had to learn how to characterize cultures using Hofstede's cultural dimensions and were supposed to utilize the readings provided for them.

The next important element of the treatments for the two groups is the activities that were based roughly on the same type of cultural characteristics that students had to use. But what students actually did with the characteristics was quite different in the two groups. In *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")*, students were divided into two groups and were given handouts with the description of the activity and a set of cultural characteristics (Culture A and Culture B). Students had to think and act according to those characteristics. The characteristics for Culture A were based on Jack Hulbert's Agressivians (Hubert 41; See Appendix E: Quasi-Experimental Study for detailed descriptions). These characteristics addressed students' body language (frequent gestures, prolonged eye contact, smiling), personal space (closeness), concept of time (always in a hurry), vocal qualities (loud), personality (self-centered), and negotiation style (brutally frank).

The characteristics for Culture B required students to behave as they normally behave. The students were given the following situation: recently your company in the

U.S. has merged with some foreign company; you have never met people from that country; the company is hosting a social gathering for the new foreign counterparts; you have a chance to meet them. Students had to meet with two representatives from the other culture and introduce themselves to them: their names, job titles, and their job requirements (students could make up the details).

After this meeting, students had to work in groups and write a memo to their instructor. In the memo they had to (1) compile a list of behavioral characteristics for the other culture, and (2) create a list of strategies that would help a person communicate with the other group's culture. A memo was the specific written outcome of the activity. Students also had to prepare for a brief presentation of their findings and had to think about the answer to the following question: What does this process [communication with the other culture] say about the way you communicate?

After the students completed the memo, the instructor initiated a classroom discussion. First, Culture B (real Americans) was asked to report the group's findings. The important part of this discussion was when the instructor reflected on the students' communication process and summarized the findings of the activities. Students from Culture B could easily determine the characteristics of Culture A by simply observing them and could build new communication strategies. The instructor concluded: "Ok, what we have just done is the following: first, you have observed and built some understanding of their behavioral characteristics through actual interactions; second, you have built a theory about other culture's communication preferences. These are initial steps of any successful communication, intercultural and interpersonal" (Note: Instructors

were provided with scripts and were asked to follow the scripts closely. This quotation comes from the script.). This was an example of the principle of passing theories applied to teaching intercultural communication. Next, the instructor asked students what this process said about the way Culture B communicated. Students reflected on their communication with the other culture and explained what they liked or did not like about the process. In addition, they formed a theory about their own communication preferences. Such questions and reflection employ the principle of triangulation in paralogic rhetoric (we build the knowledge about ourselves through others). Once again, it was important for the instructor to reflect or summarize what happened during the activity: "So in a sense, it is easy to see your own communication preferences when you meet a person who has a drastically different way of communicating. Then you can immediately identify that … yes, I am less of such and such quality than the other person. So we always compare our ways to the ways of others. It helps us build some understanding of who we really are, what culture we belong to, what we like and do not like."

Then, Culture A reported its findings the same way as Culture B. This part of the activity could have several potential directions in development: students might or might not have problems identifying the characteristics of their own culture. In my pilot study and from my own teaching, I know that the activity can take different turns. If indeed it was hard for Culture A to establish characteristics of Culture B, then there was an opportunity for the instructor to discuss what it meant "being in culture" and not being able to feel it, unless a person met another person that differed. At the end of the overall

discussion, the instructor again summarized and reflected on the process of communication: "The two initial steps of successful communication are to observe carefully and to form theories and readjust them over time, of course. You need people from other cultures to compare and to understand who you are, what culture/country you are coming from. So when we encounter people from other cultures, we develop our own awareness of our communication practices: what we do similarly and differently from how other people do it."

The next step in the activity was for all students to re-examine the characteristics of Culture A. The instructor told students that this set of characteristics was loosely based on western and also American culture, or stereotypes about Americans or westerners. Students were asked to look at the characteristics and put a checkmark next to the characteristics they felt would characterize them personally. None of them put the checkmark next to all the characteristics. As a result, the instructor made a very important conclusion: "People differ tremendously within just one culture: different characters and personalities. And even if you know something about other culture, you have heard someone talking, or you have heard something on TV, etc., you do not really know individual people from this or that culture unless you communicate with them personally, unless you share something with them, unless you negotiate meaning, and unless you try to come to some kind of consensus." This was the overall conclusion of the activity.

The activity for *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")* was slightly simpler in a way it was organized and required less instructor involvement or reflection. Working in groups, students were asked to use the assigned readings (Hofstede's dimensions and

Table 6.1 Cultural Dimension Scores of Representative Countries on p. 106) and to determine what cultures/countries could be described using two sets of characteristics: Culture A and Culture B. Table 6.1 offered scores for Individualism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoiding, and Masculinity for about 50 different countries. The chapter also offered extensive discussion of other dimensions and provided plenty of examples of different countries and cultures.

As with *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")*, the characteristics for cultures were adopted from Jack Hulbert's simulation (Hulbert 41). Culture A was Aggressivians; however, Culture B was not real Americans as with the previous treatment group, but was Passivians from the original Hulbert's simulation. I used both sets of characteristics to give students a variety of materials to work with. Students were asked to write a memo explaining which country/s they have selected and why, and to create a list of strategies that would help Americans communicate with the representatives of Culture A or Culture B in various workplace settings (students could select one).

When students completed their memos, the instructor opened the floor for discussion and asked students about countries they had selected and the reasons behind their choices. Students also reported some strategies that would help Americans communicate with the representatives of those countries. After the discussion, the instructor made the overall conclusions: "The conclusion that we can make today is that different countries have different preferences in communicating, and, as a result, require different communication strategies. In workplace settings, you should observe and adjust

to your co-workers, readers, or listeners in order to make the communication process successful, beneficial, and enjoyable."

Thus, the two activities/treatments were similar in the sets of cultural characteristics that they were using (based on Hulbert's Aggressivians and Passivians 42), but they differed in (1) what students did with those characteristics, (2) how cultural differences were examined, and (3) how well stereotyping was addressed in each activity. One group used Hofstede's dimensions and labeled cultures based on those characteristics. Another group experienced culture from within and looked at its own culture and its characteristics revealing problems with generalizations and stereotyping. The following sections describe the analysis of my collected data.

Data Analysis

In order to select a statistical test for a set of data, one needs to determine the type of the collected data and the nature of the design of a quasi-experiment (Wall and van den Berg 383-385). My collected data are interval variables. The observations in my research design are dependent as I am testing the same sample group of students twice.

The first research question asked the following:

> RQ1: What is the effect of the two different activities, one based on labeling cultures (the information acquisition approach) and one based on experiencing cultures (the dialogic pedagogical perspective), on the student *attitudes toward stereotypes about themselves*, as determined by a developed attitude scale?

My hypothesis was as follows:

H1: If the instructor uses an activity based on experiencing cultures, students will express lower degree of stereotyping about themselves immediately after the lesson, compared to the activity based on labeling cultures, or classes with no treatment at all.

This hypothesis is comparative since I am comparing the change in students' attitudes within each sample group using pre- and post-tests and also the differences in students' attitudes toward the activities between the two treatment groups. In order "to estimate the probability that an observed point or distribution could have occurred by chance" (Caporaso and Roos 26), I can select different tests of significance: inspection of means, one-sample t-test, dependent t-test, or repeated measures ANOVA (Watt and van den Berg 389). From the list of available tests, I selected repeated measures ANOVA to evaluate the effects of different treatments on students' immediate attitude change. I selected repeated measures ANOVA for several reasons:

- It condenses the data that varies unsystematically.
- It shows the comparison of means of sums of scores on the pre- and post-tests among two treatment and control groups as separate collective units.

When calculating the means of sums of scores, ANOVA combined the scores of individual subjects within each group and then made an average of those. The dependent variable was the degree of stereotyping about Americans on a scale from 1 to 7. I used a scale from 1 to 7 instead of the traditional Likert scale from 1 to 5 for better dispersion of the scores. The tests were examined at .05 level of significance. Descriptive statistical analysis showed that the overall means of sums of total scores differ between groups. See

Table 6.2 for the exact numbers and Figure 6.1 for the visual representation of the same results.

Table 6.2: Means of Sums of Total Scores on the Pre- and Post-test for Three Groups

Measure	Treatment Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pre-test Total	Experiencing	76.29	7.375	35
	Labeling	76.23	7.697	35
	Control	78.79	8.853	29
	Total	77.00	7.948	99
Post-test Total	Experiencing	77.29	8.432	35
	Labeling	82.77	8.419	35
	Control	78.66	13.056	29
	Total	79.63	10.185	99

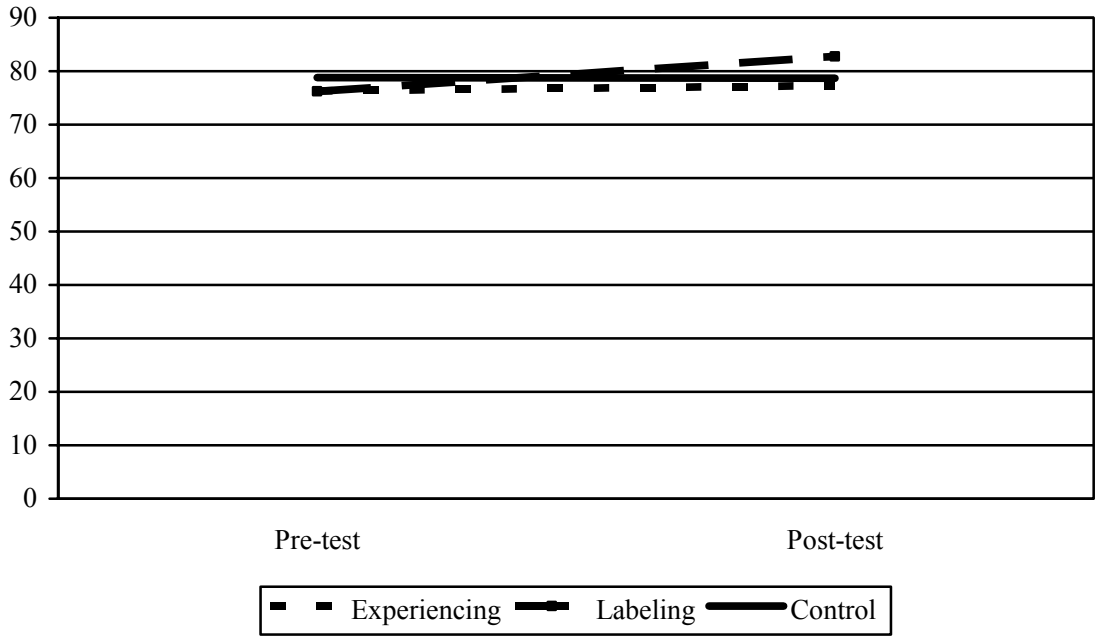

Figure 6.1: Means of Sums of Total Scores on the Pre- and Post-test for Three Groups

A multivariate main effect within three groups and tests as indicated by Wilks' Lambda was .953, F (2, 96)=2.352, p>.05. The effect between the pre- and post-test is .072, while the effect between the tests and the groups was .101. What essentially this

data tells us is that the results are approaching significance, but not significant. There is a possibility that if the tests are conducted on a bigger scale, the results could be significant.

In addition, it is also important to report the effect size η_p^2, Partial Eta Squared, that targets variance accounted for in the samples, specifically whether the variance can be attributed to the effect. The descriptive analysis showed $\eta_p^2 = .033$ for between pre- and post-tests variables and $\eta_p^2 = .047$ for between groups variables. This data means the following:

- 3.3% of variance was accounted for by between pre- and post-tests variables, leaving 96.7% of variance unexplained.
- 4.7% of variance was accounted for by between groups variables, leaving 95.3% of variance unexplained.

Considering how short and abrupt the study was, even this small 4.7% of variance accounted for by between groups variables is important and leads to the overall conclusion that the variance in the study at least to some extent can be attributed to my treatments.

My second research question asked

RQ2: What is the effect of the two different activities on students' *attitudes toward the activity itself and intercultural communication*, as determined by a developed attitude scale?

The hypothesis based on this research question was as follows:

H2: If the instructor uses an activity based on experiencing cultures, students will

enjoy it more, and the activity will promote a future intercultural inquiry in students with a greater degree, compared to the activity based on labeling cultures.

To test this hypothesis, students were asked to give feedback on the activity and its effects on students as a part of the post-test for the two treatment groups. Students had to rate several statements on the scale from *1- Strongly disagree* to *5- Strongly agree*. See Table 6.3 for the statements on the survey and the means of the scores.

Table 6.3: Students' Feedback on the Activities

Statements	***M***	
	Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")	***Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")***
This activity challenged my beliefs.	2.7	2.8
After this activity, I would like to learn more about intercultural communication.	3.6	3.7
This activity was interesting.	3.9	3.8

Students in both groups were very close to agreeing that both activities were interesting. On the question about whether the activities promoted their future intercultural inquiry, both groups answered between Undecided and Agree, which was also close to a positive response. However, on the last question about whether the activity has changed their beliefs, students in both groups were between Disagree and Undecided, which most likely indicates that the treatment was too short and abrupt to produce a stronger impact on students' attitudes.

Discussion of the Results and Implications for Intercultural Teaching

The purpose of the study was to conduct a small-scale investigation of the two ways of teaching about cultures: labeling cultures versus experiencing cultures. As of now, the results of the quasi-experiment are not conclusive. There is a difference between the means of the three groups, and, based on the effect size (η_p^2, Partial Eta Squared), this variance at least to a small extent can be attributed to treatments. *Treatment Group II (“Labeling Cultures”)* did show a higher increase (a change from *M*=76.23 to *M*=82.77 for the means of the sums of scores) in the degree of the immediate attitude change towards the stereotypes about Americans, compared to *Treatment Group I (“Experiencing Cultures”)* and the *Control Group*. The results for *Treatment Group I (“Experiencing Cultures”)* (a change from *M*=76.29 to *M*=77.29 for the means of the sums of scores) and the *Control Group* (a change from *M*=78.79 to *M*=78.66 for the means of the sums of scores) did not change as much.

Although the students’ feedback on the two activities was the same, it is interesting to mention that in the comment box that was provided at the end of the post-test, *Treatment Group I (“Experiencing Cultures”)* gave more responses than *Treatment Group II (“Labeling Cultures”)*. Some of those responses are quite encouraging. One of the students wrote, “It was a good idea to have a hands-on *experience* to be able to see what others actually view Americans like. Although not one person in this class qualified as … the American in the pink group [,] there w[ere] some characteristics that were missing from all of us” (italics are added for emphasis). The student did appreciate the opportunity to experience culture. Moreover, the experiential activity promoted some

students' cultural self-realization:

- "It's funny because when I read the characteristics of Culture A I thought the people sounded silly and ridiculous. Then, when I found out they were based off of American behavior, I could actually associate some of the characteristics to myself and other Americans that I have come into contact with."
- "I think this activity gives us an opportunity to really see how others see us."
- "I thought it was a great activity to learn about ourselves as Americans and then also how other cultures think of us."
- "I thought it was a good learning experience to see how other cultures think of Americans."
- "I thought it was interesting to see all the characteristics of how people think that Americans act."

Such responses do signal that this one experiential activity has given some students an opportunity to "meet themselves" and see how others may see them, which happens when someone travels and encounter differences. Such cultural self-realization is important in learning about culture and stereotypes.

Overall, the findings of the quasi-experiment suggest that

1. potentially studies similar to this one can yield results that are significant. I can hypothesize that if multiple treatments or lessons are introduced consistently all through a semester and more students participate in the study, the results of such a quasi-experiment can prove that one method of teaching produces less stereotyping than the other;

2. different ways of teaching (contents and methods) may potentially be effective or ineffective in addressing stereotyping.

Overall, none of the proposed hypotheses were confirmed. As one of the implications, we need a new study conducted on a larger scale and over at least one full semester, with multiple treatments and comprehensive assessment that could reveal conclusive results about different ways of teaching about culture. Chapter VII offers an example of an intercultural sub-curriculum based on the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching that can be used in a future study.

Limitations

The quasi-experiment had several limitations that need to be discussed. As the groups were not randomly assigned, there were some threats to internal and external validity. External validity was threatened because I could be biased in selecting my treatment and experimental groups. I must admit that I had difficulty recruiting subjects for my study. In fact, one of the participants of my summer pilot study agreed to participate in the experiment again using the same treatment in her class. The other treatment group's instructor who agreed to participate was assigned to a treatment group based on his preference in teaching. He was using an approach to intercultural teaching somewhat similar to the treatment. Thus, for both treatment groups' instructors, those activities were easier to teach because of the previous experiences or teaching preferences. At the same time, I provided both instructors with pre-recorded Power Point Presentations with narrations and scripts for the lessons. They had to follow the scripts as

closely as possible to eliminate any possible personal influences, which raised the degree of reliability or replicability of my design. Thus, although I tried to reduce the threat to external validity by recruiting the subjects randomly, I did not succeed in the random selection of instructors because only a very small number of them agreed to participate in my study. It is quite possible that if the activities were taught by a person who had never taught that way before, the results of the pre- and post-test could be different.

The unexpected ethnic diversity in *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures")* was a threat to internal validity of my collected data. Unfortunately, I could not control who was in the selected classes, because a limited number of instructors responded to my call for participation in the study. So I could not pre-test more classes and select more or less equal groups. As a result, in the quasi-experiment, one group was more culturally diverse than the other two groups. Thus, the results of the pre-test and post-test may reflect not the attitude change, but the ethnic diversity of the students.

Another serious limitation was that the quasi-experiment was short and abrupt and did not allow us to see the long-term effects of labeling cultures versus experiencing cultures based on just one lesson. A longer study is needed to determine those effects. The activities themselves were organized in an arbitrary way, and could be reorganized differently using the same underlying activities: labeling versus experiencing.

As far as generalizability of my results is concerned, the number of participants in the treatment groups and the control group may be representative of the student population. However, because the analysis of the groups' demographics revealed substantial ethnic differences, the results of the quasi-experiment can serve as preliminary

results only. A longer study with better sampling procedures is needed to determine with a greater degree of validity and reliability whether there is a difference between different ways of teaching. At the same time, although my finding may not characterize the whole population, they do give preliminary results and designs of how such a comparison can be organized and what measures can be used to assess students' attitude change. It also shows what potentially can happen when instructors use labeling cultures or experiencing cultures as a foundation for two different activities.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of a quasi-experimental study that aimed to explore the differences between two ways of teaching about culture: labeling cultures versus experiencing cultures. The purpose of the study was to determine the effects of two different activities on students' immediate attitude change toward stereotypes about Americans as determined by a developed attitude scale. The study also explored students' attitudes toward the activities themselves as determined by a developed attitude scale.

For my quasi-experiment, I recruited three instructors of a service technical writing course. Each instructor taught two sections of the class. I formed two treatment groups and one control group (*Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures"*), *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures"*), and the *Control Group*). The treatment groups received different treatments, while the *Control Group* received no treatment at all. All groups were given pre- and post-tests. The groups varied in their ethnic makeup, which is one of the major limitations of the study. I conducted repeated measures ANOVA, and the test

did not confirm the articulated hypotheses. However, the study showed that based on the activities and the measures, *Treatment Group II ("Labeling Cultures")* scored higher on the post-test than the *Control Group* and *Treatment Group I ("Experiencing Cultures").* In fact, the differences between the pre-and post-tests are approaching significance and could be significant if a larger sample of participants was used and the experiment was conducted for a longer period of time. The variance in scores at least to some extent can be attributed to the treatments.

Thus, the results of the quasi-experiment show that we need a future larger-scale study to test the hypotheses. The next chapter, Chapter VII, offers a new intercultural sub-curriculum based on the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. This sub-curriculum can be used in future studies to explore the effectiveness of various methods of intercultural teaching and can be adapted by instructors for their classes.

CHAPTER VII

AN ALTERNATIVE INTERCULTURAL SUB-CURRICULUM MODEL FOR A SERVICE TECHNICAL WRITING COURSE

The purpose of this last chapter is to present an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum based on the preliminary goals and objectives outlined in Chapter IV and the dialogic pedagogical perspective discussed in Chapter V. The sub-curriculum supplements the existing technical writing curriculum and is organized around the main contents of the course: major technical writing genres and types of analysis. The sub-curriculum emerges out of the studies that I have conducted (textbook analysis, a survey, and a quasi-experiment) that explored various elements of teaching contexts and helped reveal some serious underlying limitations and constraints that instructors face when teaching intercultural communication. Such limitations include a lack of time, a lack of materials for teaching, and a lack of instructor preparation. The aim of this chapter is to respond to these limitations and to create an instructional model that might help the instructors who have trouble integrating intercultural materials in their courses. This chapter contains the following elements:

a. an explanation of the curriculum design process,
b. solutions to various constraints that instructors face, and
c. a model of a contextualized intercultural sub-curriculum with its philosophical foundation, specific goals and objectives, possible materials for teaching, and assessment techniques.

The chapter also gives recommendations on how the new sub-curriculum could be integrated into new editions of textbooks.

To develop the sub-curriculum, I rely on the structure of a *Curriculum Design Package*, a heuristic for designing a curriculum, proposed by Gorsuch (Gorsuch *Chapter One…* 1). First, I talk about the curriculum design process, the statement of curriculum development model, and the steps and considerations that instructors should make when designing a new curriculum. The process of curriculum design is in many ways adjusted for specific environments (students, universities, schedules, technologies, and classrooms), and the curriculum that I propose in this chapter is not prescriptive or exhaustive, and can be easily modified. The key in curriculum design is specificity and a focus on specific goals and objectives and their achievement.

I first restate the philosophies and traditions that underlie the new sub-curriculum, which were discussed in Chapter V. The next step is to briefly summarize the survey and discourse analysis results that constitute the situation and needs analysis for the development of the sub-curriculum. The needs and situation analysis lead to the articulation of goals and objectives of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course, which are followed by a new proposed schedule. After that, I discuss teaching materials and suggest possible classroom activities and assignments that can be adapted by instructors. I end the chapter by making suggestions about the ways textbook writers might revise textbooks to integrate the new sub-curriculum.

The Curriculum Design Process

A curriculum (from Latin "racecourse") as a concept has various definitions and meanings. Depending on a context, it may mean "a set of subjects," "content," "a program of studies," "a set of materials," "a sequence of courses," "a set of performance objectives," or "a course of study" (Oliva; quoted from Henson 10). This list of definitions is not exhaustive. For the purpose of my dissertation, I use the word "curriculum" to define a course design that enriches the service course with the intercultural component based on underlying philosophical grounds, specific goals and objectives, teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessment techniques.

The process of curriculum development has been discussed by many researchers and has been represented by various graphic models (See the Aim Model, Tyler's Ends-Means Model, The Oliva Models, Macdonald's Model, the Zais Eclectic Model (Henson 146-155); Brown's curriculum model (Brown 20); Graves' model (Graves (2000) 3). What the models offer is essentially a visual representation of the process that would explain how all elements of the curriculum, such as goals and objective, needs, materials, teaching methods, and assessment, interact and influence each other and how they are evaluated and reevaluated based on real-world teaching practices.

I personally favor "A Framework of Course Development Processes" by Graves (3). The model portrays course design as fluid and circular. All elements of the curriculum are mutually dependent. When developing a new intercultural sub-curriculum for a course, one will have to make adjustments based on each *individual* element of the design and its *global* role within the whole framework. In other words, on each stage, a

specific element of the framework is re-evaluated based on the development of other elements within the framework. All constituents of the framework rest on a definition of the context, i.e. instructors' knowledge of their students and instructors' articulation of beliefs, or their philosophical foundation of the curriculum (Graves 3; See Figure 7.1 for the model).

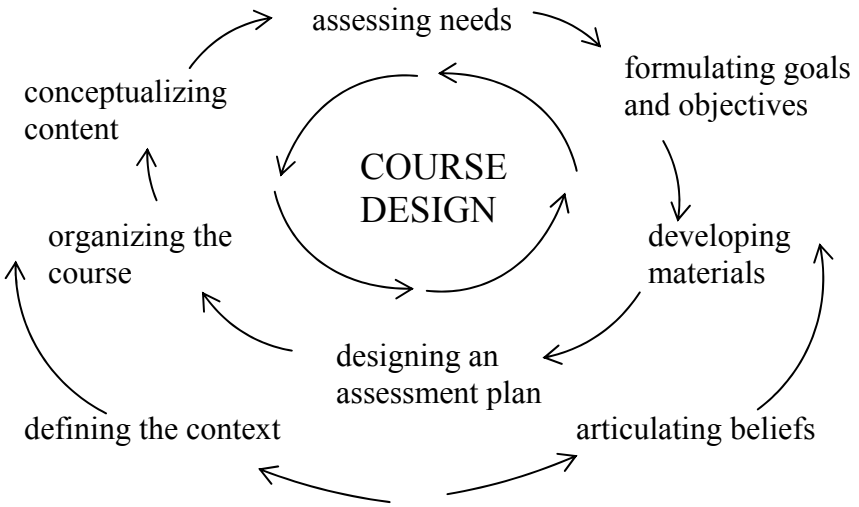

Figure 7.1: Graves' Framework of Course Development Processes
Source: Graves, K. *Designing Language Courses*. Boston: Newbury House, 2000.

The development of a new intercultural sub-curriculum requires going through several stages or circles. For example, I started the process of designing a new curriculum by assessing the teaching contexts and discourses using a survey and textbook analysis. Then I formulated the unified goals and objectives and created a test lesson with specific materials to compare the effects of alternative ways of teaching and their implications for the new curriculum. After testing, I had an opportunity to re-evaluate the framework; for example, I looked at whether my assessment plan suited my goals and objectives or whether my materials really suited my students' needs. Such a process would happen at

each stage of course design and implementation. The process of adaptation and adjustment is perpetual. Some materials will work; some will need to be changed depending on real teaching contexts. In other words, Graves' model allows for much flexibility for intercultural teaching.

The steps in curriculum development include the following (Gorsuch *Chapter Two* 5; see also Richards (2001); Henson (2003)):

1. Describing philosophies and traditions underlying the course design
2. Conducting situation analysis and needs analysis
3. Articulating goals and objectives
4. Creating a syllabus
5. Preparing materials for teaching
6. Developing sample assessment techniques

At the end of the semester, the curriculum should be evaluated using various techniques, for example, through student evaluations (Richards 300-301).

As I noted above, many of the elements in curriculum design will depend on individual instructors' preferences. However, in the sections to come, I discuss general directions and principles of organizing the new sub-curriculum given the dialogic pedagogical perspective and the outlined goals and objectives. These goals and objectives came out of my research (survey, discourse analysis, and quasi-experiment) and my strong personal conviction and practice.

Philosophical Foundation of the New Intercultural Sub-Curriculum

As I discussed in Chapters II, V, and VI, the information acquisition approach and positivist epistemology and ontology on which it operates have been criticized by many researchers in the field (See T. Weiss; Corbett; Woolever; Hunsinger). The quasi-experimental study showed that, if I conduct a larger-scale study, it can potentially show that the information acquisition approach, specifically labeling, can lead to a higher degree of stereotyping in students. In the light of these findings, it seems justifiable to support the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching as an alternative curriculum foundation. This perspective allows for looking at cultures without labeling, and re-emphasizes experiencing cultures through simulated or real life contacts and examination of cultural artifacts. The perspective can enrich the technical writing curriculum with new theories and principles. The perspective is situated within a social-constructivist ontology and epistemology. The sub-curriculum that I am proposing in this chapter is pragmatic in nature and favors learner-centeredness and collaboration in a classroom. Learning comes through experiencing, practicing, and interacting. The learning process and language belongs to the users.

The dialogic pedagogical perspective is a compilation of social and communication theories. These theories support a "culture-unspecific," experiential approach to teaching about culture and cultural differences and similarities. The perspective combines the philosophy of pragmatism and the understanding of social interactions offered by paralogic hermeneutics and symbolic interactionism. The perspective supports communicative and experiential teaching methods. For a complete

discussion of the perspective, see Chapter V.

The perspective offers alternative definitions of culture, intercultural communication, and the roles of individuals and society and aims to bring an emphasis on exploring students' own local cultures and then transferring such knowledge to global contexts. I strongly believe that students will better understand how cultures work, what ethnocentrism and stereotyping are, if they explore who they are and what culture they belong to. In other words, it is important to examine culture locally to understand how it works globally. Keeping such understanding in mind, I propose a change in the intercultural focus in the course. For example, instead of discussing cultural differences between various cultures, instructors can discuss the American culture as a culture of many cultures. I discuss possible themes for intercultural teaching in more detail later in the chapter.

As specific methodological implications of the perspective, I should re-emphasize developing students' analytical skills and promoting experiential life-long learning. The role of instructors becomes very important when using the perspective as they become the major source of activities, readings, and presentations. The examined textbooks offer little for the alternative way of teaching. I propose selecting technical writing topics that can be used to discuss intercultural communication and suggest possible experiential activities and presentations that instructors can include with those topics. Instructors, in their turn, can decide how many activities and presentations to have in their classes. The purpose of the activities is to help students build their own successful communication theories. A teacher's role in such learning is to be an architect within the context of the

classroom (Lee and VanPatten 13-14). The next section describes the needs of instructors that complicate curriculum design.

Situation and Needs Analysis

Situation and needs analysis is the next step in developing a well grounded curriculum. A situation analysis is "an analysis of factors in the context of a planned or present curriculum project that is made in order to assess their potential impact on the project" (Richards 91). The situation analysis shapes the curriculum design process because it accounts for many situational/contextual factors: societal, project, institutional, teacher, learner, and adoption factors (91). These factors may be positive and negative. When analyzing societal factors, a curriculum designer should inquire about teaching traditions and general attitudes towards learning in a specific context (an institution), institutional resources, and professional communities. When looking at project factors, one should ask who will participate in the curriculum development, what are available budget and resources, and whether the project is realistic. Institutional factors help reveal the relations between teachers and administration, teachers' problems, the availability of textbooks and teaching resources, and the school's vision. When examining teacher and learner factors, a curriculum developer should account for teachers' preparation and proficiency, prevalent teaching styles, experience, and teaching philosophy, as well as students' motivation, expectations, and gender/age/occupation characteristics. Adoption factors deal with the overall compatibility of the proposed curriculum with the existing structures and the ease/difficulty in adopting it.

A needs analysis is a set of "procedures used to collect information about learners' needs" (Richards 51; see also Brown 21). It is administered at different times in the process of developing a program and influences all processes of course design: developing materials for the course/program, formulating goals and objectives, designing an assessment plan, organizing the course, and conceptualizing the content (Graves 3). The purpose of the needs analysis is to account for the needs (personal, social, political, and language) of a variety of stakeholders (learners, administrators, and teachers) in order to make informed decisions on the elements of the proposed course. All stakeholders have their special interests and needs.

There are several steps in needs analysis:

1. determining the purpose and the target population for the analysis: who will be affected by the course and who will use/read the needs analysis and why

2. administering the needs analysis (collecting information) using a triangulation approach (Richards 59); choosing several procedures from the following list:

- collecting samples of student writing or performances
- collecting teachers' reports
- writing literature reviews and analyzing textbooks
- surveying students or distributing questionnaires
- interviewing
- observing classes
- meeting students
- doing case studies and performing task analyses

3. using the result of the needs analysis for developing a new course/program (developing tests, materials, and goals and objectives) or reevaluating the existing course/program.

Needs change depending on different factors and teaching contexts. They are a vital part

of the cyclical process of course/curriculum design.

I used a survey and discourse analysis as my preliminary needs and situation analysis that primarily targeted the needs of instructors; but, of course, teachers must conduct their own research and determine what the needs of their students and administration are. A survey of the academic community was the most reasonable choice for the chosen research focus. The survey and discourse analysis revealed several constraints and problems that impact intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. For detailed results, see Chapter IV.

The lack of sufficient preparation for intercultural teaching was indicated as one of the constraints. Another constraint is the proposed goals and objectives that in many cases were too vague. The lack of time was also indicated as a serious problem. There is no agreement on how much intercultural content is enough for the service technical writing course. Some instructors set forth goals and objectives that cannot be thoroughly addressed in a semester-long course, while others simply give up saying that there is not enough time in the course. The lack of adequate teaching materials – an imbalance in discussion, their demonstrations, and their applications; the lack of examples and exercises; the prevalence of factoids – in textbooks worsens the problem. After the analysis of teaching contexts, textbook discourses, and alternative perspectives, I suggest a new set of goals and objectives for intercultural teaching in the course and propose possible materials for those.

Goals and Objectives of Intercultural Teaching in a Service Technical Writing Course

The articulation of goals and objectives allows a teacher to narrow down the scope of teaching, choose specific types of assignments, select materials, and create assessment tools. The process of formulating goals is based on an initial definition of the context and the articulation of beliefs and ideologies that define one's teaching (a needs analysis, a situation analysis, and course design models). At the same time, goals and objectives are not rigid forms and are adjusted depending on students' progress and newly discovered situational and institutional constraints. Goals and objectives may become clearer when a curriculum designer starts organizing and sequencing the course (Graves 5). That is why course design development on the whole is a system and is a cyclical model (4). All components are interrelated and are affected by one another.

Goals and objectives are not the same. As Brown writes, the difference between a goal and an objective exists on the level of specificity, but sometimes it is hard to see a clear distinction between them (21). Besides, objectives also can vary in the degree of specificity. It is important to learn about major differences and purposes of both.

Goals

Goals are broader than objectives. "Goals are 'general statements of the overall, long-term purposes of the course'" (Gorsuch *Chapter Two* …16). Goals improve overall effectiveness of teaching and learning and the overall program (Richards 112). A goal should satisfy several requirements:

1. It should be appropriate for a specific group of learners (a needs analysis through

interviews and questionnaires; meetings with students and administrators).

2. It reflects teachers' understanding of materials and learning and their beliefs about how students can meet their needs in learning.
3. It is "general and long-term" (Gorsuch *Chapter Two* … 17).
4. A course is made up of several goals and each one is responsible for a certain part of the course.
5. It is reachable.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to specifying goals for a course. Goals help shape tasks, activities, assessment tools, and the overall outcomes of the course. Goals help all stakeholders see what this or that course is about, what is expected, and what teachers believe should be achieved. Goals, in a sense, are a "legal contract" between a teacher and a student. Such a contract may serve a teacher in a positive way: to defend his/her teaching. One of the disadvantages of specifying goals is that they could limit the process of teaching to some extent and, as a result, the process of learning. Goals can also be difficult to articulate, and if they are articulated inaccurately, they may lead to confusion and misunderstanding among stakeholders. Goals should always be articulated for a specific group of students, which complicates the process of course design. With new group of students, one has to revise the whole curriculum (ideally). In the light of the discussed advantages and disadvantages of specifying goals, my proposed curriculum is alternative and preliminary, not a definitive way of approaching intercultural teaching. Instructors have to adjust these goals based on real classrooms and their needs. Unreachable goals may lead to students' frustration and dissatisfaction.

For the purpose of developing a new sub-curriculum, I relied on the results of my discourse analysis, survey, and quasi-experiment to justify the chosen unified, contextualized goals. Unfortunately, analyzed textbooks and instructors' responses did not offer clear goals or objectives that would take into consideration various teaching constraints. Thus, I combined the responses, analyzed teaching constraints, and proposed an intercultural minimum for the course. This minimum comes from the understanding of the tasks that students might perform in a real job: students should be able to communicate orally, visually, and verbally in multicultural settings. Keeping in mind the humanistic value of multicultural education and the discussed constraints, the *overall goal* of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course can be articulated in the following way:

> **Goal**: Students in American universities will develop *basic skills and knowledge* that would allow them to *negotiate ethically and efficiently across cultures using written, oral, and visual channels*.

The next section describes specific objectives that help in reaching the chosen goal.

Objectives

Objectives are steps in reaching the overall goal of a course. "In Graves' words, 'objectives express the specific way in which the goal will be achieved'" (Gorsuch *Chapter Two* … 25). Objectives are specific. In order to articulate a clear objective, one must include each of the following five components as specified by Brown (26-27):

1. specifications for performance (what learners will be able to do)

2. specifications for conditions (conditions under which the performance is expected to occur)
3. criterion specifications (the level of performance that is acceptable)
4. subject (referring to learners)
5. measure (referring to how learners' performances on tasks will be observed)

Objectives can be classified as knowledge objectives (what learners will know: "will learn…") and skills objectives (what learners will be able to do: "will be able…"). Based on specific objectives, a teacher then designs tasks, activities, and an assessment plan that addresses students' progress in achieving smaller objectives and overall goals (Gorsuch *Chapter One* … 1). I should re-emphasize that although I am proposing objectives for the course, instructors have to rearticulate them and readjust them for specific classrooms, lessons, and even activities.

The main knowledge and skills objectives for intercultural teaching that I propose come from the results of the survey that helped collect information about what instructors currently teach or believe should be taught in the course:

> **Knowledge Objectives**: Working individually, students taking a service technical writing course will learn and be able to explain basic definitions of the following concepts:
>
> 1. the concepts of culture, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism;
> 2. the concepts of localization and internationalization of documents;
> 3. the concepts of contrastive rhetorical analysis and its procedures;

4. the concept of Plain English; and

5. basic principles of international visual communication.

Students can be assessed using written quizzes, written responses, and written assignments submitted for evaluation.

Skills Objectives: Working individually and collaboratively in class, students taking a service technical writing course will

1. develop the basic skills of negotiation in multicultural workplace settings through understanding the nature of social interactions and applying the principles of humanistic communication;

2. develop the basic skills of contrastive rhetorical analysis of verbal and visual artifacts;

3. develop the basic skills of revision of written artifacts using Plain English (at the basis of the internationalization of documents) that may be suitable for both local and international audiences; and

4. develop the basic skills of revision of visual artifacts using a set of guidelines for intercultural visual communication offered in the current scholarship on visual communication.

Students will be assessed based on written assignments submitted for evaluation.

Each objective can be attained using various methods and can be discussed in connection with several key topics in technical writing. The next section offers a preliminary schedule for a semester-long service technical writing course, which

normally takes 14 weeks to complete.

Organizing Intercultural Teaching: An Alternative Schedule with Intercultural Materials

The following schedule offers a preliminary structure of the course with integrated intercultural materials. The organization comes out of the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching, my research results, and the specified goals and objectives for the course. The organization of the schedule relies on the main topics of the service course (genres and types of analyses). The way I and many other instructors teach the course at Texas Tech University is by introducing complexity gradually, by building a foundation, and then discussing more complex genres and types of analysis in the middle and at the end of the course. We start from basic issues of technical communication, such as collaboration, audience analysis, and a simple job letter and resume, and finish with a proposal. In the table below, I group topics based on their approximate relevance to each other. They can be grouped differently and may vary from instructor to instructor. Based on the results of my survey, I propose putting emphasis on intercultural communication at the very beginning and in the middle of the course and coinciding the intercultural materials with such topics as

a. audience analysis
b. collaboration
c. ethics
d. persuasion
e. workplace correspondence

f. instructions

I suggest that these topics are the minimum requirement for the course and can be revised and expanded based on specific contexts and instructors' preferences. See Table 7.1 for the preliminary schedule.

Table 7.1: A Possible Arrangement of Technical Writing Topics, the Accompanying Knowledge and Skills Objectives for Intercultural Teaching, and Teaching Methods

Week	Technical Writing Topics	Knowledge and Skills Objectives	Teaching Methods
1	▪ Intro. to TC ▪ Audience Analysis ▪ Job Letter and Resume	Learn the concepts of culture, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism;	▪ Presentations ▪ Additional readings ▪ Classroom discussions
2	▪ Writing Process ▪ Collaboration ▪ Communicating Persuasively	Develop the basic skills of negotiation in multicultural workplace settings through understanding the nature of social interactions and applying the principles of humanistic communication;	Experiential activities with assessable outcomes
3			
4	▪ Workplace Correspondence ▪ Ethical and Legal considerations ▪ Drafting and revising Paragraphs and sentences ▪ Collaboration ▪ Communicating persuasively	Learn the concept of localization and internationalization of documents	Presentations Additional readings Classroom discussions
		Learn the concept of contrastive rhetorical analysis and its basic procedures	
		Learn the concept of Plain English;	
		Develop the basic skills of negotiation in multicultural workplace settings through understanding of the nature of social interactions and applying the principles of humanistic communication;	Experiential activities with assessable outcomes

5		Develop the basic skills of basic contrastive rhetorical analysis of *verbal* artifacts;	Activities: Contrastive rhetorical analysis of documents with assessable outcomes
6		Develop the basic skills of revision of written artifacts using Plain English (at the basis of the internationalization of documents) that can be suitable for both local and international audiences	Activities: Document Redesigns **A Possible Major Assignment with a Focus on Plain English**
7	Instructions Graphics and document design Usability testing	Learn the basic principles of international visual communication	Presentations Additional readings Classroom discussions
		Develop basic skills of contrastive rhetorical analysis of visual artifacts;	Activities: Contrastive rhetorical analysis of documents with assessable outcomes
		Develop the basic skills of revision of visual artifacts using a set of guidelines for intercultural visual communication offered in the current scholarship on visual communication.	Activities: Document Redesigns **A possible Major Assignment with a Focus on intercultural visual communication**
8 9		Develop the basic skills of revision of written artifacts using Plain English (at the basis of the internationalization of documents) that can be suitable for both local and international audiences	Activities: Document Redesigns **Possible Major Assignment with a Focus on Plain English**
10	Proposals and		

11	Reports		
12	Primary and		
13	Secondary research		
14	Documenting Style Front and Back Matters Oral Presentations		

During the second part and at the very end of the course, I propose using intercultural communication as a dimension of communication and including it in revision checklists for the assignments.

As you can see from the schedule, to fulfill the proposed goals and objectives, I recommend having several presentations or additional readings that address various knowledge objectives and experiential activities that target the outlined skills objectives. I also suggest using at least one major assignment with an intercultural emphasis, such as revisions and redesigns for multicultural readers applying Plain English or the principles of international visual design. The next section offers a more detailed discussion of intercultural teaching materials and their possible sources.

Teaching Materials and Explanations

As I discussed previously, when using the dialogic pedagogical perspective, instructors take the major responsibility in providing students with intercultural materials. I see the need to discuss possible themes, activities, and their sources in more detail.

Themes for Presentations, Additional Readings, and Classroom Discussions

Based on the theoretical grounds of the dialogic perspective discussed in Chapter

V, I suggest the list of the following themes for presentations, readings, and classroom discussions. See Table 7.2 for details:

Table 7.2: Suggested Themes for Presentations, Readings, and Discussions

Topics	Themes
Culture as a Process; Making of a culture; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ American culture as a culture of many cultures ▪ American culture of yesterday, today, and tomorrow ▪ I and my world of yesterday, today, and tomorrow ▪ I am a builder and interpreter of my world of yesterday, today, and tomorrow
Ethnocentrism; Stereotyping; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ Why we need "them" to understand "us" ▪ Are stereotypes about Americans stereotypes about me? ▪ My experiences and my culture versus other people's experiences and their cultures
Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication; Communication as a Dialogue and Negotiation	▪ World countries and languages ▪ Intercultural communication as a field ▪ Communicating with the Mexican or communicating with Luis-Fernando ▪ Oh, people! Or how we can not avoid miscommunications ▪ What is success in communication? Building communication theories that work
Written, oral and visual intercultural communication	▪ Localization and internationalization of documents ▪ Persuasion and contrastive rhetorical analysis ▪ The principles of Plain English ▪ The principles of intercultural visual communication

The list of themes puts an emphasis on exploring the American culture and only then looking at other cultures. The list of topics is not exhaustive and can be modified as long as it relies on the theoretical foundation of the dialogic pedagogical perspective articulated in Chapter V.

As sources for students and instructors, I suggest the following list that addresses specific themes:

Table 7.3: Suggested Topics and Themes and Their Possible Sources

Topics	Themes
Culture as a process; Making of a culture; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ *American culture as a culture of many cultures* ▪ *American culture of yesterday, today, and tomorrow* ▪ *I and my world of yesterday, today, and tomorrow* ▪ *I am a builder and interpreter of my world of yesterday, today , and tomorrow*
Sources of	
Definitions	▪ Any textbook on intercultural communication (See Ting-Toomey (1999); Chen and Starosta (1998); Beamer & Varner (2001)) ▪ Any encyclopedia
Facts/research	▪ U.S. Bureau of the Census ▪ Parrillo (2005)
Theoretical perspectives	▪ A simplified version of the concept of society and individuals as discussed by symbolic interactionists and T. Weiss (see Chapter V)
Ethnocentrism; Stereotyping; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ *Why we need "them" to understand "us"* ▪ *Are stereotypes about Americans stereotypes about me?* ▪ *My experiences and my culture versus other people's experiences and their cultures*
Sources of	
Definitions	▪ Any textbook on Intercultural Communication (See Ting-Toomey (1999); Chen and Starosta (1998))
Facts/research	▪ Any current articles on stereotyping, ethnocentrism, and misconceptions in the U.S. or around the globe (See PBS.org as one of the source of online articles)
Theoretical perspectives	▪ A simplified version of the concept of society and individuals as discussed by symbolic interactionists and T. Weiss (see Chapter V)
Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication; Communication as a Dialogue and Negotiation	▪ *World countries and languages* ▪ *Intercultural communication as a field* ▪ *Communicating with the Mexican or communicating with Luis-Fernando* ▪ *Oh, people! Or how we can not avoid miscommunications* ▪ *What is success in communication? Building communication theories that work*
Sources of	
Definitions	▪ Any textbook on Intercultural Communication (See Ting-Toomey (1999); Chen and Starosta (1998))
Facts/research	▪ CIA the World Factbook
Theoretical	▪ A simplified version of the three paralogic principles

perspectives	
Written, oral and visual intercultural communication	▪ *Localization and internationalization of documents* ▪ *Persuasion and contrastive rhetorical analysis* ▪ *The principles of Plain English* ▪ *The principles of intercultural visual communication*
Sources of	
Definitions and principles	*Localization and internationalization of documents* ▪ Sprung (2000) ▪ Maurais and Morris (2003) *Persuasion and contrastive rhetorical analysis* ▪ Basic rhetorical analysis of any text: style, organization, and content; rhetorical appeals. ▪ Houp et al. (2006) ("Implications for Communication" based on Hofstede's dimensions that can be used to address specific features of documents, but without labeling cultures; "Chapter 6: Writing for International Readers") *The principles of Plain English* ▪ Plain English: http://www.plainlanguage.gov/ *The principles of intercultural visual communication* ▪ Bosley (1996) ▪ Horton (1993)
Documents	▪ Google: "international symbols" ▪ Plain English: http://www.plainlanguage.gov/ ▪ Websites of foreign universities in English that can be found using online translators ▪ Textbooks that offer examples: • Markel (2003) (Chapter 5) • Houp et al. (2006) (Chapters 7, 9, and 12) ▪ Research articles that offer examples: • Steven's "Russian Teaching Contracts: An Examination of Cultural Influence and Genre" for contracts (38) • Sapienza's "Nurturing Translocal Communication: Russian Immigrants on the World Wide Web" for web design (435-448) • Qiuye's "A Cross-cultural Comparison of the Use of Graphics in Scientific and Technical Communication" for graphics (553) • Ding's "The Emergence of Technical Communication in China – *Yi Jing (I Ching)*: The Budding of a

	Tradition" for instructional manuals/instructions (319) • Tebeaux's "Designing Written Business Communication along the Shifting Cultural Continuum: The New Face of Mexico" for business letters (49)

When looking at the list of books and articles suggested for various themes, one has to remember the underlying principles of the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. Instructors have to take a "culture-unspecific" approach and avoid labeling cultures. The types of factual information that do not entail labeling include current demographic information and real documents that can be found online. At the same time, for example, Hofstede's dimensions, which belong to the information acquisition approach and do entail labeling, can be used as a heuristic for contrastive rhetorical analysis of given documents. Houp et al. offer discussion of these dimensions in their "Implications for Communication" in "Chapter 6: Writing for International Readers" (Houp et al. 103). The chapter does label cultures though; thus, I would suggest preparing a presentation or readings for students but excluding the parts with factoids. Instructors can give examples of possible similarities and differences in documents without labeling cultures. Another important point is to remember to support presentations and readings with activities that would create experiences for students and provide input for developing skills. The following sections describe possible classroom activities and also offer types of assessment in the course.

Classroom Activities and Assignments

The field of intercultural training offers a variety of tools for experiential

education. Some possible methods include role play, contrast culture, simulation games, critical incidents, culture assimilator, and case study (Fowler and Mumford xvi-xvii). I will briefly define each of them. The role play method is "a training activity where two participants (or more, though larger numbers are not common) take on characteristics of people other than themselves in order to attain a clearly defined objective" (McCaffery 19). The rest of the group are observers. The purpose of this method is to develop skills that involve "delegating, negotiating, managing conflict, giving and receiving feedback, and so on" (19).

The contrast culture method is based on identifying a student's own culture (called "a reference culture") and understanding how it works by using various dimensions. Then students have to compare the reference culture to other cultures (Stewart 48-49). Another method, simulation games, involves "operating imitations of a real process," or real-life situations (Sisk 81). Critical incidents refer to a method that involves examining given situations "in which there is a misunderstanding, problem, or conflict arising from cultural differences between interacting parties or where there is a problem of cross-cultural adaptation" (Wight 128). Culture assimilator is a method that presupposes exposing students "to a wide variety of situations in the target culture," focusing on differences and simulating various aspect of entering and experiencing the target culture (Albert 157). The case study method aims to examine a realistic situation and its problems and solutions. A case may include several critical incidents and role play.

The types of experiential activities may differ in many aspects and should be

selected based on their usefulness and appropriateness for specific teaching contexts. For example, culture assimilator as a method may not be as useful for a service technical writing course because the primary purpose of this method is to prepare trainees for living in other countries. A case study approach may be hard to implement as it requires more classroom time and preparation compared to critical incidents, which are smaller in scope. The contrast culture method, by re-emphasizing cultural dimension and differences, can be tricky to use without labeling cultures. Thus, for the purposes of a service technical writing course, I recommend small-scale, shorter activities and types, such as role play, simulation games, and critical incidents, which can be modified for specific classrooms.

Several books have offered experiential activities for intercultural training that can be adapted for a service technical writing course. Some of those sources include *Intercultural Sourcebook: Cross-Cultural Training Methodsby* by Fowler and Mumford (1995), *Teaching About Culture, Ethnicity, & Diversity* by Singelis (1998), and *Experiential Activities for Intercultural Learning* by Seelye (1996), just to name a few. The games should support the presentations, readings, and themes that have been outlined in the previous sections. In Table 7.4, I list possible experiential activities that can be used when addressing different themes.

Table 7.4: Suggested Topics and Themes and Possible Experiential Activities

Topics	Themes
Culture as a process; Making of a culture; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ *American culture as a culture of many cultures* ▪ *American culture of yesterday, today, and tomorrow* ▪ *I and my world of yesterday, today, and tomorrow* ▪ *I am a builder and interpreter of my world of yesterday, today , and tomorrow*

▪ L.Robert Kohls, "U.S. Proverbs and Core Values" (79) ▪ Carol Wolf, "Work Values Exercise" (145)	
Ethnocentrism; Stereotyping; Culture vs. Individuals	▪ *Why we need "them" to understand "us"* ▪ *Are stereotypes about Americans stereotypes about me?* ▪ *My experiences and my culture versus other people's experiences and their cultures*
▪ Jorge Cherbosque, "The Magic Box: Exploring Stereotypes" (71) ▪ Ann Hubbard, "Hopes and Fears" (117) ▪ Donald Klopf, "Word Meanings across Cultures" (65) ▪ Yoshiyuki Nakata, "Turn off the Stereo(type)" (in Fantini *New Ways in Teaching Culture* (206)	
Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication; Communication as a Dialogue and Negotiation	▪ *World countries and languages* ▪ *Intercultural communication as a field* ▪ *Communicating with the Mexican or communicating with Luis-Fernando* ▪ *Oh, people! Or how we can not avoid miscommunications* ▪ *What is success in communication? Building communication theories that work*
▪ Donald Batchelder, "The Emperor's Pot" (85) ▪ Donna L. Goldstein, "What Do They Bring?" (151) ▪ Jack Hulbert, "Overcoming Intercultural Communication Barriers" (41) ▪ Alvino Fantini, "Aba-Zak: A World View Exercise" (47) ▪ Garry Shirt, "Beyond Ethnocentrism: Promoting Cross-Cultural Understanding with *BaFa BaFa"* (93) ▪ Dianne Hofner Saphiere, "Ecotonos: A Multicultural Problem-Solving Simulation" (117) ▪ William Dant, "Using Critical Incidents as a Tool for Reflection" (141) ▪ Milton Bennett, "Critical Incidents in an Intercultural Conflict-Resolution Exercise" (147)	
Written, oral and visual intercultural communication	▪ *Localization and internationalization of documents* ▪ *Persuasion and contrastive rhetorical analysis* ▪ *The principles of Plain English* ▪ *The principles of intercultural visual communication*
▪ Individual and collaborative activities that would ask students to analyze documents using the principles of basic contrastive rhetorical analysis ▪ Individual and collaborative activities that would ask students to create documents in Plain English or convert documents to Plain English ▪ Individual and collaborative activities that would ask students to analyze visuals using the principles of intercultural visual communication or redesign visuals for multicultural readers *See previous section for possible sources of documents.	

The experiential activities that have been offered in this table can be adapted for

specific classes and contexts. As with materials for presentations, discussions, and readings, instructors have to be careful not to label cultures. As I discussed previously, some of the mentioned activities do label cultures; thus, instructors have to revise and adapt these experiential exercises to avoid labeling.

As major assignments that would target intercultural communication, I propose using analysis, designs, or redesigns of workplace correspondence and/or instructions. The course evolves around major technical writing genres, and it is reasonable to put an emphasis on multiculturalism in the discussion of one or two major genres. These assignments should target the outlined knowledge and skills objectives and give students opportunities to show what they have learned during experiential activities and exercises that should be introduced before the major assignments. The next section discusses how student learning can be assessed.

Assessment

The best test type that would suit the goals and objectives of intercultural teaching is a performance test, or evaluating students' specific performances based on a specific written outcome. Many researchers in the field of technical communication suggested using portfolio pedagogy for the evaluation of the service technical writing course (Coppola 249; Scott and Plumb 337). Reflection is an important part of portfolio pedagogy, as well as experiential learning. Reflective writing should be an integral part of activities and assignments although many of the experiential activities that were suggested in the previous sections offer given procedures as well as assessment tools,

which can be adapted by instructors. Written outcomes, such as short response papers with analysis, reflective memos, weekly journals, or written or edited documents, can target oral, written, and visual communication and should be included as a part of portfolios if portfolios are used in the course. For example, reflective memos can accompany redesigns of documents and serve as a basis for evaluating students' achievement and diagnosis.

In contrast to classroom activities that introduce students to different types of analysis, help them develop skills, or create experiences for students to explore, major assignments should be always based on the completion of, what Gorsuch calls, oral or written tasks (*Chapter V* … 4). Compared to activities (although some types of the discussed experiential activities are tasks), tasks are based on real world situations that call for specific outcomes, in the case of technical writing – written documents. When I teach technical writing, I always create a real life context for all major assignments that situates workplace genres/situations within certain environments, people, and purposes. In addition to specifying a situation, instructors should also describe the purpose of each assignment, materials, procedures, expected outcomes, and the criteria for evaluation of each task or assignment (Gorsuch *Performance* … 1; see also Brown *Testing* … 60).

Researchers in curriculum development suggest performing some type of content validation of assignments in order to determine if the assignment targets the skills and knowledge that it should target. For example, one may develop an assignment/task and then use the feedback of colleagues on the task (Gorsuch *The Process*…1). To determine whether the assignment was effective and useful for students, instructors can also ask

students to reflect on each assignment and see if the students had any difficulties in understanding it (Gorsuch *Reliability* … 1). Such a reflection can be a part of the course portfolio. It is also recommended that instructors come up with specific criteria and rating scales for each written assignment to provide students with consistent and comprehensive feedback.

In addition to performance tests/written outcomes, instructors can also use some criterion-referenced tests, i.e. quizzes and tests, that would target the knowledge of definitions offered in presentations and readings. Instructors can also offer students attitude tests and questionnaires proposed by several researchers in social psychology and intercultural communication. Some of the tests are offered in the following books:

- Appendix: Self-Report Assessment Applied to Intercultural Communication in *Dynamics of Intercultural Communication* (1995) by Carley Dodd;
- *Building Bridges: Interpersonal Skills for a Changing World* (1995) by Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, Sudweek, and Stewart;
- *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence* by Byram.

At the same time, instructors should remember that these tests are not for assessing students' achievement in class, but can be used to explore students' attitudes and behaviors, for example, as a part of needs and situation analysis for curriculum design.

Overall, the discussed elements of the intercultural sub-curriculum, suggested themes, activities and assignments, assessment techniques and their sources require instructors to do additional research and preparation. Such additional work can be alleviated if textbook writers add certain elements to textbooks or accommodate the

dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching. The next section discusses how textbook writers can accommodate the proposed sub-curriculum.

Recommendations for Textbook Writers

As I discussed in Chapter IV, the results of textbook analysis and the survey show that textbook writers face challenges when integrating intercultural materials in textbooks. It is a common practice to include factoids in discussions of the chapters and label cultures according to various dimensions. Sometimes, this factual information is taken out of specific contexts and is not supported by any reference to research articles from which such knowledge has originated.

To address the outlined goals and objectives, textbook writers should

1. reduce the number of factoids or statements that label cultures and that portray cultures as static, with definite characteristics;
2. include the discussion of
    a. culture as a process,
    b. intercultural communication as negotiation,
    c. society as a process and the roles of individuals in it, and
    d. stereotypes and ethnocentrism;

these concepts can be introduced through the previously suggested themes that target the American and other cultures and can be discussed in their relevancy to workplace communication, collaboration, persuasion, ethics, and audience analysis;

3. introduce

a. the principles of social interactions based on paralogic rhetoric or similar theories,
b. the principles of basic contrastive analysis of documents,
c. the definitions of localization and internationalization of documents,
d. the concept of Plain English, and
e. the principles of intercultural visual communication;

4. provide instructors with a variety of visual and verbal examples that can be used for analysis; and
5. provide instructors with a variety of experiential activities and exercises at the end of the chapters that would target the concept of culture, stereotypes, ethnocentrism, and other themes proposed in this chapter.

The most important aspect of revisions is to balance discussions, their demonstrations, and their practical applications. If the amount of information presented in textbooks do not allow for additional examples or discussions, textbook writers could publish them online or refer to specific web pages of real organizations and companies so that students could access them. This recommendation concerns all examples in chapters regardless of topic (proposals, reports, instructions, or letters).

For instructors, I would suggest utilizing the Internet as mush as possible if textbooks do not provide examples. None of the instructors reported that their students did not have the Internet access. What instructors could do is to look at the localized websites of some international companies or, using online translators such as

BabelFish.AltaVista.com or WorldLingo.com, explore some websites created by representatives of other cultures (for example, universities' websites or government websites).

To conclude, the proposed dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course offers an alternative way of teaching and presenting intercultural materials. It responds to the constantly changing reality, aims to develop in students the skills and knowledge for life-long learning, and promotes exploring and experiencing cultures. The outlined goals and objectives help develop the content and outcomes of intercultural teaching, may resolve instructors' confusion, and respond to various constraints revealed by the survey and discourse analysis. In the next chapter, I come to major conclusions of my research and talk about future research directions in intercultural technical writing pedagogy.

Conclusion

This chapter offered an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum with its philosophical foundation, needs and situation analysis, goals and objectives, themes, schedule, experiential activities and assignments, and assessment. I discussed the general process of curriculum development that is circular and fluid and offered various sources for organizing presentations, discussions, reading materials, experiential activities, and tests. At the end of the chapter, I provided recommendations for textbook writers on how the new curriculum can be introduced in current textbooks. The next chapter offers major conclusions of my dissertation and outlines possible future research venues.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

Summary of the Dissertation

The problems of teaching intercultural communication in a service technical writing course would seem to stem principally from instruction based on the information acquisition approach employed by many authors. This approach, which is predominant in textbooks and is discussed in current research articles, asks students to define and label cultures in order to develop successful communication strategies. Such an approach is reductionist, reinforces borders between people, and does not reflect the true complexity of communication. The alternative approach is the dialogic approach that accentuates the importance of understanding of culture and the way it comes into being. At the same time, in order to choose either approach, information acquisition or dialogic, I needed to investigate the instructional contexts of a service technical writing course to reveal possible constraints and problems that instructors might have with intercultural teaching.

The list of research questions that was formulated based on the overall goal of my inquiry was as follows:

1. What are current intercultural materials apparent in technical writing textbooks (those used for the service course) and what approaches do they support/respond to?
2. How can we characterize current perspectives and practices concerning goals and objectives, materials, approaches, tasks, and activities for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course?

3. What are problems and constraints with current practices of intercultural teaching in the observed environment? How can the goals and objectives be revised taking into consideration problems and constraints?
4. What heretofore unused theoretical frameworks can be used for successful intercultural teaching that will lead to the achievement of the revised goals and objectives?
5. How should we revise our textbooks to accommodate a new curricular paradigm?

I reflect on the first three of these questions now, and on the remaining two in the subsequent pages. These initial three questions were addressed by survey and discourse analysis. These methodologies were the most reasonable for the chosen research questions and my research focus. An online survey helped in reaching instructors in different universities, while discourse analysis, specifically, ground theory with contents analysis, was used to identify types of intercultural materials, their quality, quantity, and interconnectedness.

The analysis of fifteen textbooks published between 1993-2006 revealed dominant pedagogies in textbooks and served as a good starting point in the analysis of instructional contexts. Such an analysis showed what was available to instructors for teaching and what students might read and learn. The survey further problematized the complexity of intercultural teaching. Although the response rate for the survey was not high enough to generalize with confidence about the whole population, the results of the survey helped me identify major teaching constraints and propose a unified set of goals and objectives for intercultural teaching.

The problems with textbooks that were revealed through textbook analysis can be summarized in the following way:

1. Textbooks expand their discussions of multiculturalism by adding factual information about cultures and various typologies and dimensions that lead to or support labeling cultures.
2. The number of discussions, their demonstrations (artifacts), and the application (exercises and projects) are not consistent or balanced. There is a lack of a variety of examples of real documents, exercises, and projects that would promote the discussion of culture (specifically, the American culture), society, and individuals, which is important for understanding what culture is and how it comes into being.
3. The common types of exercises in textbooks ask students to search for information, which does not target communication skills or make students better communicators. Such skills can be developed by experiential activities, such as simulation games, role play, the examination of critical incidents, and real documents.

The survey revealed the following constraints and problems with intercultural teaching:

1. Instructors were not satisfied with their intercultural teaching because they lack intercultural training that would help in teaching.
2. Instructors were not satisfied with their intercultural teaching because of a lack of time. Likewise, many of them set goals and objectives for intercultural teaching that are indeed unattainable given the contents of the course. One such goal was cultural awareness, which in itself is not something learnable or assessable. Awareness comes

from experiences and is similar to the concept of acquisition as described by Stephen Krashen (See my discussion of his *Input Hypothesis* in Chapter V.). Another common objective that instructors set forth for their classes was for students to be able to write to representatives of other cultures. Such an objective is not specific enough: it does not specify what it means to write to other cultures, which can refer to different activities, for example, the localization or internationalization of documents. Overall, the survey revealed a lack of specificity in goals and objectives proposed by instructors.

3. The common methods of introducing intercultural materials in classes were discussions of intercultural issues or additional readings, which address primarily knowledge objectives. Discussions and readings do not address skills, which could be done by completing tasks. This problem is aggravated by the fact that many instructors did not have any formal assessment of student learning.
4. Instructors were not satisfied with the contents of current textbooks because the textbooks do not provide enough examples and cases.
5. Instructors do address intercultural communication in connection to audience analysis, visuals and visual design, persuasion, workplace communication, and instructions.

The result of the survey and discourse analysis helped me develop a realistic unified goals and objectives of intercultural teaching considering the identified teaching constraints and problems.

In order to answer my fourth research question about alternative ideas and

methods that have not been used in the course, I explored theories and methods offered by other disciplines that address theories of communication, learning, and teaching. The theoretical inquiry led to the formulation of the dialogic pedagogical perspective that should serve as a philosophical foundation of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. The perspective combines the ideas of pragmatism, symbolic interactionism, paralogic rhetoric, communicative teaching, experiential learning, and intercultural training methods.

In order to predict the effects of the alternative teaching compared to the information acquisition approach, I used a quasi-experimental study that juxtaposed the traditional and alternative ways by comparing the degree of stereotyping in students as determined by a developed measure. I used two treatment groups (labeling versus experiencing) and a control group. I hypothesized that students who had a lesson that asked them to experience cultures would exhibit a lesser degree of stereotyping about Americans compared to those who had an activity that asked them to label cultures using Hofstede's dimensions. The statistical analysis using repeated measures ANOVA did not find the results significant. However, the results do approach significance, and if a larger sample is used, they can be proven to be significant. The effect size $\eta_p^2 = .047$ suggests that the variance between groups can be to some extent attributed to the administered treatments. Thus, if a longer and larger-scale study is conducted, it would possibly determine that labeling cultures indeed may lead to a higher degree of stereotyping.

Finally, in addressing my fifth research question, I considered the need for an alternative to the information acquisition approach. Thus, I proposed using the dialogic

perspective and the suggested goals and objectives for the development of an alternative intercultural sub-curriculum that was outlined in Chapter VII. The proposed curriculum offers themes, activities, assignments, and types of assessment that can be adapted by instructors. The alternative curriculum can be also used by textbook writers as a guide for future textbook revisions. Specifically, I propose reducing the amount of factual information and including the discussions of the various themes that would address, for example, the concept of culture and the American culture. Textbooks also need more examples and exercises that would develop students' skills.

After conducting my research, I can respond with confidence to each proposed research question in the following way:

1. What are current intercultural materials apparent in technical writing textbooks (those used for the service course) and what approaches do they support/respond to?

Current intercultural materials in textbooks are limited and fragmented and should be better integrated by balancing discussions, their demonstrations, and their applications. Analyzed textbooks support the information acquisition approach, which is grounded in the positivist epistemology and ontology. Such an approach leads to the prevalence of factual information about other cultures or the labeling of cultures. Many exercises in textbooks ask students to research other cultures, i.e. collect information about "them," not to experience other cultures.

2. How can we characterize current perspectives and practices concerning goals and objectives, materials, approaches, tasks, and activities for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course?

I can characterize the current intercultural teaching as fragmented and unstructured. The results of my research show that there is no shared understanding of what we should teach and how much is enough. Although some of the goals and objectives proposed by instructors are similar, when examined, those goals and objectives are rather vague. Some propose objectives and goals cannot be achieved within just one semester. At the same time, there is some agreement on when and in connection to what technical writing topics intercultural issues can be discussed. Most instructors use discussions and additional readings for intercultural teaching, but these methods do not develop skills. Another problem with current methods is that many instructors do not have any formal assessment of knowledge and skills that students should develop.

3. What are problems and constraints with current practices of intercultural teaching in the observed environment? How can the goals and objectives be revised taking into consideration problems and constraints?

Instructors have problems and face many constraints when integrating intercultural materials in their classes. Such constraints include a lack of intercultural preparedness, time, clear goals and objectives, and understanding of what methods and materials to use. Based on the analysis of instructors' responses, constraints and suggestions, I developed a realistic set of specific goals and objectives for intercultural teaching that addressed those constraints:

> **Goal**: Students in American universities will develop *basic skills and knowledge* that would allow them to *negotiate ethically and efficiently across cultures using written, oral, and visual channels*.

Knowledge Objectives: Working individually, students taking a service technical writing course will learn and be able to explain basic definitions of the following concepts:

1. the concepts of culture, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism;
2. the concept of localization and internationalization of documents;
3. the concept of contrastive rhetorical analysis and its procedures;
4. the concept of Plain English; and
5. basic principles of international visual communication.

Students will be assessed using written quizzes, written responses, or written assignments submitted for evaluation.

Skills Objectives: Working individually and collaboratively in class, students taking a service technical writing course will

1. develop the basic skills of negotiation in multicultural workplace settings through understanding the nature of social interactions and applying the principles of humanistic communication;
2. develop the basic skills of contrastive rhetorical analysis of verbal and visual artifacts;
3. develop the basic skills of revision of written artifacts using Plain English (at the basis of the internationalization of documents) that can be suitable for both local and international audiences; and

4. develop the basic skills of revision of visual artifacts using a set of guidelines for intercultural visual communication offered in the current scholarship on visual communication.

Students will be assessed based on written assignments submitted for evaluation. Such goals and objectives target specific knowledge of concepts and specific skills of analysis and application of various principles.

4. What heretofore unused theoretical frameworks can be used for successful intercultural teaching that will lead to the achievement of the revised goals and objectives?

Because the prevalent way of intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course is the information acquisition approach that was criticized by many, I conducted an additional theoretical inquiry into other disciplines to find alternative theories and methods that support the constructivist understanding of the nature of reality and communication. The disciplines included philosophy (pragmatism), sociology (symbolic interactionism), rhetoric (paralogic hermeneutics), applied linguistics (communicative teaching), communication studies (intercultural training and experiential learning), and also theories in technical communication (T.Weiss's dialogic approach). Each discipline contributes by addressing various aspects of teaching (content and methods), and only in their combination do they create a coherent foundation for an alternative curriculum. I united them in one perspective: the dialogic pedagogical perspective for intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course. The perspective calls for a new alternative intercultural sub-curriculum described in Chapter VII with its themes for readings,

discussions, presentations, experiential activities, and cultural artifacts that could be adapted by instructors.

5. How should we revise our textbooks to accommodate a new curricular paradigm?

Based on the proposed alternative intercultural sub-curriculum, in my dissertation, I made recommendations to textbook writers that addressed different teaching elements, such as the types of discussions, their demonstrations, and their applications. Instead of including factoids, textbooks should discuss culture and the American culture, stereotyping and ethnocentrism, the principles of basic contrastive analysis of text, the basic definitions of the localization and internationalization of documents, the principles of Plain English, and intercultural visual communication. To satisfy the new curriculum, textbook writers should also include more examples of real documents and offer experiential activities that would target skills of visual, written, and oral intercultural communication.

Implications for Further Intercultural Research and Pedagogy

The study of the intercultural component in technical writing has revealed several underlying problems in our pedagogy that target not only intercultural communication, but the course as a whole. One of these problems is what goals and objective we set for teaching and how we go about reaching them. The instructors who responded to the survey not only had problems with intercultural preparedness, but they also did not have a strong understanding of the process of curriculum development. As I mentioned previously, some instructors contacted me afterwards and said that the survey made them

think about what and how they teach. This lack of preparation should be addressed by the departments through courses in curriculum development that would introduce instructors to the steps of curriculum design.

Another problem that was revealed by my research is underlying paradigms that operate in technical writing. Textbooks support positivist intercultural teaching, although most of the instructors identified themselves as social-constructivists. The lack of examples and experiential activities and exercises leads to prescriptive teaching that does not promote exploration and addresses only knowledge objectives. It does teach students *about* communication, but it does not teach them *how to* communicate. The balance of both is needed to better prepare students for unstable, changing, and unpredictable nature of communication.

Overall, this study is an instance when one component, the intercultural component, reveals a bigger problem with the overall system – the course – that relies so much on prescriptive, information acquisition, positivist approaches. In this respect, the fields of organizational and intercultural training can help. Training targets communication skills and offers a variety of practical experiential activities that can be adapted not only for intercultural communication, but also for major technical writing topics. Some disciplines have already adopted similar ways of teaching, such as communicative teaching in applied linguistics. Technical writing should follow similar steps and adapt and integrate some of the experiential activities that are offered by other fields. Input is important, which means that real life documents, simulations, role play, and the skills of analysis of the input are important. If instructors use more experiential

activities, our students will be better prepared for any encounters.

For future research directions, I propose examining the following areas:

1. The new developed intercultural sub-curriculum and its effectiveness as a whole. We need to test the curriculum and collect data and feedback for future revisions. In this dissertation, I gave an example of how such future research can be conducted using a quasi-experimental study, but on a much larger scale.
2. The study of various methods of teaching and the degree of stereotyping and ethnocentrism in students. We need to explore how different ways of teaching affect students' attitudes and behaviors. Such studies will help us avoid methods that are not effective in teaching certain concepts and can produce a reverse effect on students' attitudes.
3. The study of various methods of teaching and the usefulness of those for young professionals entering various workplaces. We must explore how well different methods of teaching can respond to students' needs when they enter various workplaces. Such needs analysis is essential for program and course evaluation.
4. The dialogic pedagogical perspective and technical writing. We should explore how the perspective can change the course as a whole and how it can be integrated within the existing frameworks.

These and other directions can be explored in the future. They can revolutionize and change the face of technical writing and introduce new changes that would promote life-long learning, open-mindedness, and ethics by establishing the value of experiencing communication first-hand and building communication theories that work.

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APPENDIX A: LIST OF ANALYZED TEXTBOOKS

1993-1995 (5)

Anderson, Paul. *Technical Writing: A Reader-Centered Approach*. 3rd ed. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, 1995.

Boiarsky, *Technical Writing: Contexts, Audiences, and Communities*, Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1993.

Bosley, Deborah, and Edward Collins. *Technical Communication at Work*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace & Company, 1995.

Burnett, Rebecca. *Technical Communication*. 3rd ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1994.

Lannon, John. *Technical Writing*. 6th ed. Dartmouth, MA: Harper Collins College Publishers, 1994.

1996-1999 (5)

Burnett, Rebecca. *Technical Communication*. 4th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1997.

Killingsworth, Jimmie. *Information in Action: A Guide to a Technical Communication*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1996.

Markel, Mike. *Technical Communication*. 5th ed. Boston: St. Martin's, 1998.

Sims, Brenda. *Technical Communication for Readers and Writers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1998.

Woolever, Kristin. *Writing for the Technical Professions*. New York: Longman, 1999.

2000-2006 (5)

Anderson, Paul. *Technical Communication: A Reader-Centered Approach.* 5th ed. Boston: Heinle and Thomson, 2003.

Houp, Kenneth, Thomas Pearsall, Elizabeth Tebeaux, and Sam Dragga. *Reporting Technical Information.* 11th ed. New York: Oxford UP, 2006.

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APPENDIX B: RESULTS OF THE TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Textbooks	**Theoretical discussions, i.e. information and guidelines, on interculturalism based on intercultural research (in the number of pages and location)**	**Cultural artifacts: examples of real documents and visuals (in the number of instances and location)**	**Intercultural materials present in checklists and reviews for the chapters**	**Exercises/projects (in the number of instances and location)**
		1993-1995		
Anderson, Paul. *Technical Writing: A Reader-Centered Approach*. 3rd ed. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, 1995.	CH1. WRITING, YOUR CAREER AND THIS BOOK (short paragraph with special icon) 1/8 CH2. OVERVIEW OF THE READER-CENTERED WRITING PROCESS Writing for employment in other countries 1/3 CH3. DEFINING YOUR OBJECTIVES A note on readers from other cultures 2/5 CH5. PLANNING YOU PERSUASIVE STRATEGIES Persuading International readers ½ CH7. DRAFTING PARAGRAPHS,	CH7 A page from a Chinese book - example of a good map for the reader CH8 A beginning from a Japanese letter (the season of cherry blossom (from Haneda and Shima 1983)) CH17. INSTRUCTIONS An example of an international hazard icon CH18 The structure of a report in China		APPENDIX C PROJECTS AND CASES Case: International issue report. Choose an intercultural or international issue that affects your employees; analyze the issue and discuss its impact on your employees' business.

	SECTIONS, AND CHAPTERS Organizing for international readers (research findings; different writing patterns) 3/5 CH8. BEGINNING A COMMUNICATI ON Beginning a communication addressed to international readers (Japanese letter: the season of cherry blossom (from Haneda and Shima 1983) 1/3 CH10. CREATING AN EFFECTIVE STYLE How to identify words your readers won't know 1/4 CH11. USING VISUAL AIDS Select color with appropriate associations 1/10 When writing to an international audience, check your visual aids with person from other nations ½ CH 13. EVALUATING DRAFTS Focus on			

	collaboration: Collaborating internationally: using Bosley's "Cross-cultural collaboration:…." (1993) 4/5 CH18. PREPARING AND DEVELOPING ORAL PRESENTATIONS Make the structure evident 1/4 Use a conversational style: Pick words your listeners will immediately understand 1/8 *CH19. DESIGNING AND USING VISUAL AIDS FOR ORAL PRESENTATIONS* Test your visual aids – and rehearse with them 1/8 Give your listeners something to take away 1/6 APPENDIX A. FORMATS FOR LETTERS, MEMOS, AND BOOKS Choosing the best format for your communications			

	1/7			
Totals	Approx. 4.5	4	0	1
Boiarsky, Carolyn. *Technical Writing: Contexts, Audiences, and Communities*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1993.	CH4. READERS' CHARACTERISTICS Personal/Social Characteristics (factoids; an example of a form of a Japanese letter ("The season of cherry blossoms …" from Hamedo and Shima) 3 and 1/4 CH12. GRAPHICS Illustrations 1/5 CH16. INSTRUCTIONS, PROCEDURES AND DOCUMENTATION Graphics 1/10	CH4 A beginning of a Japanese letter ("The season of cherry blossoms …" from Hamedo and Shima) CH12 A universal sign (no smoking); CH 16 A universal safety symbol (Caution) A universal safety symbol (Beware of exhaust/toxic fumes) A universal safety symbol (Beware of unsafe lighting)	CH16 In Strategy checklist	CH4 Collaborative project: Determining convention of different cultures. Write to an embassy of a foreign, non-European country and request a copy of a business letter; study it and compare it to the conventions of the U.S. letters. CH5. PURPOSE AND SITUATION Individual projects: An engineer from China wants to learn about your business; write two different letters, address to the Chinese businessman, with different purposes and compare these. .
Totals	Approx. 3.5	5	1	2
Burnett, Rebecca. *Technical Communication*. 3rd ed. Belmont, CA: Wardsworth Publishing Company, 1994.	CH5. COLLABORATION IN WORKPLACE COMMUNICATION Cultural differences and expectations 1 and 1/3 CH12. DEFINITIONS Intertext: Nancy Caswell Coward,		CH5. In End-of-chapter review: Recommendations for technical Communication	CH16. INSTRUCTIONS Discussion questions: Examine instructions for foreign-made products written in stilted, nonidiomatic English. What are your reactions and, if you export a product, how would you avoid

	"Cross-cultural communication: Is it Greek to You?" (TC 39 May 1992) 3 and 2/3 *CH14. PROCESS EXPLANATIONS Examining a sample process explanation (a case of international collaboration) CH20. ORAL PRESENTATIONS International audiences (factoids) 2/5			such a problem in translation?
Totals	Approx. 5.5	0	1	1
Collins, Edward, and Deborah Bosley. *Technical Communication at Work*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, 1995.	CH1. THE THEORY, ETHICS, AND SCOPE OF TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION Relativism and ethics in technical communication ¼ CH3. TEAM WRITING TECHNIQUES Cross-cultural communication (some discussion on culture; Edward Hall's *Beyond Culture:* high-context and low-context; factoids) 3 CH6. GRAPHIC DESIGN			THE CASEBOOK Case study: An American company is working with a South American parent company; write a report in a letter format addressed to the president of South American Enterprises (Chile).

	General guidelines for effective visuals: Use symbols or pictures that have no racial or gender bias 1/5			
Totals	Approx. 3.5	0	0	1
Lannon, John. *Technical Writing*. 6th ed. New York, NY: Harper, 1994.	CH6. SOLVING THE ADAPTATION PROBLEM Computers diversify our audiences (a definition of culture, expectations differ about content, organization, style, format, correctness, legal standards; questions for analyzing multicultural audiences, adapted from Beamer and Martin & Chaney; factoids; a checklist for intercultural documents) 6 and 2/3 CH14. DESIGNING VISUALS Purpose of Visuals (visuals as "universal language") 1/12 CH15. DESIGNING EFFECTIVE FORMATS A footnote: "Learn all you can about the design conventions of the			CH6 Collaborative project: Your company is working with other countries on a variety of environmental projects; select a country and research a culture's behavior, attitudes, values, and social system, their expectations and preferences; prepare a recommendation report in a memo form for your co-workers.

	culture you are addressing" 1/12			
Totals	Approx. 7	0	0	1
Overall results for 5 books	R=7-3.5 Mean=4.8 Accumulative: Approx. 24	R=5-0 Mean=1.8 Accumulative: 9	R=1-0 Mean=0.4 Accumulative: 2	R=2-1 Mean=1.2 Accumulative: 6
1996-1999				
Burnett, Rebecca. *Technical Communication*. 4th Ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1997.	CH5. COLLABORATION IN WORKPLACE COMMUNICATION Cultural differences and expectations 1 and 1/3 CH9. USING VISUAL FORMS Conventions in use of color (problems) 1/8 CH12. TECHNICAL DESCRIPTIONS Intertext: Nancy Caswell Coward, "Cross-cultural communication: Is it Greek to You?" (TC 39 May 1992) 3 and 2/3 CH14. INSTRUCTIONS Considering International Audiences (universal suggestions) 1 CH18. ORAL PRESENTATIONS Characteristics of audiences	CH14 Excerpt from effective Japanese manual	CH5 In End-of-chapter review: included in Recommendations for technical Communication CH14 In End-of-chapter review: included in Recommendations for technical Communication	CH14 Discussion questions: Examine instructions for foreign-made products written in stilted, nonidiomatic English. What are your reactions and, if you export a product, how would you avoid such a problem in translation?

	(International audiences) 1/5			
Totals	Approx. 6.5	1	2	1
Killingsworth, Jimmie. *Information in Action: A Guide to A Technical Communication*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1996.	CH7. EDITING AND POLISHING Discriminatory or ethnically insensitive comments, cultural overgeneralization 1/12	CH8. TECHNICAL REPORTS A photograph (Japan Railways Group)		
Totals	Approx. 0.08	1	0	0
Markel, Mike. *Technical Communication*. 5th ed. Boston: St. Martin's, 1998.	CH3. WRITING COLLABORATIVELY Multiculturalism and collaboration (factoids, research form articles; Edward Hall' works recommended) 1 CH5. ANALYZING YOUR AUDIENCE Understanding multiculturalism (cultural patterns, variables, beliefs, language use, internationalization and localization of documents, legal systems, business customs, translation; factors to consider; an interview with a translator) 6 and 2/3 CH12. INTEGRATING GRAPHICS *Creating graphics*		CH5 In Writer's checklist	CH3 **Web ex.**: Your college or university wishes to update its website to include a section called "For Prospective International Students"; in a memo to your instructor, provide recommendations for the existing website or create sections for a new one. CH5 Ex.: Interview a student from another culture. Ex.: Revise a passage for multicultural readers. Collaborative Ex.: It is a student-exchange program. Research one country and write a guide for other students about that country;

	for international readers 2 (accum.) CH14. REVISING FOR SENTENCE EFFECTIVENES S Understanding simplified English for Nonnative speakers 2/3 CH16. WRITING MEMOS AND INFORMAL REPORTS (one sentence) CH20. WRITING INSTRUCTIONS AND MANUALS Writing instructions and manuals for nonnative speakers of English (simplified English) 1 *APPENDIX B Guidelines for speakers of English as a second language (grammar) 9 and ½			use resources. CH12 Ex.: Find out in the admissions department at your university the number of students enrolled from different countries. Present the info as a map, a table, a bar graph, or a pie chart. Ex.: Create graphics for a set of instructions on how to use an automated teller machine. Your readers are nonnative speakers of English who are unfamiliar with automated speaker machines. Write one or two-sentence explanations for each graphic. **Web ex.:** 9. Locate a graphic on the web that you consider inappropriate for an international audience because it might be offensive or unclear in some cultures. Imagine an audience for the graphic, such as people from the Middle East, and write a brief statement explaining the

				potential problem. Finally, revise the graphic so that it would be appropriate for its intended audience. CH14 **Web ex.:** Write a memo comparing and contrasting writing styles of three websites (one of the factors for the exercise is the issue of comprehension by nonnative speakers).
Totals	Approx. 11.5	0	1	8
Sims, Brenda. *Technical Communication for Readers and Writers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1998.	CH9. USING READER-ORIENTED LANGUAGE Issue in context: Localizing documents for international readers (localization) 3/4 A special Note: Language and international readers (what to avoid, artificial languages, factoids) 2 and 3/4 CH10. DESIGNING DOCUMENTS FOR YOUR READERS Colors (various meanings) 1/5 CH11. CREATING EFFECTIVE		CH11 In Worksheet for creating and using effective visual aids	CH9 Ex.: Correct sentences keeping in mind international readers.

	VISUAL AIDS FOR YOUR READERS Consider whether International readers will use the visual aids 1/3 Integrate visual aids into the text. Issue in context: The International Language of Graphics (Bosley and Horton) 1 CH16. PLANNING AND WRITING USER-ORIENTED INSTRUCTIONS AND MANUALS Safety Alerts: Graphics are important for international readers 1/15 APPENDIX C. REVIEW OF COMMON SENTENCE ERRORS, PUNCTUATION, AND MECHANICS Conventional punctuation with quotation marks 1/15			
Totals	Approx. 5	0	1	1
Woolever, Kristin. *Writing for the Technical Professions*. New York: Longman, 1999.	CH1. PLANNING Tips for international communication (Hoft's seven variables; user analysis grid) 3 and 2/3	CH7 An example of a Japanese address CH13 The length of English and German words	CH1 In Quick review CH3 In Quick review CH4 In Quick review	CH1 Ex.: Target a particular culture and complete a user analysis grid. CH3 Individual or collaborative

	CH2. RESEARCHING Tips for international communication (references to websites and number of users) 1/2 CH3. ORGANIZING FOR READERS Tips for international communication (Hall's high-context and low-context cultures; cultural schemata) 2 and 2/3 CH4. EDITING FOR STYLE Tips for international communication (International Style Guidelines, simplified English) 1 and 2/3 CH5. DESIGNING THE DOCUMENT Tips for international communication (color, icons, different modes of visual perception) 1 CH6. WRITING ONLINE Tips for international communication (strategies for avoiding miscommunicatio		CH8 In Quick review CH10 In Quick review CH15 In Quick review CH16 In Quick review	exercise: Find a document in English from a different culture; analyze its organization, compare it to how you organize your own documents. CH4 Individual exercises: Edit a document and find the words and phrases that people from other cultures may not understand. CH5 Individual exercise: Think about colors and icons associated with certain products and companies. Do they change colors and icons for other cultures? Will the visuals/colors have the same association for other cultures? CH16 Individual or collaborative ex.: Look at a national or international problem and ethics; relate the issue to what was discussed in the chapter.

	n; listserv groups about international communication) 1 and 1/5 CH7. MEMOS, LETTERS, AND ELECTRONIC MAIL Tips for international communication (Hofstede's power distance; Beamer and Varner; guidelines for international correspondence) 1 page and 1/3 CH8. DESCRIBING AND SUMMARIZING TECHNICAL INFORMATION Tips for international communication (factoids) ½ CH9. ABSTRACTS AND EXECUTING SUMMARIES Tips for international communication (translation issues) 1/5 CH10. INSTRUCTIONS AND PROCEDURES Tips for international communication (pictures, icons, reading patterns, simplified			

	English) 3/4 CH11. PROPOSALS Tips for international communication (high and low-context cultures) 3/8 CH12. REPORTS AND STUDIES Tips for international communication (high and low-context cultures, directness; person comes first, then culture) 1 CH13. ONLINE APPLICATIONS Tips for international communication (editing considerations, words and their length in different languages) ½ CH14. PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS Tips for international communication (formality, pacing, audience behavior) 6/7 CH15. COLLABORATING ON WRITING PROJECTS			

	Tips for international communication (high and low-context cultures, group collaboration; Behavior, rationale, and implications of International students in group work, from Deborah Bosley's "Cross-cultural Collaboration: Whose culture is it, anyway TCQ, 1993) 1 CH16. CONSIDERING ETHICAL ISSUES International business ethics (codes) Quick overview 1/2 *CH19. HANDLING DIFFICULT GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION ISSUES ***ESL considerations*** 2 and 2/3			
Totals	Approx. 18	2	7	5
Overall results for 5 books	R=18-0.08 Mean=8.2 Accumulative: Approx. 41	R=2-0 Mean=0.8 Accumulative: 4	R=7-0 Mean=2.2 Accumulative: 11	R=8-0 Mean=3 Accumulative: 15
2000-2006				
Anderson, Paul V. *Technical Communication: A Reader-*	CH1. WRITING, YOUR CAREER AND THIS BOOK	CH7 A page printed in Japanese		Ch10 Ex.: Find an advertisement with stereotypes

Centered Approach. 5th ed. Boston: Heinle and Thomson, 2003.	(short paragraph with special icon) Addresses international and multicultural audiences 1/5 CH2. OVERVIEW OF THE READER-CENTERED WRITING PROCESS Writing for employment in other countries 1/3 CH3. DEFINING YOUR COMMUNICATION'S OBJECTIVES Identify your readers' important characteristics: Cultural background ½ CH5. PLANNING YOU PERSUASIVE STRATEGIES Adapt your persuasive strategies to your readers' cultural background (factoids from research; real companies' practices) 1/2 CH7. DRAFTING PARAGRAPHS, SECTIONS, AND CHAPTERS Consider Your Readers' Cultural Background (research findings;	CH8 *A beginning of a Japanese letter: the season of cherry blossom (from Haneda and Shima 1983)* CH17 The structure of a presentation in China CH22. INSTRUCTIONS An example of an international hazard icon		and evaluate it.

	different writing patterns) 3/5 CH8. BEGINNING A COMMUNICATION *Adapt your beginning to your readers' cultural background (Japanese letter: the season of cherry blossom (from Haneda and Shima 1983)* 1/3 CH10. DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE STYLE Ethics Guideline: Avoid Stereotypes 1 How to identify words your readers won't know 1/4 CH11. CREATING READER-CENTERED GRAPHICS Select color with appropriate associations 1/10 Before Addressing an international Audience, check your graphics with the people from other nations 1/2 CH16. COMMUNICATING			

	ELECTRONICALLY: EMAIL AND WEB SITES Design your site for international and multicultural readers (reference to the website, text images, page design) 3/5 CH17. CREATING AND DELIVERING ORAL PRESENTATIONS Use a simple structure ¼ Use a conversational style: choose words your listeners will understand immediately 1/8 Test your graphics 1/8 Give your listeners something to take away 1/6 CH18. CREATING COMMUNICATIONS WITH A TEAM *Be sensitive to possible cultural and gender differences in team interactions.* (Bosley's differences: expressing disagreement,			

	making suggestions, requesting clarification, debating ideas) 1 and 1/3			
Totals	Approx. 7	4	0	1
Houp, Kenneth, Thomas Pearsall, Elizabeth Tebeaux, and Sam Dragga. *Reporting Technical Information*. 11rd Ed. New York, Oxford: Oxford UP, 2006.	CH1. AN OVERVIEW OF TECHNICAL WRITING (International readers and customers, different perspective; dealing with them) 1/5 CH3. WRITING FOR YOUR READERS International readers (Americans like direct and concise letters …) 1/3 **CH6. WRITING FOR INTERNATIONAL READERS** (Hofstede, Hall, Trompenaars, Hoecklin; examples) **20 pages** CH8. DESIGNING AND FORMATTING DOCUMENTS In Creating a Site: Be sensitive to cultural differences 1/9 CH11. CREATING TABLES AND	CH7 US business letter Pakistani letter Mexican business letter A request to a Japanese engineer Internationally recognized graphics Format example from Qatar CH9. CREATING AND MANAGING TEXT A passage from the website from the United Kingdom CH11 International variations in automobile license plates CH12 A letter using an indirect style for Chinese audiences	CH12 In Planning and revising checklist CH19 In Planning and revising checklist	Ch7 Ex.: Write a report on different countries and their marketing strategies (using a list of sample books); write a report. Ex.: The exercise is focused on important aspects of individual countries. "Choose two or three books in this series. Books are available on over 100 different countries. Write a report comparing and contrasting these countries in major categories of your choice" (using a list of sample books). Collaborative project: Prepare a written report on the challenges associated with doing business in a specific country. Focus your report on issues such as the following: management styles, corporate culture, negotiation style, social values, etc. Each person works on a

	FIGURES Consider your audience when creating graphics 1/5 CH12. PLANNING CORRESPONDENCE AND EMAIL Direct versus indirect style 1/7 Special considerations for international correspondence (a set of recommendation) 1 CH18. WRITING COLLABORATIVELY The distributed collaborative work group 1/5 CH19. PREPARING ORAL REPORTS: THE BASICS Consider you audience 1/6 Choosing an appropriate speaking style (their fluency in English, avoid idioms, etc.) 1/7 Speaking to Multicultural Audiences (research in advance)			specific issue. At the end of the research, discuss each segment. Write a summary of the findings (a list of possible sources). CH11. USING ILLUSTRATIONS Ex.: After your sales presentation, Elizondo asks you to write a report for a group of prospective investors from Australia. Design the illustrations that you will include in your written report. CH12 Ex.: Compose a letter for the following situation: copyright violations by a Chinese professor. CH17. FORMULATING INSTRUCTIONS, PROCEDURES, AND POLICIES Project: Your company manufacturing cereals expands its business overseas to China. Compose instructions with visuals. Use Chapter 6. CH19 Ex.: Modify situation 3 by

	1/3 CH20. UNDERSTANDING THE STRATEGIES AND COMMUNICATIONS OF THE JOB SEARCH Adding you resume to the International database 1/13			selecting another country: Situation 3. You are a study abroad student and need to prepare a presentation for students from Buenos Aires who are interested in applying for a graduate school at your university. Plan a presentation for them to interest them in your university. CH20 Ex.: Prepare a letter of application to an employer in a country in Latin America or Asia.
Totals	Approx. 23	9	2	8
Lannon, John M. *Technical Communication.* 10th ed. New York: Longman, 2006.	CH1. INTRODUCTION TO TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION *Communication Reaches a Global Audience* (For more on global communication, visit www; stereotypes about Americans as they perceived by other cultures) 1 CH2. PREPARING AN EFFECTIVE TECHNICAL DOCUMENT Consider This: Workplace Settings are Increasingly		CH15 In Checklist for Usability of Page design CH16 In Checklist for Usability CH19 In Checklist for Usability of websites	CH2 Ex.: Use **a search engine** to locate a website that describes some form of multinational collaboration to address an environmental threat. Write a memo with a summary of how different cultures work together. CH3 Ex.: The U.S. INS **web site**, at www.ins.gov, is designed for a truly global audience. Answer a number of questions on its usability.

	"Virtual" (a company can have branches across the world) 1/12 CH3. DELIVERING THE ESSENTIAL INFORMATION *Develop an Audience and Use Profile* Audience's Cultural Background (factoids: Germans prefer …, Japanese prefer …; taken from research articles: Hein, Leki, Martine and Chaney, etc.) 1/3 CH4. MAKING A PERSUASIVE CASE In Consider This: People Often React Emotionally to Persuasive appeals: Cross-cultural differences (factoids; Citibank employees in four countries, by Morris et al.) ¼ Consider the Cultural Context (research from articles; questions for analyzing cultural differences (adapted from many researchers) p. 57) 1 and 1/2			Ex.: Disasters in the US and other countries (Taiwan and India): **Search the web** for details and prepare a one page memo to summarize the role of miscommunications in causing the disaster. CH4 Ex.: Use questions on page 57 as a basis for interviewing a student from another country. Collaborative project: Your company is working with other countries on a variety of environmental projects; select a country and research a culture's behavior, attitudes, values, and social system, their expectations and preferences; prepare a recommendation report in a memo form for your co-workers (**web resources**). Service-learning project: Subcultures within the U.S.: Write a letter inviting neighborhood residents to an open house at a Latino community center in a

	Checklist for cross-cultural documents (adapted from many) 1/3 CH5. WEIGHING THE ETHICAL ISSUES Understanding the Potential for Communication Abuse *Exploring Cultural Differences (research from articles)* ½ CH6. WORKING IN TEAMS In Examples of Successful Collaboration: American and Russian astronauts lived together (International space station) 1/8 Sources of conflict in Collaborative groups *Cultural codes and communication style* (Note: negative views of women in the workplace) 1/2 CH8. EXPLORING ELECTRONIC AND HARD COPY SOURCES In Consider this: FAQ about			predominantly Hispanic neighborhood. CH6 Ex.: **On the web**, examine the role of global collaboration in building the International Space Station. CH7 Assume that as a communications director for an international company, you need to enhance employees' training. Review **the following sites**, provide a brief description of each, rank the depth of information; recommend to the employees which site to visit. CH10 Ex.: Assume that you are an assistant communications manager for a new organization that prepares research reports for decision makers worldwide. Write a memo about major procedural and reasoning errors that affect validity and reliability of the research process. CH19 Individual or

	Copyright of hard copy information (no international copyright protection, www for more info: World Intellectual Property Organization) 1/4 CH9. EXPLORING PRIMARY SOURCES Guidelines for informative interviews 1/8 CH10. EVALUATING AND INTERPRETING INFORMATION In Consider This: Standards of proof vary for different audiences and cultural settings (persuasion in Africa, Arab countries, etc (factoids)) 1/8 CH12. ORGANIZING FOR USERS Outlining *Organizing for Cross-cultural audiences* (Learn more about cross-cultural awareness www) 1/3 CH13. EDITING FOR READABLE STYLE *Note: forceful style*			collaborative project: **Locate web sites** that originate from three different areas of the globe. In addition to different languages, what other differences seem to stand out in terms of a given site's content, arrangement, design, and special effects? Ch22 Ex.: Assume that colleagues or classmates will be serving six months as volunteers in agriculture, education, or a similar capacity in a developing country. Research and create a set of procedures that will prepare users for avoiding diseases and dealing with medical issues in that specific country. Create a set of instructions.

	Avoid Offensive Usage of All types 1/4 *In Guidelines for Inoffensive Usage: avoid judgment 1/4* *Considering the cultural context* 2/3 CH14. DESIGNING VISUAL INFORMATION Working in teams around the world – complex information 1/8 In How Visuals Work: (visuals=universal language), metric system 1 Purpose of Visuals (visuals as "universal language") 1/12 Note: certain visual displays can be inappropriate in certain cultures 1/10 Note: "Colors have different meanings in different cultures" 1/6 CH15. DESIGNING PAGES AND DOCUMENTS "Font preferences			

	are culturally” 1/10 *Audience considerations in page design (right to left, left to right)* 1/8 In Guidelines for testing a document’s usability: ethical, legal and cultural considerations 1/11 CH18. LETTERS AND EMPLOYMENT Correspondence Greetings in different cultures 1/7 CH19. WEB PAGES AND OTHER ELECTRONIC DOCUMENTS Consider this: Web site needs and expectations differ across cultures 3/4 CH22. INSTRUCTIONS AND PROCEDURES Note: Direct imperative may be offensive in other cultures. 1/8 CH26. ORAL PRESENTATIONS Delivering your presentation			

	In brief: Oral Presentations for cross-cultural audiences 1/2			
Totals	Approx. 10	0	3	11
Markel, Mike. *Technical Communication*. 7th ed. Boston: St. Martin's, 2003.	CH1. INTRODUCTION TO TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION Strategies for intercultural communication (a list of books to consult, no specifics) ¼ CH2. UNDERSTANDING ETHICAL AND LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS Strategies for intercultural communication (Communicating Ethically Across Cultures) ½ CH3. UNDERSTANDING THE WRITING PROCESS Strategies for intercultural communication (Having your draft reviewed by a person from the target culture) 1/3 CH4. WRITING COLLABORATIVELY Strategies for intercultural communication	CH5 A passage in English (Japan) A passage in English (India) A passage in English (Finland) U.S. letter A letter for a customer in Japan	CH5 In Revision checklist CH6 In Revision checklist CH11 In Revision checklist CH13 In Revision checklist CH21 In Revision checklist	CH2 Case: A woman is a founder of a company that deals with an oil company in Saudi Arabia. She wants to conceal her role in founding the company and the ethnic last name of a principal investigator. Is it ethical? Write a memo to your instructor. CH4 Ex.: Your college or university wishes to update its **web site** to include a section called "For Prospective International Students"; in a memo to your instructor, provide recommendations for the existing website or create sections for a new one. CH5 Ex. Revise a passage for multicultural audiences. Case: Write a letter with an apology to a customer from the People's Republic of China.

	(Collaborating across cultures) 1/2 CH5. ANALYZING YOUR AUDIENCE AND PURPOSE Who is your reader 1/8 Communicating Across Cultures (cultural variables, Nancy L. Hoft ("International Technical Communication (1995)); Table 5.1 based on Tebeaux and Driskill (1999) – 6 key variables: Focus on individuals or groups, distance between business life and private life, distance between ranks, nature of truth, needs to spell out details, attitudes toward) 6 and 1/2 Strategies for intercultural communication 2/3 CH6. COMMUNICATING PERSUASIVELY Strategies for intercultural communication (Persuading multicultural audiences) 1/2			CH6 Project: Multicultural communication styles. Find a document in English written outside the U.S., print from **the web**, analyze its claims and persuasive strategies; Does it persuade you? Write a memo to your instructor and explain about the website's organization and persuasion. CH7 Ex.: Find **on the web** three largest and the most important professional organizations in your field. Answer a number of questions; one of them is about the date and location of an upcoming national or international professional meeting. CH14 Ex.: Find out in the admissions department at your university the number of students enrolled from different countries. Present the info as a map, a table, a bar graph, or a pie chart.

	CH7. CONDUCTING PRIMARY RESEARCH Strategies for intercultural communication (Planning a research strategy for multicultural audiences) ¼ CH8. ORGANIZING YOUR INFORMATION Strategies for intercultural communication (Organizing documents for readers from other cultures) ½ CH9. DRAFTING AND REVISING DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS Strategies for intercultural communication (Defining terms for readers from other culture Recommendations) 1/3 CH10. DRAFTING AND REVISING COHERENT DOCUMENTS Strategies for intercultural communication (Using headings and lists appropriately for			Project: Project: Locate a graphic **on the web** that you consider inappropriate for an international audience because it might be offensive or unclear in some cultures. Imagine an audience for the graphic, such as people from the Middle East, and write a brief statement explaining the potential problem. Finally, revise the graphic so that it would be appropriate for its intended audience. CH21 Ex.: **Find the sites** of three manufacturers within a single industry. Study them focusing on several aspects among which is "accommodation of multicultural readers" (compare and contrast).

	multicultural audiences) 1/3 CH11. DRAFTING AND REVISING EFFECTIVE SENTENCES Strategies for intercultural communication (Making text Easy to Translate) 2/3 Understanding Simplified English for nonnative speakers (Peterson's "developing a simplified English vocabulary) 4/5 CH12. DRAFTING AND REVISING FRONT AND BACK MATTERS Strategies for intercultural communication (Drafting front and back matters for different cultures) 1/3 CH13. DESIGNING THE DOCUMENT Strategies for intercultural communication (Designing documents to suit cultural preferences; Horton (1993))			

	½ CH14. CREATING GRAPHICS Strategies for intercultural communication Creating effective graphics for multicultural readers 1 and ¼ (accum.) CH15. WRITING LETTERS, MEMOS, AND E-MAILS Strategies for intercultural communication (Writing culture-specific letters, memos, and e-mails) ½ CH16. PREPARING JOB-APPLICATION MATERIALS Strategies for intercultural communication (Applying for international positions) 1/3 CH17. WRITING PROPOSALS Strategies for intercultural communication (Writing international proposals) 2/3 CH18. WRITING INFORMAL REPORTS			

	Strategies for intercultural communication (Considering informal reports for multicultural audiences) 1/3 CH19. WRITING FORMAL REPORTS Strategies for intercultural communication (Writing formal reports for readers from the another culture) 1/3 CH20. WRITING INSTRUCTIONS AND MANUALS Strategies for intercultural communication (Writing instructions and manuals for multicultural readers; Michelle Delio's article, Italy) 2/3 CH21. CREATING WEB SITES Designing sites for multicultural audiences (a reference to WWW consortium: www.w3.org/international/ "Guidelines for accessible websites" by Michele Ward (on the book's			

	website); Strategies: communicating across cultures online) 1/2 CH22. MAKING ORAL PRESENTATIONS Strategies for intercultural communication (Making oral presentations to multicultural audiences) 1/3 *Appendix Part C Guidelines for speakers of English as a second language 10 and 1/3			
Totals	Approx. 18	5	5	9
Woolever, Kristin. *Writing for the Technical Professions*. 3rd ed. New York: Longman, 2005.	CH1. PLANNING Tips for international communication (Nancy Hoft's seven variables; user analysis grid) 3 and 2/3 CH2. RESEARCHING Tips for international communication (references to websites and number of users) 1/2 CH3. ORGANIZING FOR READERS (Hall's high-context and low-context cultures; cultural schemata)	CH8 An example of a Japanese address CH14 The length of English and German words	CH1 In Quick Review CH3 In Quick Review CH5 In Quick Review CH6 In Quick review CH9 In Quick Review CH10 In Quick review CH17 In Quick review	CH1 Ex.: Target a particular culture and complete a user analysis grid. CH3 Individual or collaborative exercise: Find a document in English from a different culture; analyze its organization, compare to how you organize your own documents. CH4 Individual Exercise: Think about colors and icons associated with certain products and

	2 and 2/3 CH4. DESIGNING THE DOCUMENT: FORMAT AND GRAPHICS Tips for international communication (factoids; the Chinese have a lot of pictures in their documents; translation) 1 and 2/3 CH5. EDITING FOR STYLE Tips for international communication (simplified English; International Style Guidelines) 1 and 2/3 CH6. COLLABORATING ON WRITING PROJECTS Tips for international communication (Behavior, rationale, and implications of international students in group work from Deborah Bosley's "Cross-cultural Collaboration: Whose culture is it, anyway TCQ 1993) 1 and 1/5 CH7. CONSIDERING			companies. Do they change colors and icons for other cultures? Will they have the same association for other cultures? CH7 Individual or collaborative exercise: Look at a national or international problem and ethics; relate the issues to what was discussed in the chapter.

	ETHICAL AND LIABILITY ISSUES International code of ethics 6/7 CH8. MEMOS, LETTERS, AND E-MAIL Tips for international communication (Hofstede's power distance; Beamer and Varner: Intercultural communication in the global workplace 1994 (factoids); guidelines for international correspondence) 1 and 2/3 CH9. INSTRUCTIONS, PROCEDURES, AND POLICIES Tips for international communication (Localization, usability testing, graphics and icons, simplified English) 1 and 2/3 CH10. DESCRIBING AND SUMMARIZING TECHNICAL INFORMATION Tips for international communication (factoids) ½ CH11.			

	ABSTRACTS AND EXECUTIVE SUMMARIES Tips for international communication (do not use idioms) 1/5 CH12. REPORTS Tips for international communication (low-context and high- context, directness) 5/6 CH13. PROPOSALS Tips for international communication (factoids, be careful not to stereotype about high context low context cultures) ½ CH14. ELECTRONIC MEDIA: ONLINE HELP AND WEBSITE DESIGN Tips for international communication (editing considerations, words and their length in different languages) ½ CH15. FLIERS, BROCHURES, AND NEWSLETTERS Tips for			

	international communication (conversational tone, sequence of information, types of evidence, pdfs and paper sizes) 1 CH16. PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS Tips for international communication (formality, beginning, pacing closing, audience behavior, humor; factoids) 1 and 2/3 CH17. FINDING A JOB Tips for international communication (application letters, resumes, interviewing, dress, etc.; research articles from 1992; factoids) 1 and 1/4 *ESL (ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CONSIDERATIONS) For international students 7			
	Approx. 22	2	7	4
Overall results for 5 books	R=23-7 Mean=16 Accumulative: Approx. 80	R=9-0 Mean=4 Accumulative: 20	R=7-0 Mean=3.4 Accumulative: 17	R=11-1 Mean=6.6 Accumulative: 33

APPENDIX C. DETAILED RESULTS FOR THE TYPES OF EXERCISES AND PROJECTS IN ALL EXAMINED TEXTBOOKS

1993-95		
Type	**Exercises and projects**	**N**
"Research" or "Research and write" about another culture or international issue	1. Case: International issue report. Choose an intercultural or international issue that affects your employees; analyze the issue and discuss its impact on your employees' business. 2. Collaborative project: Your company is working with other countries on a variety of environmental projects; select a country and research a culture's behavior, attitudes, values, and social system, their expectations and preferences; prepare a recommendation report in a memo form for your co-workers.	2
"Write, create, or revise" for a person from another culture	1. Individual projects: An engineer from China wants to learn about your business; write two different letters, address to the Chinese businessman, with different purposes and compare these. 2. Case study: An American company is working with a South American parent company; write a report in a letter format addressed to the president of South American Enterprises (Chile).	2
"Find and examine" a foreign document or a situation	1. Discussion questions: Examine instructions for foreign-made products written in stilted, nonidiomatic English. What are your reactions and, if you export a product, how would you avoid such a problem in translation? 2. Collaborative project: Determining convention of different cultures. Write to an embassy of a foreign, non-European country and request a copy of a business letter; study it and compare it to the conventions of the U.S. letters.	2
	1996-99	
Type	**Exercises and projects**	**N**
"Write, create, or revise" for a person from another culture	1. **Web ex.**: Your college or university wishes to update its website to include a section called "For Prospective International Students"; in a memo to your instructor, provide recommendations for the existing website or create sections for a new one. 2. Ex.: Revise a passage for multicultural readers. 3. Ex.: Create graphics for a set of instructions on how to use an automated teller machine. Your readers are nonnative speakers of English who are unfamiliar with automated speaker machines. Write one or two-sentence explanations for each graphic. 4. **Web ex.:** 9. Locate a graphic on the web that you consider inappropriate for an international audience because it might be offensive or unclear in some cultures. Imagine an audience for the graphic, such as people from the Middle East, and write a brief statement explaining the potential problem. Finally, revise the graphic so that it would be appropriate for its intended audience. 5. Ex.: Correct sentences keeping in mind international readers. 6. Individual exercises: Edit a document and find the words and phrases that people from other cultures may not understand.	6

"Research" or "Research and write" about another culture or international issue	1. It is a student-exchange program. Research one country and write a guide for other students about that country; use resources. 2. Ex.: Target a particular culture and complete a user analysis grid. 3. Individual or collaborative ex.: Look at a national or international problem and ethics; relate the issue to what was discussed in the chapter. 4. Ex.: Find out in the admissions department at your university the number of students enrolled from different countries. Present the info as a map, a table, a bar graph, or a pie chart. 5. **Web ex.:** Write a memo comparing and contrasting writing styles of three websites (one of the factors for the exercise is the issue of comprehension by nonnative speakers).	5
"Find and examine" a foreign document or a situation	1. Individual exercise: Think about colors and icons associated with certain products and companies. Do they change colors and icons for other cultures? Will the visuals/colors have the same association for other cultures? 2. Discussion questions: Examine instructions for foreign-made products written in stilted, nonidiomatic English. What are your reactions and, if you export a product, how would you avoid such a problem in translation? 3. Individual or collaborative exercise: Find a document in English from a different culture; analyze its organization, compare it to how you organize your own documents.	3
"Interview" a person from another culture	1. Ex.: Interview a student from another culture.	1
	2000-2006	
Type	**Exercises and projects**	**N**
"Research" or "Research and write" about another culture or international issue	1. Ex.: Write a report on different countries and their marketing strategies (using a list of sample books); write a report. 2. Ex.: The exercise is focused on important aspects of individual countries. "Choose two or three books in this series. Books are available on over 100 different countries. Write a report comparing and contrasting these countries in major categories of your choice" (using a list of sample books). 3. Collaborative project: Prepare a written report on the challenges associated with doing business in a specific country. Focus your report on issues such as the following: management styles, corporate culture, negotiation style, social values, etc. Each person works on a specific issue. At the end of the research, discuss each segment. Write a summary of the findings (a list of possible sources). 4. Ex.: Use **a search engine** to locate a website that describes some form of multinational collaboration to address an environmental threat. Write a memo with a summary of how different cultures work together. 5. Ex.: Disasters in the US and other countries (Taiwan and India): **Search the web** for details and prepare a one page memo to summarize the role of miscommunications in causing the disaster. 6. Collaborative project: Your company is working with other countries on a variety of environmental projects; select a country and research a culture's behavior, attitudes, values, and social system, their expectations and preferences; prepare a recommendation report in a memo form for your co-workers (**web resources**). 7. Ex.: **On the web**, examine the role of global collaboration in building the	13

	International Space Station. 8. Assume that as a communications director for an international company, you need to enhance employees' training. Review **the following sites**, provide a brief description of each, rank the depth of information; recommend to the employees which site to visit. 9. Ex.: Assume that you are an assistant communications manager for a new organization that prepares research reports for decision makers worldwide. Write a memo about major procedural and reasoning errors that affect validity and reliability of the research process. 10. Ex.: Assume that colleagues or classmates will be serving six months as volunteers in agriculture, education, or a similar capacity in a developing country. Research and create a set of procedures that will prepare users for avoiding diseases and dealing with medical issues in that specific country. Create a set of instructions. 11. Individual or collaborative exercise: Look at a national or international problem and ethics; relate the issues to what was discussed in the chapter. 12. Ex.: Find out in the admissions department at your university the number of students enrolled from different countries. Present the info as a map, a table, a bar graph, or a pie chart. 13. Ex.: Target a particular culture and complete a user analysis grid.	
"Write, create, or revise" for a person from another culture	1. Ex.: After your sales presentation, Elizondo asks you to write a report for a group of prospective investors from Australia. Design the illustrations that you will include in your written report. 2. Ex.: Compose a letter for the following situation: copyright violations by a Chinese professor. 3. Project: Your company manufacturing cereals expands its business overseas to China. Compose instructions with visuals. Use Chapter 6. 4. Ex.: Modify situation 3 by selecting another country: Situation 3. You are a study abroad student and need to prepare a presentation for students from Buenos Aires who are interested in applying for a graduate school at your university. Plan a presentation for them to interest them in your university. 5. Ex.: Prepare a letter of application to an employer in a country in Latin America or Asia. 6. Ex.: The U.S. INS **web site**, at www.ins.gov, is designed for a truly global audience. Answer a number of questions on its usability. 7. Service-learning project: Subcultures within the U.S.: Write a letter inviting neighborhood residents to an open house at a Latino community center in a predominantly Hispanic neighborhood. 8. Ex.: Your college or university wishes to update its **web site** to include a section called "For Prospective International Students"; in a memo to your instructor, provide recommendations for the existing website or create sections for a new one. 9. Ex. Revise a passage for multicultural audiences. 10. Case: Write a letter with an apology to a customer from the People's Republic of China. 11. Project: Locate a graphic **on the web** that you consider inappropriate for an international audience because it might be offensive or unclear in some cultures. Imagine an audience for the graphic, such as people from the Middle East, and write a brief statement explaining the potential problem. Finally, revise the graphic so that it would be appropriate for its intended audience.	11
"Find and examine" a	1. Ex.: Find an advertisement with stereotypes and evaluate it. 2. Individual or collaborative project: **Locate web sites** that originate from	8

foreign document or a situation	three different areas of the globe. In addition to different languages, what other differences seem to stand out in terms of a given site's content, arrangement, design, and special effects? 3. Project: Multicultural communication styles. Find a document in English written outside the U.S., print from **the web**, analyze its claims and persuasive strategies; Does it persuade you? Write a memo to your instructor and explain about the website's organization and persuasion. 4. Individual Exercise: Think about colors and icons associated with certain products and companies. Do they change colors and icons for other cultures? Will they have the same association for other cultures? 5. Individual or collaborative exercise: Find a document in English from a different culture; analyze its organization, compare to how you organize your own documents. 6. Case: A woman is a founder of a company that deals with an oil company in Saudi Arabia. She wants to conceal her role in founding the company and the ethnic last name of a principal investigator. Is it ethical? Write a memo to your instructor. 7. Ex.: **Find the sites** of three manufacturers within a single industry. Study them focusing on several aspects among which is "accommodation of multicultural readers" (compare and contrast). 8. Ex.: Find **on the web** three largest and the most important professional organizations in your field. Answer a number of questions; one of them is about the date and location of an upcoming national or international professional meeting.	
"Interview" a person from another culture	1. Ex.: Use questions on page 57 as a basis for interviewing a student from another country.	1

APPENDIX D: ONLINE SURVEY FOR INSTRUCTORS

1. Your first name/ nick name (will not be used in the report of the research):

2. Your education status:
☐ Graduate student
☐ Assistant professor
☐ Associate professor
☐ Full professor
☐ Adjunct
☐ Other, please specify

3. Your knowledge of intercultural communication (Mark all relevant):
☐ Have taken classes in intercultural communication.
☐ A non-native English speaker (come from outside of the USA)
☐ A non-native English speaker (come from the USA)
☐ Have traveled abroad.
☐ Can speak and read in one or more foreign languages.
☐ Have lived overseas (more than two months).
☐ Do research in intercultural communication.
☐ Have read a few books (1-2) or articles in intercultural communication.
☐ Have read several books (3-4) or articles in intercultural communication.
☐ Have read many books (5 and more) and articles in intercultural communication.
☐ None of the above
☐ Other, please specify

4. You are teaching (Mark all relevant):
☐ Onsite
☐ Online
☐ ITV

5. Number of technical writing sections (a service/basic course) that you currently teach:
☐ 1
☐ 2
☐ 3
☐ 4
☐ 5
☐ 6
☐ Other, please specify

6. Your students this semester:
☐ Students
☐ Native English speakers

☐ Non-native English speakers

7. Number of classes per week for each section (Mark all relevant):
☐ 3 classes 50 minutes each
☐ 2 classes 1 hour 20 minutes each
☐ Other, please specify

8. Your classrooms (Mark all relevant):
☐ Have computers for all students.
☐ Have limited number of computers (less than one computer per student).
☐ Do not have computers, but a computer lab is available for student use outside of class.
☐ The computers ARE connected to the Internet.
☐ The computers are NOT connected to the Internet.
☐ I do not know.
☐ Other, please specify

9. Do you teach about intercultural communication in your technical writing classes?:
☐ Yes
☐ No

10. If **YES**, what do you want your students to know? If **NO**, what do you think your students should know? (knowledge):

Examples:
Give basic definitions of culture, multiculturalism, intercultural communication, ethnocentrism, stereotypes, etc.
Describe various cultural dimensions (by Hall, Hofstede, Hoft, others).
I do not know; I am not sure.

11. If **YES**, what do you want your students to be able to do? If **NO**, what do you think your students should be able to do? (skills):

Examples:
Evaluate and classify cultures using various cultural dimensions (ex. by Hall, Hofstede, Hoft, others)
Conduct contrastive analysis of documents written in English by other cultures.
Write to readers from other cultures.
Design visuals for other cultures.
Resolve communication conflicts in multicultural settings.
Use simplified English.
Localize or internationalize a document.
Interview people from other cultures.
I do not know; I am not sure.

12. How do you assess students' intercultural learning? What types of assessment (oral or written) do you use? (Mark all relevant):

☐ Reading quizzes
☐ Written exams
☐ Written papers about other cultures
☐ Documents produced for other cultures
☐ Oral presentations
☐ Oral exams
☐ Participation in discussion
☐ No formal assessment
☐ I do not teach about intercultural communication.
☐ Other, please specify

13. How do you assess students' intercultural learning? What **types of tests** do you use? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Source: Brown, J. D. Testing in Language Programs. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents, 1996.
☐ Norm-referenced tests borrowed from outside sources (To measure global intercultural competence regardless of the course curriculum; usually commercially produced or borrowed from books on intercultural competence)
☐ Criterion-referenced tests created by instructor (To measure learning in a particular course based on specific goals and objectives; for example, tests or quizzes with multiple choice, yes/no, short answer questions)
☐ Performance tests created by instructor (To measure students performances when completing certain tasks in various situations; for example, holistic assessment of a document produced for intercultural readers, problem-solving games, simulations, etc.)
☐ I do not know.
☐ No formal assessment
☐ Other, please specify

14. Evaluate the effectiveness of your current teaching methods in promoting student intercultural learning based on the current and previous student performances (i.e. have your students grasped the concepts that you taught them?):

No formal assessment (0)
Ineffective (1) - Effective (5)

15. What pedagogical tradition do you feel the closest to? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Cognitivism (Students need to learn the basic structure of knowledge processing and organization.)
☐ Expressivism (Students need to find and write with their inner voice.)

☐ Current-traditionalism (Students need to learn rules for correct writing.)
☐ Social-constructionism (Students need to participate in the knowledge making of their society.)
☐ None
☐ Other, please specify

16. In association with what topics do you discuss intercultural issues in your technical writing courses? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Audience analysis
☐ Visual design and visuals
☐ Persuasion and rhetoric
☐ Editing, style
☐ Research process
☐ Job application materials
☐ Instructions
☐ Workplace correspondence
☐ Proposals
☐ Reports
☐ Oral presentations
☐ Grammar, usage, mechanics
☐ I teach it as a separate unit (not associated with any other topics).
☐ Never
☐ Other, please specify

17. Where are intercultural issues positioned in the course? (Mark all relevant):
☐ At the beginning of the course
☐ In the middle of the course
☐ At the end of the course
☐ Throughout the course
☐ Nowhere
☐ Other, please specify

18. How many of your major assignments deal with intercultural issues is some ways or directly?:
☐ Few (1-2)
☐ Several (3-5)
☐ All
☐ None
☐ Other, please specify

19. What methods do you use to teach about multiculturalism? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Lectures
☐ Outside readings
☐ Classroom discussions

☐ Games, simulations, exercises
☐ Examination of documents, cultural artifacts (souvenirs, etc.), pictures
☐ Films, music
☐ Web-searches
☐ None
☐ Other, please specify

20. What outside resources on intercultural communication do you use? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Articles
☐ Cultural artifacts (souvenirs, etc.)
☐ The Internet
☐ Pictures
☐ Films
☐ Music
☐ None
☐ Other, please specify

21. What cultural theories, dimensions, or typologies do you use? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Hall's high-context and low-context cultures
☐ Hofstede's cultural variables/dimensions
☐ Hoft's variables
☐ None
☐ Other, please specify

22. How would you assess the present intercultural teaching in your course?:
☐ Sufficient
☐ More or less sufficient
☐ Insufficient
☐ I do not know.
☐ I do not teach about intercultural communication.

23. What are your biggest problems in teaching about intercultural communication? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Lack of adequate resources
☐ Lack of time
☐ Lack of adequate training in intercultural communication
☐ None
☐ I do not teach about intercultural communication.
☐ Other, please specify

24. The textbook that you are using (Mark all relevant):
☐ Anderson, Paul. Technical Communication: A Reader-Centered Approach
☐ Andrews, Deborah. Technical Communication in the Global Community

☐ Burnett, Rebecca. Technical Communication
☐ Cunningham, Donald, Smith, Elizabeth, and Pearsall, Thomas. How to Write for the World of Work
☐ Gerson, Sharon, and Gerson, Steven. Technical Writing: Process and Product
☐ Houp, Kenneth, Thomas Pearsall, Elizabeth Tebeaux, and Sam Dragga. Reporting Technical Information
☐ Johnson-Sheehan, Richard. Technical Communication Today
☐ Lannon, John. Technical Communication
☐ Markel, Mike. Technical Communication
☐ McMurrey, David. Power Tools for Technical Communication
☐ Pfeiffer, William. Technical Communication: A Practical Approach
☐ Reep, Diana. Technical Writing: Principles, Strategies, and Readings
☐ Sims, Brenda. Technical Communication for Readers and Writers
☐ VanAlstyne, Judith. Professional and Technical Writing Strategies
☐ Woolever, Kristin. Writing for the Technical Professions
☐ Other, please specify

25. The textbook's date of publication or edition:

26. What are your sources of the exercises, readings, checklists, and activities on multiculturalism (in percentages, 100% total)? Leave empty is you do not use any:

☐ Textbook
☐ I develop them myself.
☐ Other resources (if possible, provide URLs and publications)

27. Rate the sufficiency of the intercultural materials presented in the textbook (Leave blank if you do not know the answer.):

Insufficient (1) - Sufficient (5)

28. In your opinion, which of the following should be **increased** in textbooks? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Examples
☐ Theoretical discussions
☐ Exercises
☐ Cases
☐ Projects
☐ Web resources
☐ Guidelines
☐ Short articles
☐ Bibliographies
☐ None
☐ I do not know.

☐ Other, please specify

29. In your opinion, which of the following should be **reduced** in textbooks? (Mark all relevant):
☐ Examples
☐ Theoretical discussions
☐ Exercises
☐ Cases
☐ Projects
☐ Web resources
☐ Guidelines
☐ Short articles
☐ Bibliographies
☐ None
☐ I do not know.
☐ Other, please specify

30. Any last comments or thoughts about intercultural teaching in a service technical writing course:

APPENDIX E: QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

Pre-test: Intercultural Communication

Step 1: Demographic information
The purpose of this section is to collect some demographic information about you.

1. Enter the last three (3) digits of your social security number:

2. Your country of origin (where you were born):

3. If born in the U.S., your ethnic group:
(Leave blank if you do not know or do not want to answer.)
☐ African American
☐ Asian American
☐ Hispanic American
☐ Non-Hispanic White
☐ Other, please specify

4. Your gender:
☐ Female
☐ Male

5. Your age:

6. How would you describe your *past international experiences*?
☐ I have been out of the U.S. for more than two months.
☐ I have been out of the U.S. for less than two months.
☐ I have been to more than 2 other countries.
☐ I have been to less than 2 other countries.
☐ None of the above.
☐ Other, please specify

7. How would you describe your *foreign language* educational experiences?
☐ I am minoring in another foreign language.
☐ I am majoring in another foreign language.
☐ I can speak another language or a variety of Englishes (besides American English).
☐ None of the above.
☐ Other, please specify

8. How would you describe your *intercultural communication* educational experiences?
☐ I have taken 1-2 classes that deal with intercultural communication directly or

indirectly.

- ☐ I have taken 3 and more classes that deal with intercultural communication directly or indirectly.
- ☐ None of the above.
- ☐ Other, please specify

9. How many close friends (see each other or talk to each other on a regular basis) that come from other foreign countries do you currently have or have had in the past?

Step 2: Interculturalism
Respond to the list of statements below based on how you feel about each statement. Use your initial reaction and rate those statements on the scale from 1 (Absolutely Disagree) to 7 (Absolutely Agree):
1- Absolutely Disagree
2- Strongly Disagree
3- Disagree
4- Undecided
5- Agree
6- Strongly Agree
7- Absolutely Agree

10. Americans are *materialistic*.

11. Americans are *aggressive*.

12. Americans are *individualists*.

13. Americans are *straightforward*.

14. Americans are *competitive*.

15. Americans are *loud*.

16. Americans are *independent*.

17. Americans are *outspoken*.

Step 3: Interculturalism Cont.
Respond to the list of statements below based on how you feel about each statement. Use your initial reaction and rate those statements on the scale from 1 (Absolutely Disagree) to 7 (Absolutely Agree):
1- Absolutely Disagree
2- Strongly Disagree
3- Disagree

4- Undecided
5- Agree
6- Strongly Agree
7- Absolutely Agree

18. Americans are *ignorant*.

19. Americans are *rude*.

20. Americans are *democratic*.

21. Americans are *stubborn*.

22. Americans are *lazy*.

23. Americans are *show-offs*.

24. Americans are *industrious*.

25. Americans are *opinionated*.

Post-test: Intercultural Communication

Step 1: Interculturalism
Respond to the list of statements below based on how you feel about each statement. Use your initial reaction and rate those statements on the scale from 1 (Absolutely Disagree) to 7 (Absolutely Agree):
1- Absolutely Disagree
2- Strongly Disagree
3- Disagree
4- Undecided
5- Agree
6- Strongly Agree
7- Absolutely Agree

1. Enter the last three (3) digits of your social security number:

2. Americans are *materialistic*.

3. Americans are *aggressive*.

4. Americans are *individualists*.

5. Americans are *straightforward*.

6. Americans are *competitive*.

7. Americans are *loud*.

8. Americans are *independent*.

9. Americans are *outspoken*.

Step 2: Interculturalism Cont.
Respond to the list of statements below based on how you feel about each statement. Use your initial reaction and rate those statements on the scale from 1 (Absolutely Disagree) to 7 (Absolutely Agree):
1- Absolutely Disagree
2- Strongly Disagree
3- Disagree
4- Undecided
5- Agree
6- Strongly Agree
7- Absolutely Agree

10. Americans are *ignorant*.

11. Americans are *rude*.

12. Americans are *democratic*.

13. Americans are *stubborn*.

14. Americans are *lazy*.

15. Americans are *show-offs*.

16. Americans are *industrious*.

17. Americans are *opinionated*.

Step 3: Your Feedback on the Activity
You will be asked to react to a list of statements about the activity that you had during the class today. Rate those statements on the scale from 1 to 5:
1- Strongly disagree
2- Disagree

3- Undecided
4- Agree
5- Strongly agree

18. This activity challenged my beliefs.

19. After this activity, I would like to learn more about intercultural communication.

20. This activity was interesting.

21. Do you have any other comments about the activity?

Contents of the Classroom Power Point Presentation

Slide 1
The topic of today's lecture is "Diversity and Workplace Communication." Many of you, today's' students, will join workplaces and will occupy different positions in the future. It is very possible that you meet people from other cultures that will work with you on different projects. The purpose of this power point presentation is to introduce you to the issues of multiculturalism.

Slide 2
Here is an overview of our talk: we will discuss the world's cultures, territories, populations, and economies, culture as a concept, population trends in the U.S., new technologies that change the way we communicate, intercultural oral and written communication as a field, and then talk about stereotyping which is a very common way to approach communication. At the end of this presentation, we will make conclusions and discuss any questions you may have.

Slide 3
If you look at this political map of the world, you might wonder how many countries are out there. And what languages do the people in those countries speak?

Slide 4
The United Nations recognizes 192 states or countries. Many of those recognized countries have multiple languages that are spoken and written by their citizens. The world speech communities range from 3,000 to 7,000 or more. The countries vary in size and population.

Countries: 192 states (countries) recognized by the United Nations
Languages: speech communities range from 3,000 to 7,000 or more
(Source: Answers.com)

Slide 5
The following table shows the 10 largest countries in terms of both geographical areas and population. You can see that the largest in territory are not necessarily largest in population, and that some geographically small countries have large number of people.

All these numbers affect the global economy and, as a result, affect workplace communication. Workplace communication, business practices, business partners, and, of course, the language of communication depend on those numbers.

Country with the largest territories

Country	Area (square kilometers)
Russia	17,075,400
Canada	9,976,140
United States	9,629,091
China	9,596,960
Brazil	8,511,965
Australia	7,686,850
India	3,287,590
Argentina	2,776,890
Kazakhstan	2,717,306
Sudan	2,505,810

Country with the largest population

China	1,298,847,624
India	1,065,070,607
United States	293,027,571
Indonesia	238,452,952
Brazil	184,101,109
Pakistan	159,196,336
Russia	143,974,059
Bangladesh	41,340,476
Japan	27,333,002
Nigeria	25,750,356

(Source: Source: CIA World Factbook; from aneki.com)

Slide 6
The countries vary in their wealth. This slide shows the ten richest and the ten poorest countries in the world. You can see the range of income in these countries.
People from other countries or ethnic groups bring with them not only different languages, but also a culture that may be similar to and different from your own culture.

Richest countries in the world
GDP - per capita

Luxembourg	$ 55,100
Norway	$ 37,800
United States	$ 37,800
San Marino	$ 34,600
Switzerland	$ 32,700
Denmark	$ 31,100
Iceland	$ 30,900
Austria	$ 30,000
Canada	$ 29,800
Ireland	$ 29,600

Poorest countries in the world
GDP - per capita

East Timor	$ 500
Somalia	$ 500
Sierra Leone	$ 500
Malawi	$ 600
Tanzania	$ 600
Burundi	$ 600
Congo, Republic of the	$ 700
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	$ 700
Comoros	$ 700
Eritrea	$ 700
Ethiopia	$ 700
Afghanistan	$ 700

Slide 7
As Edward Tylor, an anthropologist, wrote in 1871, "Culture . . . is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."

Cultural practices, including workplace practices, depend on various worldviews that a community of people shares. Based on these worldviews people build their values. Values in their turn lead to certain attitudes, while attitudes lead to certain behaviors.

As Edward Tylor, an anthropologist, wrote in 1871,
"Culture . . . is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."

Slide 8
In other words: Worldviews (form our) → Values (form our) → Attitudes (form our) → Behaviors

For example, in the Unites States, one of the shared and accepted worldviews is that all

people are equal. The value that comes out of this worldview is that everybody has equal rights for education, medical treatment, voting in elections, and employment. These values lead to the following attitude: equality is a norm and inequality is not tolerated. As a result, nobody can discriminate against you. And if someone does, you can take legal actions and defend your rights.

Cultural diversity brings new issues to this equation. Some ethnic groups because of different conditions do not have equal opportunities compared to other groups. For example, access to higher education that eventually leads to a better social status and well being. That's why the government comes in and establishes certain programs that would help those groups to get access to education, medical treatment, and employment. For example, you probably know about affirmative action, which means creating opportunities and increasing the number of women and minorities in "employment, education, and business from which they have been historically excluded"

As Edward Tylor, an anthropologist, wrote in 1871,
"Culture . . . is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."

Worldviews (form our) → Values (form our) → Attitudes (form our) → Behaviors (Beamer & Varner 2001)

Slide 9
According to the prediction by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, by 2050 (Parrillo, 2005, p. 181) Hispanic Americans will double in number from 12.6% to 24.4%. The Asian American population will also double from 4% to 8%. African American ethnicity will slightly increase from 12.5% to 14.6%, while Non-Hispanic white population will drop from 70% to 50.1%. What do these numbers mean for workplace communication? It is very much possible that your co-workers will be people from different ethnic groups, or countries.

According to the prediction by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, by 2050 (Parrillo, 2005, p. 181)

Ethnicities	2000	2050
Hispanic Americans	12.6%	24.4%
Asian Americans	4%	8%
African American	12.5%	14.6%
Non-Hispanic white	70%	50.1%

Slide 10
New technologies help us communicate with counterparts in other countries through virtual offices, virtual intranets, video conferencing, and online meetings. If a decade ago, a company would spend a lot of money sending their representatives to other countries, now the same companies can create an online virtual space and use it for internal

communications. It is cheaper and faster.

Virtual Office
Virtual Intranets
Video conferencing
Online meetings

Slide 11
The field that explores the communication process between members of different cultural communities is called intercultural communication.

"the communication process between members of different cultural communities" (Ting-Toomey 16).

Slide 12
Intercultural communication addresses the issues of written communication (style (level of formality, diction, etc.), organization (order of importance), content (level of detail)), oral communication (interpersonal communication), and visual communication (graphics and their interpretations).

Speaking of interpersonal communication, you are probably familiar with the concept of "a stereotype." Stereotyping is a common way to approach diversity.

Addresses the issues of
Written
Style (level of formality, diction, etc.)
Organization (order of importance)
Content (level of details)
Oral
Interpersonal communication
Visual
Graphics and their interpretations

Slide 13
Merriam-Webster Dictionary offers the following definition: "something conforming to a fixed or general pattern; especially: a standardized mental picture that is held in common by members of a group and that represents an oversimplified opinion, prejudiced attitude, or uncritical judgment."

Stereotypes can be positive and negative. "Germans are punctual" is a positive stereotype. "Russians are all drunkards" is a negative one.

Stereotyping has its plusses and minuses. Stereotypes can help us predict behaviors of other people. But at the same time, they can be dangerous because they may lead to

prejudice (a rigid attitude towards a group of people "based on erroneous beliefs or preconceptions". In workplace communications, prejudice leads to discrimination. Today, we will have an activity that will help us learn how to communicate ethically and efficiently across cultures.

Merriam-Webster Dictionary: "a standardized mental picture that is held in common by members of a group and that represents an oversimplified opinion, prejudiced attitude, or uncritical judgment"

Good: Stereotypes can help us predict behaviors of other people.
Bad: Stereotypes can be dangerous: they may lead to prejudice (a rigid attitude towards a group of people "based on erroneous beliefs or preconceptions" (Chen and Starosta 40-41, 1998).

Slide 14
To conclude, this presentation has emphasized that workplace communication becomes more and more diverse through technologies and population trends and these new changes requires skills of effective and ethical intercultural and interpersonal communication.

Slide 15
Do you have any questions?

Lesson Plan: Dialogic

Approximate time of completion: 60 minutes

Goals and Objectives of the Class:
Overall goal: Students taking technical writing will learn how to communicate *ethically* and *efficiently* across cultures.

Class objectives:
Knowledge Objectives:
Students will know basic facts about diversity in the United States and workplace cross-cultural collaboration.
Students will know definitions of stereotypes.

Skills Objectives
Students will start developing skills of experiencing other cultures and building communication strategies for future communications.

Class Plan (approx. 60 min)

Steps	Time	Materials

Before the class		Check the sound and play a part of the power point presentation. Turn on the computers.
Attendance	3-5 min	
Introduction to the class	2-3 min	Today we will talk about multiculturalism and workplace communication. You will see a power point presentation that will introduce you to the issues of intercultural communication. After the presentation, we will have an activity that will teach you how to communicate with other cultures. We will also develop some strategies for successful intercultural communication. (Distribute the power point slides to students).
Introductory lecture	10 min	Now let's see the power point presentation. (See if they have any questions.)
Activity	5 min	The next step is an activity. (Distribute the handouts, and it will divide students into two cultures: Culture A and Culture B. Read the handouts.) It is a simulation game during which we use some role playing. You will be given a set of characteristics. Read the given characteristics carefully and "think and act" according to those characteristics (See colored handouts in the packs). DO NOT show the list of characteristics to the other culture, but ACT according to those characteristics. Situation: Recently your company in the U.S. has merged with some foreign company. You have never met people from that country. The company is hosting a social gathering for the new foreign counterparts. You have a chance to meet them. Task 1. You will have 5 minutes to meet with 2 representatives of the other culture and introduce yourself your name your job title what you do on your job (make up details) Task 2. In a brief memo to your instructor (see an example attached; one memo from the three of you),

		• compile a list of behavioral characteristics for the other culture • create a list of strategies that would help a person communicate with the other group's culture. Prepare for discussion. What does this process say about the way you communicate?
	20 min	Culture A, raise your hands. Culture B, raise your hands. Now you know who you can communicate with. (Ask students to read characteristics carefully, leave the characteristics on the table, and ask them to get up and start communicating with the representatives of other cultures) (In about 5-8 minutes, ask them to stop communicating and get into groups for the analysis and recommendations: Task 2 Task 2: In a brief memo to your instructor (see an example below; one memo from the three of you), • compile a list of behavioral characteristics for the other culture • create a list of strategies that would help a person communicate with the other group's culture.)
	10 min	Prepare for discussion. What does this process say about the way you communicate? Discussion Let's check if your observations of other cultures are accurate. First, Culture B, could you describe, Culture A. (Listen to several responses.) Culture A, is this description accurate?

		(Listen to several responses.) So, we can make a conclusion that some cultural characteristics or interpersonal characteristics are easily observable. So, what are some principles that would help a person communicate with Culture A? Let's read those. Ok, what we have just done is the following: first, you have observed and built some understanding of their behavioral characteristics through actual interactions; second, you have built a theory about other culture's communication preferences. These are initial steps of any successful communication, intercultural and interpersonal. Now the final question is: (Ask culture B) What does this process say about the way you, Culture B, communicate? (Listen to some students suggestions: "we like personal space, we do not speak so loudly as they do, …") So in a sense, it is easy to see your own communication preferences when you meet a person who has a drastically different way of communicating. Then you can immediately identify that … yes, I am less of such and such quality than the other person. So, we always compare our ways to the ways of others. It helps us build some understanding of who we really are, what culture we belong to, what we like and do not like. Ok, let's see what Culture A has observed. Culture A, how would you describe culture B? (Listen to several responses.) Culture B, is the description of Culture A accurate? (Listen to several responses.)

		Once again you have observed and you have created a theory. The same process …. By the way, culture B was asked to behave as they behave normally in real life, so they were asked to be representatives of the American culture. We may have come to a very important conclusion: The two initial steps of successful communication are to observe carefully and to form theories and readjust them over time, of course. You need people from other cultures to compare and understand who you are, what culture/country you are coming from. So when we encounter people from other cultures, we develop our own awareness of our communication practices: what we do similarly and differently from how other people do it.
	5 min	(The last step of this activity:) Let's re-read characteristics of Culture A. (Distribute the additional handouts). Read the characteristics for Culture A again and put a checkmark next to the characteristics that are very true to who you are. Raise your hands … those of you who put a checkmark next to every characteristics. This list of characteristics is actually built on the American culture. That's how some other cultures or Americans themselves may see Americans or stereotype Americans. Are these characteristics true? (Listen to some of the responses.) (Overall conclusion:) People differ tremendously within just one culture: different characters and personalities. And even if you know something about another culture … you have heard someone talking, or you have heard something on TV, etc., you do not really know individual people from this or that culture unless you communicate with them personally, unless you share something with them, unless you negotiate meaning, and unless you try to come to some kind of consensus. (Collect their memos.)

Post-test	10 min	Let's take a survey again and see whether your perceptions have changed. The survey is located on our website, on today's schedule. (Show it to students.)

Student Handout: Dialogic

ENGL 2311
Activity: Multiculturalism
Approximate time of completion: 30 minutes

This activity is a simulation game during which we use some role playing. You are given a set of characteristics. Read the given characteristics carefully and "think and act" according to those characteristics (See colored handouts in the packs). DO NOT show the list of characteristics to the other culture, but ACT according to those characteristics.

Situation: Recently your company in the U.S. has merged with some foreign company. You have never met people from that country. The company is hosting a social gathering for the new foreign counterparts. You have a chance to meet them.

Task 1. *Work individually* *5 min*	You will have 5 minutes to meet with 2 representatives of the other culture and introduce yourself ▪ your name ▪ your job title ▪ what you do on your job (make up details)
Task 2. *Work in groups of three.* *10 min*	Work in groups of three (3) and select representatives of the same culture. Choose a recorder/presenter in your group. In a brief memo to your instructor (see an example below; one memo from the three of you), ▪ compile a list of behavioral characteristics for the other culture ▪ create a list of strategies that would help a person communicate with the other group's culture. Prepare for discussion: What does this process say about the way you communicate?

Memo

To:
From:
Date:
Subject:

Purpose
Restate the purpose of your memo here.

Discussion

1. A list of behavioral characteristics for Culture __:
Body language

Personal space

Concept of time

Vocal qualities

Personality

2. A list of strategies that would help a person communicate with the other group's culture:

Culture A

Body language
Frequently uses gestures and facial expressions when speaking
Enjoys prolonged eye contact – intensely stares at others when engaging in conversation
Smiles constantly

Personal space
Likes closeness – requires little personal space
Stands and sits as close as possible to others
Touches others frequently

Concept of time
Is always in a hurry
Wants to discuss only the facts

Vocal qualities
Speaks loudly
Speaks rapidly
Speaks with exaggerated vocal inflections

Personality
Is extremely self-centered
Frequently uses "I," "me," "my," and "mine"
Always feel better than or more important than others

Negotiating style
Is brutally frank
Demonstrates no concern for the feelings of others
Talks at people rather than with people
Always assumes he or she is right and others are wrong

(Adapted from Jack Hulbert).

Culture B

Behave as you normally do.

Lesson Plan: Information Acquisition

Approximate time of completion: 60 minutes

Goals and Objectives of the Class:
Overall goal for the course: Students taking technical writing will learn how to communicate *ethically* and *efficiently* across cultures.

Objectives for the class:
Knowledge Objectives:
Students will know basic facts about diversity in the US and workplace cross-cultural collaboration.
Students will know definitions of stereotypes.

Skills Objectives
Students will learn how to characterize cultures using Hofstede's dimensions

Reading Materials for Students (given to students during your previous class)

Approach	Reading materials
Information Acquisition	Handout: parts of Chapter 6, Writing for International Readers, in Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, and Dragga,

	Reporting Technical Information

Class Plan (60 min)

Steps	Time	Materials
Before the class		Check the sound and play a part of the power point presentation. Turn on the computers.
Attendance	3-5 min	
Introduction to the class	2-3 min	Today we will talk about multiculturalism and workplace communication. You will see a power point presentation that will introduce you to the issues of intercultural communication. After the presentation, we will have an activity that will teach you how to characterize cultures using cultural dimensions by Hofstede, which were discussed in your assigned readings for today. We will also develop some strategies for successful intercultural communication. (Distribute the power point slides to students.) Here are handouts for the power point presentation. At the end of the class, we will complete a survey similar to the one that you did at the end of our last class and see whether this activity has changed your perceptions.
Introductory lecture	10 min	Let's see the power point presentation. (See if they have any questions.)
Activity	5 min	The next step is the activity. (Distribute the handout for the activity.) For this class, you have read some parts of Chapter 6 Writing for International Readers, from Houp, Pearsall, Tebeaux, and Dragga, *Reporting Technical Information.* Work in groups of three (3). Using the assigned readings (Hofstede's dimensions and Table 6.1 on p. 106), try to determine what cultures/countries can be described using the following two sets of characteristics: Culture A and Culture B (handouts are provided).

	20 min	Work in groups of three (3). Choose a recorder/presenter in your group. Write one (1) brief memo addressed to your instructor (one memo from your group). See p. 461, 474 in your textbook for the memo format. Explain which country/s you have selected and why. Create a list of strategies that would help Americans communicate with the representatives of Culture A or Culture B in various workplace settings (choose one). Use the assigned readings if needed. Print one copy of the memo from the three of you. Prepare for discussion.
	5-10 min	Discussion What cultures/countries have you chosen for Culture A and why? Let's read some strategies that will help us communicate with those countries. What cultures/countries have you chosen for Culture B and why? Let's read some strategies that will help us communicate with those countries. Are those different from Culture A? The conclusion that we can make today is that different countries have different preferences in communicating, and, as a result, require different communication strategies. In workplace settings, you should observe and adjust to your co-workers, readers, or listeners in order to make the communication process successful, beneficial, and enjoyable. (Collect their memos.)
Post-test	10 min	Let's take a survey and see whether your perceptions have changed. The survey is located on our website, on today's schedule. (Show it to students.) Thank you! (Collect their memos and continue with the class.)

Student Handout: Information Acquisition

ENGL 2311
Activity: Multiculturalism
Approximate time of completion: 30 minutes

This activity will teach you how to use cultural dimensions (i.e. define cultures: collectivist vs. individualistic or masculine vs. feminine) and develop various strategies for successful intercultural communication.

Task 1. *Work in groups of three.* *5 min*	Work in groups of three (3). Using the assigned readings (Hofstede's dimensions and Table 6.1 on p. 106), try to determine what cultures/countries can be described using the following two sets of characteristics: Culture A and Culture B (handouts are provided).
Task 2. *Work in groups of three.* *20 min*	Work in groups of three (3). Choose a recorder/presenter in your group. Write one (1) brief memo addressed to your instructor (one memo from your group): ▪ Explain which country/s you have selected and why. ▪ Create a list of strategies that would help Americans communicate with the representatives of Culture A or Culture B in various workplace settings (choose one). Use the assigned readings if needed. Prepare for discussion.

Culture A

Body language
Frequently uses gestures and facial expressions when speaking
Enjoys prolonged eye contact – intensely stares at others when engaging in conversation
Smiles constantly

Personal space
Likes closeness – requires little personal space
Stands and sits as close as possible to others
Touches others frequently

Concept of time
Is always in a hurry
Wants to discuss only the facts

Vocal qualities
Speaks loudly
Speaks rapidly
Speaks with exaggerated vocal inflections

Personality
Is extremely self-centered
Frequently uses “I,” “me,” “my,” and “mine”
Always feel better than or more important than others

Negotiating style
Is brutally frank
Demonstrates no concern for the feelings of others
Talks at people rather than with people
Always assumes he or she is right and others are wrong

(Adapted from Jack Hulbert).

Culture B

Body Language
Never uses gestures and facial expressions when speaking
Avoids eye contact as much as possible
Never smiles

Personal space
Likes distance – requires much personal space
Stands and sits at a distance from others whenever possible
Never touches others

Concept of time
Never rushes
Wants to discuss all aspects of a questions and how it affects others

Vocal qualities
Speaks softly
Speaks slowly
Speaks in a monotone

Personality
Is extremely group-oriented
Frequently uses “we,” “us,” “our,” and “ours”
Never feel better than or more important than others

Negotiating style
Frequently uses euphemisms (substitute harsh words by neutral) to avoid hurting others
Is extremely concerned about the feelings of others
Talks with people rather than at people
Accepts the fact that others may think differently and that there may be more than one correct viewpoint

(Adapted from Jack Hulbert).