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Business English for special purposes as a negotiated, strategic competence

Chi-Chieh Liu

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BUSINESS ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES AS A NEGOTIATED, STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Chi-Chieh Liu
June 2001
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A Project
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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Monica Ford, Second Reader

Date
ABSTRACT

Business English as a foreign language is an essential skill in the business world of Taiwan. Thus, the ability to use English on the part of employees in general, and college graduates in particular, is often emphasized in the business world. However, because of the ineffectiveness and insufficiency of business English education, the needs of both employers and employees for effectively using business English has not been satisfied. The aim of this project is to provide a curriculum designed specifically on the basis of negotiated and strategic competence, which will meet the needs of the business world.

This project encompasses five chapters. Chapter One introduces the prospects and current context of business English in Taiwan, and the scope and goals of the project. Chapter Two explores research literature about some key theoretical concepts. Chapter Three presents a theoretical framework developed from the concepts reviewed in Chapter Two. Chapter Four provides an overview of the proposed curriculum design and explains how this curriculum relates to the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Three. Chapter Five discusses the types of assessment, which are used to
evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction. Finally, the Appendix is comprised of five lessons that incorporate the key concepts involved in this project.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project is dedicated to my parents and family who have encouraged me during my study for this master's degree. Moreover, I would like to extend my gratitude to many people who have contributed to the success of this project: to Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico for her profound advice and suggestions; to Ms. Monica Ford for her helpful instruction and comments; and to Karen Wu, Shiau Yin Wu, Ian Griffith, and Gerda Randolph for their assistance and sharing.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The Role of English in Taiwan

Due to the emergence of English as a world language, the population that uses English has continuously increased, as has the number of countries that use English as a second language. Taiwan, as a country that mainly survives on trade and business, is no exception. English has played a vital role in Taiwan’s business domain for many decades.

English has been emphasized for a long time in Taiwanese society. This phenomenon can be easily verified by seeing numerous English language schools in Taiwan. In Taipei, an English language school or institute is found on almost every street. Taiwan, an island, lacks many natural resources so it depends heavily on trade and international business. English is an important tool in doing this trade and business. Hinkleman (1994) states that “foreign trade is of vital importance to Taiwan’s economic development, health, and status in the international community” (p. 59). Therefore, a great number of occupations in industrial, agricultural, and business fields incorporate with English use. This phenomenon has led people to believe that by being able to use English, people not
use English, people not only can perform well in jobs relating to international business but also improve their mobility and seem intelligent and talented. In addition, reflecting the society’s high expectation for student achievement, Taiwan’s schools have never stopped valuing the importance of English. Hence, Taiwanese society intentionally or unintentionally encourages learning English.

**English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan’s Business Domain**

As aforementioned, Taiwan is a geographically restricted country; therefore, it counts on international business to a large extent. Many import and export deals require communicating in English. According to Hinkleman (1994), the United States has remained Taiwan’s major trading partner in recent years, and it is the second largest country Taiwan has been targeting for investment. Therefore, English has become a major language for international business in Taiwan.

The need for English used to be not so compelling. For the most part, only the people on the top level in a company or organization were required to have this ability. However, this phenomenon is changing. More and more people believe that English ability is not limited to businessmen in high positions and is a necessary skill in applying for a job. This is mainly
because more and more types of industries require employees to possess English language proficiency in addition to the particular specialties in their work. Secondly, it is also because interaction with people from different countries has increased. However, the English these employers require and employees need is used for specific purposes. In other words, they need English for Specific Purposes (ESP), depending on their needs, which can be divided into different types such as English for tourism, English for flight attendants, English for business, etc. English for business can be subdivided into more various purposes and occasions. For example, businessmen need to use English for telephone conversations with foreign customers and suppliers, reading and writing English reports or letters, comprehending English seminars or conferences, and negotiating. Tsui (1992), performing research into Taiwan's English business communication skills training needs, confirms the seriousness of the need for non-native English speaking businessmen to improve English business communication skills in Taiwan. In this research, she lists the most commonly used English business skills in Taiwan, which are, besides the four skills mentioned above, the following: reading professional journals or manuals, writing English memos,
talking with professional and non-professional personnel in
English, making English oral presentation and public speeches,
engaging in group discussions, writing English proposals and
papers, and chairing meetings. She also identified the most
urgently needed English business communication skills training
courses, which are English conversation, English telephoning,
oral presentation, English letter and paper writing, English
visitor reception communication, English office communication,
English group discussion, and English negotiation. As such,
targeted courses addressing various business English skills
should be provided for business people to expand their business
English repertoire.

However, these business-related English skills are not
provided in formal education. Although often a business
English course is offered in vocational high schools and junior
commercial colleges for one year, in most cases the length
of the course is not long enough and its content is too
standardized to respond to the realistic needs of business
situations. Therefore, in general, most business people turn
to private tutorial language institutes to acquire the required
English knowledge and skills in their disciplines. This
indicates that learning English for business purposes is an
urgent need, requiring adequate teachers and the development of appropriate curriculum.

**English Education in Taiwan**

In Taiwan, English is a required subject from middle school to college. In junior and senior high school, usually students are offered English class for six hours a week. Most colleges require students to take at least two one-hour English classes per week for the first school year. One thus can see that Taiwan's education puts great effort into English education. During the past few years, because of government advocacy, some elementary schools have started to provide English classes for grades five and above. However, although Taiwan's government has been making efforts to promote the idea that English teaching is practical and easy, English teaching and learning are still under the influence of the Joint Entrance Examination. Most teachers and students in high school still follow the practice of cramming information to intensively learn English, and still place great emphasis on learning grammar and syntax. This phenomenon has existed for many decades, although this way of learning English has not proved to be efficient.

Although vocational high schools and junior colleges offer
business English classes, the effect has not been satisfactory to the business world. Many employers have complained about the difficulty of finding graduates who possess adequate business English skills. This is because vocational high schools and junior colleges are not in the major leagues of Taiwan's education, which implies that Taiwanese society values the academic education system of the high schools and universities more than vocational high schools and junior colleges. This in turn leads to a mediocre methodology and curriculum of business English. Moreover, students lack the opportunity to practice real business situations, contributing to inefficiency in acquiring the needed business English skills.

In addition, the teaching and learning of business English is partly influenced by the education in general schools and universities. The students in vocational high schools and junior colleges have graduated by means of grammar instruction as the sole method of learning English. Without the appropriate approach to business English, students will habitually use the same grammar-translation-approach as they used in junior high to learn business English, rather than a more communicative approach.

However, with the dawning awareness of the need for
communicative business English on the part of both employers and employees, some schools and administrative offices have tried to improve the current business English education, only to find the effects are limited and vague. According to Tsui (1992), some universities have provided on-the-job training courses to facilitate businesspeople’s English communication, but whether these courses are meeting the needs is uncertain.

As for adult learners, they tend to seek help from the language schools, where the courses are usually taught by English native speakers; but the quality of curricula and teaching methods is not guaranteed. Students can learn correct pronunciation in these language institutes. However, if the instruction does not fulfill their needs, students will still not learn the required knowledge and skills. Therefore, two essential issues are on the one hand reinforcing business English teaching and learning in schools and language institutes; and on the other hand, ensuring that this results in effective instruction.

To address the problem, a suggestion made by Tsui (1994) is worth consideration. She suggests that for business people to improve business communication skills, what should be offered are communicatively based, learner-centered,
task-oriented English courses that provide clear-cut options, such as English oral presentation, or English visitor-reception communication. The design of this project is built on this idea and is intended to develop the appropriate strategies and skills for learners.

Content of the Project

This project aims to help students develop better strategies based on a specific theoretical framework, and provides curriculum for the teaching of business English for specific purpose as negotiated, strategic competence.

The content of the project consists of five chapters, which are as follows:

Chapter One describes the role of English and the current condition of English education in Taiwan. Chapter Two explores five major concepts: English for specific purposes, learning strategies, negotiation, communicative competence, and critical thinking. Chapter Three integrates the main concepts explored in Chapter Two and provides a model to guide the teaching of English for negotiation. Chapter Four introduces the teaching unit. The content of the unit teaches Taiwanese learners how to acquire appropriate negotiation strategies, deal with a negotiation about asking for a raise, negotiate
the culture clash, make a sale, and accomplish a group negotiation. Chapter Five provides both teachers and learners with methods of assessment. Finally, the Appendix presents the curriculum content.

Significance of the Project

On the grounds that English is crucial to business development and international interaction, an adequate business English repertoire has become virtually indispensable to the success of Taiwanese people in business careers. The significance of the effective instruction and curriculum is thus apparent. With Taiwan's coming participation in the World Trade Organization, which will increase the opportunity for international business, the need for people who possess effective business English skills will remain high. Therefore, business English instruction will directly and indirectly bear on the development of business and economy and play an even more important role in the business world in the near future.
Negotiation is one of the most complicated forms of human interaction, because it involves many complex features. Moreover, negotiations involving international relations or language factors have even more complexity. These concern not only the thinking process, diplomatic tactics, and communication, which bear on the negotiation, but also the linguistic and cultural differences of the negotiators. For a country such as Taiwan, where English is a language used for wider communication (Judd, 1981), international negotiation is an important context for the use of English in business affairs. Because international negotiation is essential and involves many concerns, in order to design a curriculum for developing English negotiation skills in a foreign language (EFL) environment, research literature in several domains must be reviewed. These domains include English for Specific Purposes (ESP), learning strategies, negotiation, communicative competence, and critical thinking. The following presents literature in which each of these selected domains is further explained.
English for Specific Purposes

Development of English for Specific Purpose as a Field

In the past few decades, ESP (English for Specific Purpose) has attracted much attention in the field of English language teaching (ELT), and its acquisition has become a worldwide trend. The birth of ESP came about largely for the sake of accomplishing specific human needs. ESP grew mainly as a result of the worldwide demands of commerce and technology. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that it was generated by three main factors: A demand for knowledge accompanying the growth commerce and technology, the creation of new beliefs in linguistics, and new developments in educational psychology.

The rapid development of technology and commerce following the Second World War brought a great number of new industries, and more intense opportunities for human interaction than ever. These led to an increased sense of international community for people. This, in turn, has led to a need for an international language and a need for the development of languages that suit specific purposes. Owing to the great industrial and economic power of the United States, which in turn followed the worldwide imperialism of Great Britain, English has taken the role of
international language. In addition, the fact that English has become a global language has generated a large population of learners who want to acquire English that suits their own fields. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in *English for Specific Purposes* state that the effect of the development of technology and commerce was to apply pressure on ELT to provide required knowledge, and time and money constraints generated a need for cost-effective English learning courses with specific objectives (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The previous English learning, which was relatively free of specific purposes, was not able to satisfy the needs of people working in the current society which demands specific expertise. Moreover, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out two other reasons that played an important part in nurturing the growth of ESP: new findings in linguistics, indicating that need for the practical use of English outweighs the needs for rules of English usage grammar; and a new tenet emerging from developments in educational psychology, supporting the idea that addressing individual’s needs and interests enhances learning effectiveness.
What is English for Specific Purposes?

One might suppose that ESP entails a specific kind of language or methodology. However, it is neither a particular form of language nor does it have different learning strategies than any other English learning. Perhaps ESP should be seen as an approach which has grown from learner's interests and needs, rather than a product. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) bring out what ESP is by showing what it is not. They indicate three characteristics of ESP: (1) it is not a matter of teaching "specialized varieties" of English which different in kind from other forms; (2) it is not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists, hotel words and grammar for hotel staff, and so on, because ESP goes beyond the performance of language use to the competence of language, the knowledge and abilities that enable people to perform; (3) it is an approach to language learning which is based on learners' needs. Therefore, it can be concluded that ESP emphasizes language learning more than language use, and its foundation comes down to a key question: Why do the learners need to learn English?
Needs Analysis

An emphasis on the needs of learners addresses the question: Why do the learners need to learn English? The needs of particular learners are thus considered to be the most important part, the starting point of ESP course design. On grounds that ESP builds on the individual’s needs, the analysis of needs becomes paramount in the teaching of ESP.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), learners’ needs can be divided into target needs and learning needs. Target needs are what the learner needs to do in the target situation, while learning needs are what the learner needs to do in order to learn (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Target needs entails three parts: necessities, lacks, and wants. “Necessities” involve the knowledge the learners need to obtain to perform effectively in their own situations. Besides the learners’ ability to use English to function well in their situations, the learners require the ability to command both the grammar and vocabulary that are often seen in the given situations. “Lacks” denotes the gap between what the learners have to obtain and what they have already obtained. “Lacks” helps the teachers to decide the starting point of learning of ESP. “Wants” refers to the learners’ perception of their own needs. Due to the
difference between individuals' frames of reference, the perceived needs may vary among different individuals such as learners, teachers, sponsors, and superiors.

"Necessities" can be seen as a destination of the ESP course by drawing an analogy between ESP course and a journey. As such, "lacks" may be deemed the departing point. "Wants" may thus be taken as a slightly different destination than "necessities." These three factors are vital to the course of the ESP "journey." However, the route is equally important to the three factors above. Learning needs, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), are seen as the route to the destination. The analysis of target needs reveals only the knowledge the learners need to function, but not the knowledge of how they should learn—the process of learning. However, the process of learning has a determining influence on the ability to achieve goals. Accordingly, the role of routing, finding the knowledge of how to learn, corresponds to the analysis of learning needs. Analyzing the learning needs mainly involves evaluating the variables affecting the result of ESP learning, such as the learning environment, the learners' motivation, their prior knowledge, and strategies to which the learners respond. Therefore, when determining the
learners' route to the destination of ESP, teachers must take into account all these variables.

**Information gathering.** To determine the proper route for the learners to function well in the target situation, the teachers need to obtain highly detailed knowledge about the learners. This requires an efficient method of data collection. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), there are five suggested ways to gather information: questionnaires, interviews, observation, data collection (e.g. gathering texts), and informal consultation with sponsors, learners and others. As for what teachers need to know, Hutchinson and Waters provide a checklist to conduct this job (see Table 1). The time to collect information is also crucial to the process of analysis. To respond to this, Ellis and Johnson (1994) have suggested three stages at which information can be collected: before the course begins, at the start of course, and during the course (p. 73-79).

**Information analysis.** After gathering the information about the learners and learning situation, teachers face a real vital issue—what do the data tell us, and how should they be used? Besides the information that can be used to determine
Table 1. A Target Situation Analysis and Learning Situation Analysis Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Situation Analysis</th>
<th>Learning Situation Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Why is the language needed?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Why are the learners taking the course?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. for study</td>
<td>1. compulsory or optional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. for work</td>
<td>2. apparent need or not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. for training</td>
<td>3. Are status, money, promotion involved?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. for a combination of these</td>
<td>4. What do learners think they will achieve?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. for some other purposes, e.g. status, examination, promotion</td>
<td>5. What is their attitude towards the ESP course?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How will the language be used?</strong></td>
<td><strong>How do the learners learn?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc.</td>
<td>1. What is their learning background?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. channel: e.g. telephone, face to face</td>
<td>2. What is their concept of teaching and learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. types of test or discourse: e.g. academic texts lectures, informal conversations, technical manuals, catalogues</td>
<td>3. What methodology will appeal to them?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What will the content areas be?</strong></td>
<td><strong>What resources are available?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. subject: e.g. medicine, biology, shipping, commerce, and engineering?</td>
<td>1. number and professional competence of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. level: e.g. technical, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school</td>
<td>2. attitude of teachers to ESP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. materials and aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. opportunities for out-of-class activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. A Target Situation Analysis and Learning Situation Analysis Framework (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who will the learner use the language with?</th>
<th>Who are the learners?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. native or non-native speakers</td>
<td>1. age/gender/nationality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. level of knowledge of receiver:</td>
<td>2. What do they know already about English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. expert, layman, students</td>
<td>3. What are their interests?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate</td>
<td>4. What is their socio-cultural background?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where will the language be used?</th>
<th>Where will the ESP course take place?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. physical setting: e.g. office, lecture, theatre, hotel, workshop, library</td>
<td>Are the surroundings pleasant, dull, noisy, cold, etc?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. human context: e.g. alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When will the language be used?</th>
<th>When will the ESP course take place?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently</td>
<td>1. time of day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. frequently, seldom, in small amount, in large chunks</td>
<td>2. every day/ once a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. full-time/part-time; concurrent with need or pre-need</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

the target needs, the collected information also includes data such as participants' personal details, educational background, previous language learning experience, the background of learners' industry, and the constraints of the learning situation. The information can be used to design a course reflecting the needs of learners. Ellis and Johnson
(1994) claim that this data can be analyzed for producing the content, determining the type of language to be learned, and anticipating the difficulty the learners may face. Also important to determining the learning course is the need for the information collected, especially about the learners, to be analyzed during the course of language learning in order to adjust the course to the learners. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) emphasize the importance of taking learners into account for determining course design during the whole process of language learning by stating that "when considering needs analysis, the learners should be considered at every stage of the process" (p. 67), and that "needs and resources vary with time. Therefore, the course design needs to have built-in feedback channels to enable designers of the course to respond to developments" (p. 74). Figure 1 shows a process suggested by Hutchinson and Waters to analyze needs and thereby design the course.

Determining the Content of the Course--Materials Design

After the needs of the learners are analyzed and objectives of the course are established, the next issue that must be dealt with is designing materials. ESP features materials that are tailored to a certain individual or certain
Figure 1. A Learning-Centered Approach to Course Design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 74)
homogeneous individuals; therefore, materials designed for one situation may not be useful in another. Robinson points out that there is no general version of an ESP course that can suit all situations (Phillips & Shettesworth, 1978). As such, it can be easily realized that the design of materials has become a central tenet of ESP and has to be prudently conducted.

Materials design exerts great influence on the consequence of language learning because different types of language have different types of use. Ellis and Johnson (1994) contend that the choice of materials determines the language to which the learners will be exposed, and the content of what they will learn with respect to vocabulary, structure, and functions. Besides these influences mentioned, the relevance of materials affects the learners' motivation.

To fulfill the course design task, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) present a model from which teachers can work (see Figure 2). This model consists of four parts: input, content focus, language focus, and task. Input may be a variety of materials, such as text, audio-recording, video-recording, or any communication materials. Accordingly, input should be able to provide stimulus materials for activities, new language
items, correct models of language use, a topic for communication, and opportunities for learners to use their prior knowledge both of the language and subject matter (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Content focus helps teachers develop meaningful communication through employing non-linguistic content. It centers on conveyance of information and ideas except for the linguistic features. Language focus provides students with an environment to study how language works and how it is used. Hutchinson and Waters state that good material should offer a chance for learners to practice the analysis and synthesis of language (p. 109). Tasks are designed for learners to do. The objective of language learning is to use language, hence
materials should cover tasks with the use of content focus and language focus.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also claim that the language and content of this model are developed from the input to accomplish the learners' needs to fulfill the task (p. 109). Therefore, it is important for teachers using this model for materials design to maintain the consistency between content focus and language focus in order to reflect the learners' needs. In summary, this model provides an outline for the teachers to integrate all facets of language learning, and at the same time does not confine the development of creativity.

Suggestions for English for Specific Purposes Teaching

ESP has been evolving as a subset in the for several decades. Study and research into ESP have been ongoing, and have provided some methods that are believed helpful for language learning in the context of ESP.

Johns (1990) presents an approach in which students keep "academic journalogs" to focus their attention on the topics with which they deal in various classes and the demands of the tasks which they are assigned. Similarly, Sternglass and Pugh (1986) state that learners who write retrospective accounts of their own experience have a relatively clear picture
of the strategies that work for them.

Student-guided courses are greatly recommended by many scholars materials designers. This suggests that students' being deeply involved in all steps of course planning is a stimulus for learning language and will thus facilitate identifying the strategies students need most. Newman-Nowicka (1993) points out that "the student-guided course model is highly motivating for students wishing to work on their English in a way that is directly and immediately useful in their fields of study" (p. 7). The student-guided course allows learners to identify the activities and objectives that help their work in their field. Besides, it also provides relevance, connecting learners' needs and the materials.

As world industrialization increases and thereby the situations in which English is needed also increases, ESP will become more and more complicated. Teaching should thus be aligned with and derived from the needs analysis.

The Current Trends in English for Specific Purposes

To have an understanding of the current development of ESP is as important as to understand the necessary knowledge base for ESP teaching and learning. Ellis and Johnson (1994)
indicate several trends worth considering when teachers address the issue of ESP development.

First of all, the debate between language training and skills training has become a serious issue. Given the time constraints, it is difficult to teach both language and skills. Some teachers are in favor of language training while others are in favor of skill training. To qualify this argument, Ellis and Johnson (1994) point out that some certain facets of skill training (but not all of them) can be better addressed in the first language, without involving English. It is always difficult to strike a balance between English and professional skills when teachers are determining the proportion of each. Therefore, teachers should exert themselves to improve the balance between teaching English and skills; so they will be good not only in teaching, but also in negotiation. In this way they can maintain the balance of different aspects of ESP.

Second, experiential learning has become popular in ESP teaching. Many studies have been carried out about the way people learn effectively. Experiential learning has emerged as a leading philosophy. Ellis and Johnson (1994) indicate that many ideas from experiential learning in industry have influenced the design of ESP courses. They assert that business
games and simulations, which used to be used for management
training, are now widely seen in Business English courses. Therefore, it can be deduced that more and more ideas and
techniques will flourish with the development of various
professional areas, and, as such, these ideas and techniques
will be utilized as sources for ESP materials.

The third current development in ESP is the trend of
crosscultural awareness. This has become a growing issue in
the field of ESP. People's attitudes, expectations, and
management styles can be influenced by their cultural
background. In addition, cultural differences, as Ellis and
Johnson (1994) have stated, may also bear on relationships
and interactions. An English native speaker, when teaching
overseas or teaching a mix of learners from different areas,
may experience various attitudes and reactions from students.
Therefore, the issue of how to properly manage these attitudes
and reactions derived from cultural difference becomes
essential for teachers. Hence, differences in cultural
background should be taken into account when carrying out a
needs assessment for language learning and course design.

Last but not least is the trend in ESP of growing
professionalism. As ESP teaching increases in variety,
capacity, and depth, teachers are required to be more and more demanding. Ellis and Johnson (1994) state that the development of professionalism is relentless and there is no point where teachers can become complacent as ESP becomes even more professionalized.

The implication from these four trends is that the fields and professions upon which ESP are based are complicated and various, and the development of ESP is hard to predict. There is no best ESP teaching, because of the complexity of professional situations. However, there is always one position that can be effectively taken: that the learners' need should be put at the center of the learning process.

Learning Strategies

Improving Taiwan students' proficiency in English using techniques and methods has been an ongoing attempt of Taiwan ESL teachers. However, a more recent trend has been a focus on students' self-managed language learning. Incorporating learning strategies in the classroom is one way to facilitate students' learning.

Investigating how to improve students' learning strategies, researchers found several important results and thus made specific pedagogical suggestions. For instance, Rubin (1975)
and Stern (1975) found that good language learners often do something special or different that improves their language learning. This notion implies that the individuals become more competent because of the way they process information. This underlies the development of the study of learning strategies.

The Importance of Learning Strategies

To understand the importance of learning strategies, one should look at the way strategies influence students’ learning. Good language learners use many different strategies to facilitate their understanding and remembering of new information, while less efficient language learners use relatively few strategies (O’Malley & Chamot, 1988). Most teachers will agree that some students indeed learn more easily than others, and also use more ways to learn English more efficiently. Therefore, the strategies effective students employ may be used as reference points for teachers as they seek to incorporate strategies into language courses. This assumes that learning strategies should be taught in classrooms.

More and more researchers validate learning strategies through their findings, which support the use of their strategies in teaching. As O’Malley and Chamot (1990) have
pointed out, learning strategies have the potential to influence learning outcomes in a positive manner. In one of their studies, they found that students who received strategy use training performed better than those who did not receive the training (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, and Campione (1993) reinforce the advantage of strategy use by stating that the strategies used in learning are the primary determinants of learning outcomes. Similarly, scholars such as McLaughlin, Kinbourne, Cole, Bates, Wodes, and Winitz have acknowledged that language learning strategies exist and influence language learning (summarized in Winitz, 1981). In addition, many researchers believe that learning strategies help students become autonomous learners. Chamot (quoted in Wenden & Rubin, 1987) states that once students are provided with learning tools, they can make more effective use of the learning opportunities outside of class. Therefore, in support of the statement made by the scholars above, one can believe that learning strategies help students to learn on their own when they leave the classroom.

What are Learning Strategies?

Many researchers have explained what learning strategies are; however, there are few common definitions. As Bialystok
(1983) has stated, there is little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of language learning strategies. Despite a lack of clear definition, some convincing descriptions about learning strategies have been widely used in research. For instance, Wenden and Rubin (1987) refer to learning strategies as language learning behaviors in which learners both actually engage in learning, and also regulate the learning of a second language; and, in addition, the knowledge that learners have about the strategies. This pinpoints the twin features of learning strategies as what learners do as well as what learners know. Similarly, Chamot defines learning strategies as “techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information” (Wenden & Rubin, 1987, p. 71). Tarone (1981) stresses the aspect of language competence by noting that learning strategies are intended to develop linguistic and social linguistic competence in the target language. In summary, it can be concluded that learning strategies are the special thoughts or behaviors that students use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.

Learning strategies have a wide range. Generally speaking,
what people do to learn and to improve their learning can be seen as learning strategies. As Wenden and Rubin (1987) state, "learning strategies include any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information" (p. 19). Therefore, learning strategies are broad and various.

According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies have several key features: First, learning strategies contribute to the main goal of communicative competence, and can expand the role of teachers. Second, learning strategies support learning both directly and indirectly. Third, learning strategies are flexible and often conscious, but not always observable. Besides, learning strategies can be taught, and allow learners to become more self-directed. Finally, learning strategies are influenced by a variety of factors; they involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive. In addition, they are specific actions taken by the learner.

Classification of Learning Strategies

Many scholars have tried to differentiate learning strategies into sets of categories. Chamot and O'Malley (1987) group learning strategies into three categories. They are as follows: Metacognitive strategies, higher order executive
skills that may consist of planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity (Brown et al. 1983); cognitive strategies, which are used to directly address incoming information and operate it in ways that enhance learning; and social/affective strategies, which involve either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect (O'Malley & Chamot, 1987). Similarly, Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies into direct strategies and indirect strategies. Both of these can be subdivided into six strategies. Direct strategies entail memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, whereas indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Each of these six strategies can be subdivided into several specific strategies (See Table 2).

**Direct strategies.** refer to strategies directly involving the target language. They require mental work to process the information. However, these three direct strategies permit management of information in different ways and function differently. Oxford (1990) defines memory strategies as those that are used to help students store and retrieve information; cognitive strategies as those that enable students to explore and realize language through different
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<td>Memory strategies</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategies</td>
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<td>1. Centering your learning</td>
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<td>2. Arranging and planning your learning</td>
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<td>Cognitive strategies</td>
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<td>1. Practicing</td>
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<td>Compensation strategies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1. Guessing intelligently</td>
<td>1. Asking questions</td>
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<td>2. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing</td>
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<td>3. Empathizing with others</td>
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Table 2. System of Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 17)
means; and compensation strategies as those that facilitate students' use of the language although they may have a lack of knowledge.

Memory strategies help to create meaning for the information the learner arranges and associates. Oxford states that "for the purpose of learning a new language, the arrangement and associations must be personally meaningful to the learner" (p. 39). By being aware of meaning, learners are able to understand the information and store it. Memory strategies are believed to help learners overcome potential difficulty with a large amount of vocabulary. Oxford (1990) argues that the mind has a potential to store 100 trillion bits of information, but only part of the potential is used without the aid of memory strategies. Memory strategies help to lead information to a level where knowledge is easy to store. Oxford contends that memory strategies help move information from the "fact level" to the "skill level," where information is more easily retrieved and less easily lost (Oxford, 1990).

Cognitive strategies are essential to learning a new language. Brown and Palinscar (1982) argue that cognitive strategies involve manipulation and transformation of the material to be learned. That is, the learner interacts directly
with what is to be learned. Cognitive strategies play an important part in second language acquisition, and are worth teachers' attention. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that without understanding of the interaction between cognition and second language acquisition, people cannot successfully acquire a target language. In Taiwan, cognitive strategies are the most popular with language learners.

The four helper strategies subcategorized under cognitive strategies, practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output, according to Oxford (1990), serve different purposes. As follows are how she explains these four components. First of all, she points out that "reaching acceptable proficiency is a goal which requires hundreds or even thousands of hours of practice" (p. 43). Although small group activities increase the opportunities for learners to practice, still more practice is needed. Therefore, practicing strategies take on great value. Second, she continues that receiving and sending messages help learners locate the main ideas through using such specific techniques as skimming and scanning (Oxford, 1990). This strategy implies that learners do not have to focus on every single word to understand the text. Third, analyzing
and reasoning strategies, in her point of view, are used to help learners construct a model in their minds based on analysis and comparison. This strategy concerns logic analysis and reasoning and thereby learners are able to understand the meaning of a new expression or to create a new expression. Finally, she states that “creating structure for input and output is necessary for both comprehension and production in the new language” (p. 47). Learners often find it difficult to deal with English on occasions such as when listening to radio, watching TV programs, reading lectures and articles, and when preparing for speech and writing. She emphasizes that this strategy stresses such techniques as taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting, which enable learners to structure the input into manageable information (Oxford, 1990).

Compensation strategies purport to make up for a lack of sufficient language repertoire, especially in terms of grammar and vocabulary. Although students do not have adequate knowledge of the target language, they are still able to use the language with the aid of compensation strategies. Oxford (1990) contends that “these strategies enable students to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite
limitations in knowledge" (p. 47). As such, compensation strategies should be productive for students learning English as a second language. However, one might easily assume that these strategies only apply to less proficient learners. In fact, learners that of either advanced or low proficiency can use these strategies to enhance their language learning. Oxford (1990) states that advanced learners and native speakers also use compensation strategies when encountering problems with speaking and writing. Therefore, compensation strategies help students on all different levels and can be widely employed to improve students' learning.

**Indirect strategies.** refer to strategies supporting and processing language without directly involving the target language. According to Oxford (1990), they fall into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. In her point of view, metacognitive strategies enable students to control their own cognition by way of centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. Affective strategies help students to direct their own motivations, emotions, attitudes, and values. Social strategies lead students to learning through interaction with others (Oxford, 1990).

Metacognition is a process through which students monitor
their own thoughts and become aware of their own processing of knowledge. It concerns thinking about, moderating, and assessing one's own learning. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define metacognition as "involving thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production, and self-evaluation" (p. 8). Metacognitive strategies are higher order skills that allow students to explore their learning by means of planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of learning activities (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983). Therefore, metacognition is mainly related to students' self-consciousness of their own learning. Metacognitive strategies have a great influence on students' awareness of their effectiveness of learning and are able to affect students' learning efficacy. These strategies, according to Oxford (1990), can help students focus on the target language by way of paying attention and linking with already familiar knowledge when students are confronted with overwhelming knowledge. In addition, other metacognitive strategies such as arranging and planning for learning can help students to arrange and plan their language learning in an efficient way. Strategies for evaluating their learning enable students to monitor their
own errors and evaluate their own progress. Therefore, by using metacognitive strategies, students are able to overcome their problems. Oxford (1990) states that by using the metacognitive strategies of self-monitoring and self-evaluating, students can overcome their problem of unrealistic monitoring of errors and inadequate evaluation of progress.

Affective strategies influence language learning. These consist of attitudes, self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, inhibition, and culture shock. Oxford (1990) indicates that "the affective side of the learner is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure" (p. 140). Therefore, one can conclude that negative feelings can hinder progress and on the contrary, positive emotions and attitudes can facilitate the effectiveness of learning. These strategies are specifically developed for gaining control of these factors. Good language learners are able to take advantage of these strategies, to control their emotions, and turn negative emotions into positive. Social strategies are essential to language learning. Language is a type of communication. Communication occurs among people, and thus involves interaction. Therefore, strategies for interaction are important to language learning. Oxford (1990) divides
these strategies, which can be called social strategies, into three types: asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others. Asking questions helps students to clarify their misunderstandings and puzzles, and thus have a better understanding of what the information conveys. In addition, asking questions is a stimulus for learners' conversational partners to offer feedback, which can be used by students to check if their production is appropriate. Therefore, asking questions can promote interaction and provide indirect feedback about the learner's skill.

Cooperating, according to Oxford (1990), is imperative for language learners. Cooperation suggests that group spirit is more important than competition. This encourages mutual support. Through this mutual support, students gain the opportunity to use the target language in practical situations and receive feedback for their language mistakes, thus sustaining their interest in learning. Oxford (1990) indicates that in the area of language learning, cooperative learning provides learners such advantages as "stronger language learning motivation, more language practice opportunities, more feedback about language errors, and greater use of different language functions" (p. 146).
Empathy allows one to understand other people’s perspective by putting oneself in their situation. Because of people’s different ability to show empathy, strategies for empathizing with others become essential to understanding the other person’s language. These strategies should be an important lesson in language learning. Empathy becomes an important issue when one comes to terms with information conveyed by people of diverse cultural backgrounds. Oxford (1990) states that social strategies can help all learners increase their ability to empathize by developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others’ thoughts and feelings (p. 146). For a person interacting with people from diverse cultural backgrounds, these strategies are especially important.

New Roles for Teachers

Teachers in Taiwan, in common with teachers in the U.S., are traditionally expected to be authority figures. They are seen in various roles such as instructor, judge, leader, evaluator, director, and controller. However, these roles may have a negative effect on the development of students’ learning. Oxford (1990) states that in any classrooms, especially language classrooms, the traditional roles cramp communicative
competence because all the communication takes place to and through the teacher.

Instead of the old roles they have been playing, Oxford (1990) suggests that teachers take on the role of "facilitator, helper, guide, consultant, advisor, coordinator, idea person, diagnostician, and co-communicator" (p. 10). Similarly, Wenden and Rubin (1987) indicate that the teacher should facilitate the identification of students' learning strategies. After locating the strategies that work best for students, teachers then have a clue of how to tailor the instruction to these learning strategies to help students obtain the best learning effect. Finding the strategies most often used by students constitutes an important part of this instruction and needs to be the center of the strategy teaching. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that strategies identified as useful by students should become the instructional focus of strategy teaching.

Teaching is also a continuous task; therefore, teachers should conduct and adjust their teaching in the process of reflecting students' learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that "teaching is an active thinking and decision-making process in which the teacher is constantly
assessing what students already know, what they need to know, and how to provide for successful learning” (p. 188).

Teachers’ intervention is important to students’ learning. With the help from teachers, the less proficient students can benefit from the strategies used by more proficient students when teachers intervene.

Suggestions for Implementing Instruction of Learning Strategies

Teaching learning strategies is a complicated task. It involves many aspects that can affect learning and teaching. O’Malley and Chamot state that there are some important factors that need to be considered in teaching strategies. One is students’ characteristics such as age, gender, prior learning experiences, and cultural background. The other one is students’ language proficiency, to which teachers can match the teaching of strategy learning (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, when choosing which strategies to teach, teachers need to consider the students’ language proficiency and characteristics.

Four important issues identified by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) are essential to instruction of learning strategies. These four are as follows: first, teacher development, as the understanding and delivering effective learning strategy
instruction; second, the expansion of instructional materials; third, teacher consideration of the specific scope, sequence, and methods of training activities to meet the needs of particular students. Finally, language proficiency at which strategy training can and should be started.

These suggestions pinpoint the required skills and materials for instruction. However, psychological factors are also vital to instruction of learning strategies. Oxford (1990) contends that positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning far more effective and enjoyable. Teachers can prompt an encouraging emotional atmosphere in the classroom. Oxford suggests three ways teachers can generate a positive effective atmosphere for students: changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, providing increasing amounts of naturalistic communication, and teaching learners to use affective strategies (Oxford, 1990). Unless students start to motivate their own learning, the effect of learning is small.

Developmental Trends in Learning Strategies

Although it is believed that students can acquire their language knowledge through exposing themselves to a communicative context (Krashen, 1982), for learners to
function perfectly in the mainstream subject matter, exposure alone is still inadequate. Learners are viewed as beings who can think, monitor, process, evaluate information and are thus able to control their own development of learning. Therefore, learners are expected to participate in their own learning more actively. This fact, plus Rubin’s (1975) research added to that of other researchers, have prompted the interest in exploring learners’ individual qualities in order to learn new knowledge. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) state that “the literature on learning strategies in second language acquisition emerged from a concern for identifying the characteristics of effective learners” (p. 3). Indeed, recently the focus of the study into strategies has shifted from teaching-centered to learner-centered, that is, to a learner self-aware method (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). This means learners should take responsibility for their learning, for the sake of enhancing their learning more efficiently, and should bear the ability to develop or select the strategies appropriate for them. In addition, they should be able to evaluate whether their learning process and strategies are effective. Therefore, learners will become not only more efficient at learning, but also more capable of self-directing
their learning.

Conclusion

The effects of learning strategies on students have become an undoubted fact and should not be neglected. It is not enough to teach students language skills. Teaching students how to acquire skills, how to learn effectively on their own and become self-aware of their own learning is more important. A Chinese saying says that “give a man a fish and you feed him for a day, while if you teach him to fish, you feed him for a lifetime.” Teaching language may be compared to giving fish to people, while teaching students to identify the appropriate strategies and make the best use of them can be compared to analogized as teaching them to fish. In conclusion, learning strategies are worth great attention from teachers and should be encouraged in Taiwan’s English learning classes.
Negotiation

Negotiation is a human behavior that may take place at anytime in one's life. It is not only a skill to use once in a while when people have to make a deal, but also a way for people to get what they want out of life (Donaldson, 1996, McCrum, 2001). People negotiate all day long. They negotiate on all kinds of occasions such as when buying a car, asking for a raise, when parents want to talk more convincingly with their children, or even when teachers search for a way to get their students to do what they want them to do. Nierenberg (1986) explains why negotiation is needed in human life using a need theory of negotiation. He states that needs and their satisfaction are the common denominator in negotiation. If people have unsatisfied needs, they need to negotiate. Thus whenever people are in conflict with others, they will have to find acceptable solutions to the conflicts for both parties. Therefore, it is believed important in people's lives to understand negotiation, to prepare for negotiation, and to learn and explore the proper strategies of negotiation.

What is Negotiation?

According to Nierenburg's statement about negotiation, needs to be met are occasions for humans to start negotiations.
Nierenburg thinks that this negotiation may happen between individuals acting for themselves or as representatives of organized groups. Although it is similar to bargaining, problem solving, or getting what one needs, negotiation can be seen as a certain type of communication, to which people approach with very different goals from one another.

There is a variety of literature on negotiation, derived from various disciplines. Fang (1999) points out that "negotiation has been approached by scholars from diverse disciplines, such as political science, social psychology, organization, cross-cultural marketing, and communications" (p. 36). As such, it is not difficult to realize how broad might be a definition and why it has been defined in various ways by various scholars. However, even so, one can still find some characteristics that are common to all negotiations. First of all, both common interest and disagreement are needed to start a negotiation. Ikle (1964) contends that "two elements must normally be present for negotiation to take place: there must be both common interests, and also issues of conflict. Without common interests there is nothing to negotiate for; without conflicting issues there is nothing to negotiate about" (p. 2).
Second, negotiation builds on communication. It centers around the interaction between both parties. Lewicki and Litterer (1985) treat social interaction as the heart of the negotiation process or the central instrumental process. Bell (1988) states that negotiation is primarily a complex process of verbal and nonverbal communication (Bell, 1988). According to Zartman (1976), negotiation is by nature a communication encounter. As such, it can be easily deduced that communication is the center part of the negotiation and it plays an important role in the negotiating process.

Third, negotiation requires tactics and strategies, and it involves a process of exchanging proposals and reaching agreement. Putnam & Roloff (1992) argue that "negotiation requires persuasion and problem solving to reach mutual satisfaction, and is distinguished from other types of communication by its focus on adopting strategies for reaching agreement" (p.3). Bartos (1974) defines negotiation as a series of sequences, during which negotiators propose joint strategies, represent demands, offers, and proposals, and tend typically to converge as a result of an exchange of concessions. In this type of interaction, each party manages to obtain a desired goal or to persuade the other side to do what they
would not necessarily want to do. Similarly, for Nemeth and Brilmayer, negotiation is different from other types of communication because it employs strategies and tactics to reach a mutually acceptable agreement (Nemeth & Brilmayer, 1987). Sparks (1982) argues that negotiation is "an attempt to reach an agreement on some issue over which two or more parties disagree" (p. viii). According to Economy (1990), negotiation is a process whereby both parties explore each other's limits and goals. When in negotiation, before both parties reach final settlements, each party will try to push those limits as far as possible for its own interest. Basically, negotiation can thus be seen as a process by which parties use strategies and tactics to come into perfect accord with one another.

Putnam & Roloff (1992) add to the definition of negotiation by indicating that rules and normative practices of negotiation, which includes specifying preferred outcomes, must be set prior to bargaining, and both parties engage in a dynamic interaction through exchanging proposals and counterproposals. Their statement indicates the context and premise in which negotiation occurs. Thus, a host of characteristics feature in the social interaction of
negotiation.

The Qualities of Negotiation

Negotiation has a number of qualities that can be used to address communication difficulties, especially conflicts. According to Brooks and Odiorne (1984), these qualities are follows: (1) negotiation is a vehicle of commercial trade; (2) it involves conferring with another face to face; (3) it involves dealing with, managing, or conducting; (4) it requires clearing hurdles and overcoming obstacles; (5) it requires knowing one’s own goals with crystal clarity; (6) it is impossible without adaptation; (7) it is a major strategy, not a simple package of behaviors; (8) it concerns arranging things in order to win what is important to the negotiator.

Three Major Factors in Successful Negotiations

Brooks and Odiorne (1984) point out that three factors come intoplay when it comes to negotiation: strategic planning, power, and skill. Each of three bears greatly upon a negotiation (p. 46). Brooks and Odiorne use a picture that depicts a bowl, which is labeled “planning”; this bowl contains three balls which respectively represent timing, power, and skill (as Fig. 3). The bowl, planning, is where the negotiation takes place, and it constitutes the structure
and context of the negotiation. The other three elements are balanced by being placed against one another. When one is moved the other two will be thrown off-balance. Therefore, each of them is equally important in determining the outcome of negotiation (Brooks & Odiorne, 1984, p. 45).

Figure 3. The Factors in Negotiation (Brook & Odiorne, 1984, p. 46)

Strategic planning frames the whole negotiation. It plays an important part in determining the negotiating policy, constraints, and loss that is allowed by the parties. Brooks and Odiorne contend that strategic planning involves establishing the limits of control which the parties have over the process and the final results (Brooks & Odiorne, 1984, p. 45). A well-prepared strategic plan allows people to avoid winning the battle only to lose the war, because it aims at
attaining long term goals rather than winning a one-shot session. Brook and Odiorne go on pointing out that strategic management has the following characteristics: one must deal with long-range questions, see all of the elements rather than only those which happen in individual negotiation, and aim at long-range success instead of merely immediate victory. By thinking strategically, which according to Brooks and Odiorne involves setting goals, executing a plan, and reviewing the plan, people can prevent themselves from doing the wrong things from the beginning.

Power bears upon human's behavior to a great extent. Many examples of power influencing people's acts can be seen at workplaces, at home, and at school. Brooks and Odiorne (1984) indicate the importance of power by offering some examples as follows: "The stubborn antagonist becomes an avid supporter. The reluctant customer becomes an eager buyer. The boss who refused permission now willingly supports and endorses a proposed line of action by a subordinate" (p. 62). Therefore, one can easily deduce that people will have more possibilities and leverage of winning a negotiation if they use the influence of power effectively.

French and Raven, two social scientists, have categorized
powers into five types, which are reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, and expert power (French & Raven, 1959). Each of them has a bearing on the climate and environment during a negotiation.

Equally important as power, timing plays a vital part in the process of negotiation. The timing of every sequence during the negotiation influences the consequence. Brooks and Odiorne state that "not only do the actions you take affect the outcome, but also the sequence in which they occur" (Brooks & Odiorne, 1984, p. 142). These days, timing in management has become a subject that is often discussed in management conferences. Management of timing not only smoothes out the process of negotiation but improves efficiency of the parties. Delivering the major points at the right moment for best effect helps the enforcement of argument.

Skill is what the negotiators bring to the negotiation. According to Brooks and Odiorne (1984), crucial are "the verbal, nonverbal, intellectual, political, social, and psychological skills of bargaining" (p. 46). These sharpen the negotiators' weapons. Skopec and Kiely (1994) argue that "the best way to get ready for the big deals, the once-in-a-lifetime opportunities, is to practice the skills you need everyday"
A powerful, but awkward negotiator can be outsmarted sometimes by someone who is less powerful, but witty, competent and masterful in making best use of negotiation skills.

**Preparation for Negotiation**

There are many life situations that require preparation. Negotiation is one of them. Preparation decides the success of a negotiation. Lewiki and Litterer (1985) observed, "Preparation and planning are the most important parts of negotiation" (p. 47). This statement has been agreed upon by many scholars in the world. Karrass states that professional negotiators from the United States report that planning skills are the most important traits a bargainer can have (Karrass, 1970). Graham and Sano (1989) contend that negotiators from many other countries also share the same point of view. Therefore, an adequate preparation for negotiation is widely believed as determining factor of a successful negotiation. Donaldson (1996) points out that a solid negotiation builds on a good preparation and it gives one the confidence one needs for negotiation (p. 25). If the negotiators are well prepared, through being armed with facts and necessary information, they are able to deal with the negotiation from a position of strength. Therefore, a successful result of negotiation calls for a very
intensive preparation.

Economy (1990) points out that the key to successful negotiation is preparation (p. 46). He suggests that the P_R_E_P system be the four things to prepare for a negotiation. These four essential elements of preparation are Preparing people’s goal, Researching the topic, Evaluating their counterpart, and Preparing their rationale (p. 48). Nierenberg (1968) has developed some strategies for preparation that include having an intimate knowledge of oneself, doing an objective research, and employing new methods such as adopting the techniques of group drama, brainstorming, and the conference (p. 56). Skopec and Kiely (1994) point out that the R_E_P_A cycle, which are Relate, Explore, Propose and Agree (see next section), can be used to take advantage of preparation by developing an outline for the negotiation (p. 76). As a matter of fact, the act of preparing not only continues throughout a negotiation but also throughout one’s life. If people explore and probe well for negotiation, they may uncover additional information that may not have been available from any other source. Furthermore, if they face the same subject matter in the future, the benefits from their previous preparation can last long
after a specific negotiation is finished. Therefore, people can gain themselves a great deal of advantage by spending adequate effort to prepare.

During the Process of Negotiation

Negotiation is seen as a sequence of stages, either organized in well-articulated patterns, (Kaufmann, 1988), or overlapping and developing over time in a rather haphazard or even confused way. Skopec and Kiely (1994) indicate a natural order to negotiation, which is recognized by many skilled negotiators and careful observers (p. 39). This order goes from Relate, to Explore, Propose, and Agree. Relate means building a relationship. Explore means exploring the interests of both sides. Propose means developing proposals. Agree means reaching agreement. They go on to use a picture that depicts the points for which a negotiator absolutely must prepare (Figure 4). The Relate Explore Propose Agree (R E P A) cycle shows a clear relationship among two parties, and by which we can readily see how both sides interact. Odiorne and George (1984) suggest that ten standard items form an agenda for negotiating sessions. Table 3 explains these ten items. This agenda somewhat overlaps Skopec and Kiely’s R E P A cycle, but they all are recognized as one of other effective ways.
to get to a mutual agreement.

Figure 4. The Relate Explore Propose Agree Cycle (Skopec & Kiely, 1994, p. 60)

This agenda somewhat overlaps Skopec and Kiely’s R E P A cycle, but they all are recognized as one of other effective ways to get to a mutual agreement.

Strategies for Negotiation

Certainly, proper preparation is the starting point, and reaching the final objective is the parties’ destination. However, the progress of negotiation is greatly influenced by the strategies adopted at the bargaining table. Using a wrong strategy can hinder one’s approach and even cause a losing outcome, while the right tactics can help people attain a successful result.

Because a successful negotiation can be achieved by using
### Table 3. The Agenda for Negotiation Sessions (Brooks & Odiorne, 1984, pp. 98-99)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing Common Objectives</td>
<td>Despite conflicts of interests and goals, there are areas of common benefit and a desire to arrive at agreement. Identifying these common objectives and referring to them throughout the bargaining sessions is essential for both sides.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas of Difference</td>
<td>A progressive step is to decide the subject matter on which there is lack of agreement, the degree of these differences, their relative importance, and priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Experiences</td>
<td>Focusing attention on specific happenings, incidents, problems, and experiences of mutual interest will gain more than discussing abstractions and principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining Terms</td>
<td>Misunderstandings often occur over terminology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Try to give attention in order to gain understanding of the other side's positions and to recognize concessions and counteroffers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade-offs</td>
<td>Give as well as take is part of bargaining. Benefits require pay through trade-offs. Each party leaves the negotiation with some reward rather than a &quot;win-lose.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. The Agenda for Negotiation Sessions (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrowing Differences</th>
<th>Negotiation require the differences between parties to be narrowed progressively.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keeping Open Position</td>
<td>Minimize stalemates, ridicule, abuse, boxing into a corner, or break-offs. Showing respect and consideration avoids hardening of a position. Offer alternative methods of achieving a common goal. Blend interests, do not depend too much on logic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalities</td>
<td>Know yourself, the group you represent, and get to know the persons with whom you negotiate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement</td>
<td>Recognize when you are close to agreement—whether by choice, gestures, expression, or lack of objections. Close the deal. Do not overkill or lose the agreement by continued selling. Make sure each party has gained and that agreement will have mutual benefits.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

proper strategies and tactics, the choice of strategies and tactics becomes important. Pruitt and Robin (1986) state that contending, problem solving, and yielding are three strategies among which the negotiators continually face a choice (Kremenyuk, 1991, p. 78). The first two strategies can be viewed as alternative ways to attain goals. In contending, by trying to persuade the other party to concede, the negotiators attain their goals. In problem solving, they
achieve their goals by finding a choice that can satisfy both of the parties. The third strategy, yielding, refers to reducing the party’s demand, that both parties make concessions to get what they really want. Every strategy has its own strength and weakness, and no single strategy can apply in any kind of occasion; therefore, choosing a proper strategy to negotiate on the occasion is important. Skopec & Kiely (1994) recommend ten common strategies for negotiation which are shown in Table 4:

Table 4. Ten Common Negotiation Strategies (Skopec & Kiely, 1994, p. 92-101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pseudo Problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trade-Off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Positioning for Acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Power Play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Fait Accompli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. FunnyMoney (An attempt to minimize the cost of a transaction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Decoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Impasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Refusing to negotiate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these strategies is for different occasions and is suggested by them to be employed depending on the extent One
cares about the relationship with the other party. Nierenberg (1987) separates negotiation strategies into two classes which are "when" strategies and "how and where" strategies. These strategies are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Two Classes of Negotiation Strategies (Nierenberg, 1987)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When</th>
<th>How and Where</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. forbearance</td>
<td>1. participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. surprise</td>
<td>2. association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fait accompli</td>
<td>3. disassociation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. bland withdrawal</td>
<td>4. crossroads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. apparent withdrawal</td>
<td>5. blanketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. reversal</td>
<td>6. random sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. limits feinting</td>
<td>7. salami</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. bracketing</td>
<td>9. agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. shifting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Knowing how to recognize and use these strategies is essential for success at the bargaining table. Fuller (1991) states that "whether or not you personally employ a particular strategy, it is necessary to recognize each and every one that may be used against you" (p. 86). When people have an understanding of these strategies, they will be able to figure out what their counterparts really want, how they are going
to deal with them and how to cope with them.

With the development of the world and the interaction among humans, the dilemmas will become more and more complex. Certainly, people all have experienced the need for bargaining in their everyday individual interactions. Putnam and Roloff (1992) state that conflict in this country is a "growth industry" that pervades international relations, organizational processes, international diplomacy, and media content (Putnam & Roloff, 1992). Therefore, one can readily see negotiation occurring anywhere, anytime. Instances range from informal marital interaction, to superior-subordinate communication, customer-merchant exchange, companies' battle over merger agreement, and settlement of longstanding trade or border disputes between nations. Fortunately, negotiation, a tool anyone can use effectively, provides a solution to these dilemmas. Through practice and employment of proper strategies, anyone can have a good command of negotiation.

Ultimately, negotiation is another form of communication that functions to turning the one-way communication of requests into a two-way give-and-take by which parties make their requests and then interact with others to fulfill them (Economy, 1990). As long as people make the best of preparation and employ
the right strategies, negotiation should help them achieve a majority of their objectives.

Communicative Competence

Communication is an essential feature of human life. People communicate in either verbal or non-verbal ways in such aspects as interviewing; conflict settlement; initiating and maintaining relationships, and making speeches, persuasion, social conversations and a number of other interactions. Competence determines the quality of a communication. Spitzberg & Cupach (1984) state that "We use communication in virtually every facet of our lives. Competence is an issue both perennial and fundamental to the study of communication" (p. 11). Communication, in fact, is an event that exists whenever people interpersonally exchange their thoughts and ideas. Therefore, it is important to develop the ability to communicate.

As aforementioned, communication exists everywhere; it takes place on different occasions and at different places. Therefore, it is important to communicate in proper ways. It is an incompetent speaker who uses colloquial talk with everyone or who randomly intersperses sentences in baby talk or in a second language regardless of circumstances.
In sum, learning how to communicate properly is important to people in both their private and public lives. Proper communication helps people to have a better understanding of themselves and others, to assimilate more ideas from others and to have less isolation from others.

The Importance of Communicative Competence

People may underestimate the role that communication plays in their daily lives. In fact, it bears greatly on people’s interactions whether they are able to effectively convey meaning or not. An idea gotten across improperly may not only decrease the effect of communication, but may also cause a conflict between people.

One of the oldest essays discovered was written about 3000 B.C, so it is easy to see why Fisher (1978) argues that the importance of communication in daily human life has been a topic of concern for more than 2500 years (Fisher, 1978). However, although this focus on communication has lasted for a long time, people still lack a common understanding as to the nature of communicative competence. Spitzberg & Cupach (1984) state that “the need to specify the nature of communication competence is significant. It is the yardstick for measuring the quality of our interpersonal relationships”
Therefore, it is necessary for people to find the best way to communicate well.

What is most important is the way an idea is expressed. In many contexts, conveyance speaks louder than intent. Savigon (1997) points out that what matters is not the intent but the interpretation of the communicative act. If people want to sound like they belong to a certain field, they have to talk the way those in that field talk when they are on the job. Paulston (1974) states that care must be taken to provide an authentic second language context for the interpretation of meaning. In other words, if care is absent, the communicative competence cannot live up to expectation.

What is Communicative Competence?

Due to the fact that communication entails many aspects, and that "competence" often has disputable meanings, it is a difficult task to define the term "communicative competence." A number of scholars have offered definitions, and clearly, communicative competence means different things to different scholars.

First of all, it may be better to understand "competence" first than to look at the whole term together. According to Bostrom (1984), competence may be defined as "the knowledge
of appropriate communication patterns in a given situation and the ability to use the knowledge” (p. 25). Bostrom (1984) recognizes that ability and knowledge are two major factors of communication competence (Bostrom, 1984). He also enlists McCroskey’s definition to support his own. For McCroskey, communicative competence is an adequate ability to make ideas known to others by talking or writing. He also said that communication competence requires not only the ability to perform communication behaviors well but also to have an understanding of those behaviors (Bostrom, 1984, p. 264). According to these scholars, a case may be made that competence refers to the abilities of individuals, and individual communicative abilities are obviously affected by a consciousness of what those abilities actually are.

Some scholars explain the meaning of communicative competence, using a broader scope and range of detail of it. According to Allen & Brown (1976), “communicative competence is characterized by four features: (1) the exercise of competence depends on an available repertoire of experiences; (2) it requires that the individual make critical choices from that repertoire; (3) it is revealed when suitable behaviors are brought to bear in performing desired tasks; and (4) it
is sustained when individuals are able to evaluate their performance behaviors objectively—thereby enriching their repertoires of experience" (Allen & Brown, 1976, p. 248). As such, people know that communicative competence has many components in relation to the ability of a person to demonstrate language use. It has an even larger scope than linguistic competence. Hymes, one of the first scholars to use the term "communicative competence" (Hymes, 1974), argues that the ability to communicate includes not only knowing the grammatical codes but also knowing what to say to whom in what situations and how to say it (Hymes, 1974). From his point of view, one can see that communicative competence outweighs linguistic competence. According to Chomsky (1965), communicative competence is often used as a term that includes linguistic competence in second language learning (Chomsky, 1965). Similarly, Canale and Swain’s framework (1984) indicates various expanded notions of communicative competence. In their opinion, communicative competence involves four areas: (1) grammatical competence, which refers to knowledge of linguistic rules; (2) sociolinguistic competence, which reflects the degree to which people’s conveyance is realized; (3) discourse competence, which is concerned with how people
are able to bring together grammatical forms and meaning to accomplish a written text in different types of literature; and (4) strategic competence, which addresses having control over employing strategies to improve the effectiveness of communication (Swain, 1984). In addition, Spitzberg & Cupach (1984) point out that unlike linguistic competence, which is only related to what is grammatical, communicative competence has much to do with what is situationally appropriate. Thus, while linguistic competence is concerned with grammatical knowledge, communicative competence suggests knowledge of cultural and social interaction for appropriate communicating.

Communicative competence is not just a term; it is a concept important to understanding interpersonal interaction. When one understands what communicative competence really is, it is a commonplace that one can have a point of view that communicative competence deeply influences how people ask questions and seek the solutions. Therefore, to demonstrate appropriate communication in a given context, one must possess many of the skills and repertoires that are included in communicative competence.
Why does Communicative Competence Have to be a Part of Second Language Acquisition?

Communicative competence plays an important part in second language acquisition. The way people talk and act greatly influences what they learn. This fact is especially true in an EFL context. Because of a lack of knowledge of cultural and social background, non-native speakers of English have more learning difficulty with language appropriateness than do native speakers of English. Therefore, it is clear that having an understanding about communication is one of the keys to second language learning.

Increasing crosscultural interaction makes the use of English a commonplace nowadays; therefore, communicative competence is profoundly necessary. Undoubtedly, people from different cultural backgrounds have more difficulty in interchanging their thoughts. The necessity to communicate in the context of different cultures leads to a profound need for teaching communicative competence in second language acquisition. Paulston (1974) states that the necessity to develop communicative competence is especially important in second language teaching where the fact that the speakers are using the same national language easily obscures the equally important fact that the speakers may not share the same rules.
for speaking (Paulston, 1974). Similarly, Hymes (1974) states that communicative competence is considered to be essential to second language students' participation in the target language culture (Hymes, 1974). Communicative competence is already believed to be an important component in the process of second language learning.

As previously mentioned, communicative competence has been a focus for a long period of time. Similarly, it has long been a part of education. Bostrom (1984) states that as early as the fifth century B.C., some schools for learning communication were established in Greece. He continues that the oldest extant book, known as Precepts, is a treatise on effective communication; this book was written in Egypt around 2600 years ago. The oldest essay ever found, which dates back to 3000 B.C., was written for advice on how to effectively communicate (p. 260). The concern of communicative competence in education has continued to the present.

**How Communicative Activities Can Help Learning**

Most of peoples' repertoires of communication are acquired unconsciously because of their own successful experiences in communication, and their ability to absorb successful ideas from others. Savigon (1993) points out that people develop
their communication strategies unconsciously through assimilation of role models—persons they admire and want to resemble to some extent—and the success they experience in their interactions (Savigon, 1993). The acquisition of communication in fact occurs anytime and anywhere when people interact with others. However, this is not the case for communicating in a second language; due to the lack of cultural background and social context, utterance appropriateness often becomes a problem with getting the right ideas across. Second language speakers’ understanding of what others convey becomes fuzzy and vague. These facts impede the progress of communication. Fortunately, communicative competence has been included in the curriculum. In addition, many scholars have proposed several teaching suggestions. As follows are some of those believed to be productive and helpful for learning English as a second language for Taiwan’s college students.

**Group discussion.** Group discussion provides an important opportunity for students to exercise many communication skills. Savigon (1993) points out that teachers can facilitate group discussion to offer students practice in turn-taking, getting attention from the groups, stating their views, and perhaps
disagreeing with others besides in informal conversation practice (Savigon, 1993). In addition, group discussion provides a chance for students to sharpen the skills of conveying their views, standing their ground, and making clear their views. Through repeated exercise, the learners can internalize these communicative repertoires by nature.

**Written communication.** Written work such as reports, essays, business letters, and job applications have long been included in school curricula, and provide students with writing practice (Savigon, 1997). Although writing exercise is routine practice in U.S. schools, it is not as popular in Taiwan. However, it is indeed a productive method to improve communication in the written aspect.

**Exposure to unscripted and unknown English.** Listening to an extended English discussion is a vital part of learning to communicate in English. However, for ESL students, dealing with unfamiliar and unexpected English is a formidable task. Clearly, most students have a lack of confidence and will not be able to understand every word in the excerpts. To conquer this problem, Savigon (1993) suggests that teachers give students the confidence not to panic when they understand they have missed a word or a phrase (Savigon, 1993). The goal of
this practice is to help students deal with unknown language.

**Concern for cultural context.** Paulston (1974) states that the goal of communicative competence is not attained if teachers fail to provide a second language cultural context for the interpretation of meaning. From her point of view, it is easy to see the importance of creating a cultural context. Similarly, Savigon (1993) thinks that Paulston's concern for authenticity in classroom is a valid attempt to duplicate an L2 culture. Social meaning is so important that one must place it at the heart of communication.

**Bridging the gap between linguistic and communicative competence.** There is certainly a difference between language learning and language using. Classroom drills cannot completely address the issues in the real world. Some scholars have perceived this phenomenon and state their views about the acquisition of communicative competence. Rivers (1973) perceives language acquisition as starting from interaction for communicative purpose (Rivers, 1973). Schulz and Bartz (1975) express a similar view that the teaching of communicative competence has a progression from rote, structured drills to meaningful language use.

There are several suggestions made by these scholars about
how to bridge this gap between language learning and language use. Valette (1977) has listed five goals from simple behaviors to complex ones. These are as follows: (1) mechanical skills, including students’ use of rote memory instead of understanding; (2) knowledge, students’ collection of facts, rules and data related to foreign language learning; (3) transfer, students’ use of knowledge in new situations; (4) communication, students’ use of the foreign language and culture as natural tools for communication; and (5) criticism, students’ ability to assess or evaluate the foreign language. Teachers can develop curricula according to these objectives above, which involve students in autonomous activities where students may produce the same type of reaction as in the real world. Savigon (1993) suggests that teachers alternatively concentrate on teaching the referential meaning of language and go beyond to the social meaning of language (Savigon, 1993). In sum, teachers may design a program that involves practice from artificial drill to real language use and from linguistic purpose to communicative goals.

For students who are entering their adult lives, Savigon suggests several avenues to enhance their communication repertoires such as assertiveness training, the development
of strategies for overcoming stage fright, and an awareness of body language. These methodologies should be helpful for adults to be better communicators in their lives.

Conclusion

Despite the fact that people interact everyday, they often still lack the skills and knowledge of how to perform proper communication. This fact highlights the need for teaching communicative competence. Mehan (1979) suggests that people need to learn that with whom, when, and where they can speak and act. For this, they must have speech. The skills of communication are not innate but acquired by learning. This fact in turn leads to a need for people to value communicative competence.

Undoubtedly, communication is a powerful tool in modern society. Making the best use of communication can be productive to human lives. Gumperz (1982) states that "control over one's life in all areas depends on the ability to communicate effectively" (p. 82). This issue of effectively using communication is especially vital nowadays, because people must often deal with others who have diverse social and cultural backgrounds, and who may not share their basic assumptions. It is obvious that to have good human relations, one needs
support and approval from others; hence, people should never neglect the acquisition of communicative competence.

The written composition of ESL has been a requirement for most students in Taiwan, and is one of the requirements of entrance exams as well. Oral communication, although not as common as written composition, is a popular class in all the universities and many high schools. Taiwanese society nowadays is even more complicated than it used to be. As such, communicative competence will play an even more profound role in human society. Therefore, the instruction of communicative competence is required to a great extent.

Critical Thinking

Learning to think critically is essential to learning. Critical thinking can result in a decision, a speech, a proposal, an experiment, or a document like a position paper. It can result in a new way of approaching significant issues in one's life or create a deeper understanding of the basis for one's actions (Brookfield, 1987). In recent years, critical thinking has become a major focus of conferences, publications, and programs in higher education (Kurfiss, 1988). Against this background is the increasing inability of college students to reason, which in turn leads to college graduates who are
incapable of managing a business.

Why Critical Thinking is Essential to Doing Business in English

Society is in a state of continuous change, with morality, technology, and business changing more rapidly than has any other society in human history. Unlike times when there was comparative social stability, the latter half of the twentieth century featured economic, technological, political, and social changes. Now, more than ever, thinking critically is a matter of sheer survival (Scriven, 1985). In a time when speaking English is more important than ever, non-native speakers of English face more confusing problems regarding finance and the economy than they ever had before. They thus need efficient problem solving approaches appropriate to English-speaking situations. Critical thinking is one of the methods that fit the bill, because it is specifically designed for effectively solving problems. Schein (1985) suggests that a factory or business will likely be more productive and less subject to crippling stoppages when it encourages the workforce to examine critically the assumptions that underlie policies and habitual practices. That is to say, when people think critically, they will tend to solve situations more easily.
Definitions of Critical Thinking

As a concept, critical thinking has been defined in a variety of ways. Although many definitions have been proposed, they tend to be similar in content yet have a slight difference in emphasis. Critical thinking has been interpreted as the development of logical reasoning abilities (Hallet, 1984; Ruggiero, 1975), as the application of reflective judgement (Kitchener, 1986), as assumption hunting (Scriven, 1976), and as the creation, use, and testing of meaning (Hullfich & Smith, 1961). These scholars above state that the term "critical thinking" is largely based on the process of logical thinking and reasoning. In critical thinking, one thinks over an issue repeatedly by means of reasoning, assuming, testing and verifying the possibilities concerning the issue. Therefore, critical thinking can be basically seen as an investigation through which people can explore a situation, question, or phenomenon, and thereby form their hypothesis and have these hypotheses justified.

Some scholars equate critical thinking with questioning or doubting beliefs. Maiorana (1992) sees critical thinking as the questioning or inquiry that is engaged in when one seeks to understand, evaluate, or resolve. John Dewey (1933) defines
the essence of critical thinking as "suspended judgement," or healthy skepticism. In addition, he indicates some qualities that might characterize critical thinking, which encompass active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it. Therefore, for such scholars as Dewey, skepticism is the core of critical thinking. Similarly, Ruggeriero (1984) has a point of view that supports Dewey. In his book Beyond Feelings: A Guide To Critical Thinking, Ruggeriero proposes that people think critically when they evaluate and judge the accuracy of statements and the soundness of the reasoning that leads to conclusions. He goes on to spell out that critical thinking helps to interpret complex ideas, appraise the evidence offered in support of arguments, and distinguish between reasonableness and unreasonableness (Ruggiero, 1984, p. 13). By means of thinking through this skeptical and justifying process, people get a fuller understanding of the problems they confront.

Critical thinking entails a variety of facets and features many characteristics. Thomas (1972) argues that it is a higher order cognitive taxonomy, which includes the skills of learning-to-learn, communication, classifying and comparing,
synthesizing and producing, judging and inferring, and valuing and decision making. Ennis (1962) lists various aspects of critical thinking, including analytical and argumentative capacities such as recognizing ambiguity in reasoning, identifying contradictions in arguments, and ascertaining the empirical soundness of generalized conclusions. By means of this thinking process which incorporates characteristics such as analyzing, making argument, recognizing ambiguity, identifying contradiction, and so forth, people are able to know, explore, and deal with convergent issues and seek divergent views. Also, using critical thinking, people are able to formulate and attain goals. Halpern (1984) equates critical thinking with a rational and purposeful attempt to use thought in moving toward a future goal. Critical thinking, as such, is believed to be able to help people address significant issues in their lives or a deeper knowledge of their behaviors.

Other definitions include the notions that critical thinking is the ability that distinguishes biased reasoning and fact from opinion (O'Neil, 1985), a certain combination of what one might think of as a willingness, or disposition, together with the appropriate knowledge and skills, to engage
in an activity or problem with reflective skepticism (McPeck, 1990). This is productive thinking that leads to advances in knowledge (Werthheimer, 1964), and the process of generalizing, concluding, or comparing and contrasting (Taba, 1959). Although they have different definitions about critical thinking, all of these scholars have one idea in common: critical thinking involves an evaluation and justification of any given issue.

Strategies for Cultivating Critical Thought

There have been a number of methods developed for cultivating critical thinking. Kurfiss (1988) presents organized strategies to help establish ability of critical thinking. These strategies can be formal or informal. Jones (1995) points out that six skills must be developed for building critical thinking ability: interpretation skills, analysis skills, evaluation skills, presenting arguments skills, inference skills, and reflection skills.

To help students develop these essential skills, teachers need to choose from many strategies what are best for their students. According to Paul, there are a variety of effective strategies for critical thinking which fall into three categories: affective strategies, cognitive
strategies—Macro-abilities, and cognitive strategies—Micro-Skills. Each category includes a few strategies, which are listed in Table 6.

Thinking independently. Many taken-for-granted beliefs are acquired at an early age. Many are formed because of the influence of others. This hinders the development of critical thinking. Meyers (1986) proposes that one barrier that hinders students' interest is the negative preconceptions students often bring to the study of particular academic disciplines. Critical thinkers should not passively accept other people's beliefs. On the contrary, they should scrutinize issues on their own and reveal and eradicate erroneous ideas. As Paul et al. (1989) point out, critical thinking is autonomous thinking, thinking for oneself. An independent thinker will be able to use prior knowledge to choose relevant information from irrelevant information, and decide the right action to take.

Exploring thoughts underlying feelings and feelings underlying thoughts. People respond with feeling when facing a situation, and then later have thoughts about it. In fact, the human thoughts are intertwined with human feelings. Paul et al. (1989) think that virtually all the human feelings are
Table 6. Critical Thinking Strategies (Paul, Binker, Martin, and Adamson, 1989)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affective Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. thinking independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. exploring thoughts underlying feelings and feelings underlying thoughts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. developing intellectual courage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. developing intellectual perseverance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Strategies: Macro-Abilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. developing one’s perspective: creating or exploring beliefs, arguments, or theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. clarifying issues, conclusions, or beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. clarifying and analyzing the meaning of words or phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. evaluating the credibility of sources of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. questioning deeply: raising and pursuing root or significant questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. analyzing or evaluating arguments, interpretations, beliefs, or theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. generating or assessing solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. analyzing or evaluating actions or policies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Strategies: Micro-Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. comparing and contrasting ideals with actual practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. examining or evaluating assumptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. distinguishing relevant from irrelevant facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. recognizing contradictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. exploring implications and consequences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
based on some level of thought and virtually all the thought is generative of some level of feeling. A critical thinker realizes that feelings can be changed after looking at issues from different facets. As Paul points out that people can better understand themselves by asking themselves “How have I come to feel this way? How am I looking at the situation?” Critical thinkers seek their assumptions, inferences, and other ways of interpreting the situations they are facing. They therefore are able to see the thoughts underlying the feelings and the feelings underlying the thoughts.

Developing intellectual courage. Many ideas are acquired uncritically and passively because everyone takes them for granted or because “authorities” say they are true or useful. Some ideas usually considered wrong turn out to be justified, and some ideas widely believed turn out to be suspects. However, to face and deal with these firm beliefs takes courage. Brookfield (1987) states that challenging unquestioned assumptions, looking skeptically at “givens,” and trying to shake off habitual ideas and behaviors to release the potential for alternatives are emotionally potent activities. He goes on to point out: “They may well produce anxiety, fear, resentment, and feelings of being threatened or intimidated.” Paul et al.
(1989) state “it will take courage to be true to our own thinking, for honestly questioning our deeply held beliefs can be difficult and sometimes frightening, and the penalties for non-conformity are often severe” (p. 64). Therefore, to create an environment with this atmosphere of encouragement is important for teachers and students.

Developing intellectual good faith or integrity. Developing faith to one’s own thought helps people become a critical thinker. As Paul et al. (1989) state, critical thinkers will recognize the need to be true to their own thought, and to be consistent in the intellectual standards they apply. They will thus only believe what has been justified by their own thought and analyzed experience. Because there is a human tendency that for opinions to be greatly influenced by peers, it is easy to lose one’s integrity of thought and action. Paul et al. go on to state that we tend to over-estimate on other’s positive characteristics when they appear to like us, and tend to underrate them when they dislike us.

Developing one’s own perspective: creating or exploring beliefs, arguments or theories. The difference between critical thinkers and uncritical ones is that critical thinkers learn to distinguish correct perspectives from unexplored ones,
while uncritical thinkers assume that their thoughts are the only correct ones. Paul et al. (1989) argue that critical thinkers should be able to develop their points of view through a critical analysis of their experience, and they should be able to doubt widely believed ways of realizing things and avoid uncritically accepting their peer group’s points of view. Through an analysis of their own and others’ perspectives, they learn the ability to assess bias, narrowness, and contradictions.

Clarifying issues, conclusions, or beliefs. It is important to find what is required prior to making a conclusion. Whether one agrees or disagree with a claim, people cannot make their decisions without reason. They have to understand the issue they are facing thoroughly, then proceed to combine judgment with understanding. Paul et al. (1989) state that critical thinkers will distinguish facts from interpretations, opinions, judgments, or theories by raising questions most appropriate to understanding each issue, then come to a conclusion. Therefore, in order to develop critical thinking, the skill to clarify issues, conclusions, or beliefs is important.
Clarifying and analyzing the meaning of words or phrases. A critical thought is a clear thought. A critical thinker is able to provide unequivocal statement in order to use ideas clearly. On the contrary, the thoughts of uncritical thinkers are unclear, and words are not used clearly, or specifically. To be a critical thinker, people need to possess the ability to think independently and the ability to analyze a concept, that is to say, to be able to clarify and analyze the meaning of words or phrases.

Evaluating the credibility of sources of information. Not every source of information is reliable. A critical thinker should be able to compare different sources of information, and be able to determine whether a source is reliable to know when formulating conclusions. Paul et al. (1989) suggest that a critical thinker employ analysis, note areas of agreement, and gather further information where sources disagree, to determine whether or not a source of information is credible.

Questioning deeply: Raising and pursuing root or significant questions. Critical thinkers should possess the ability to understand an issue in depth. When they address a problem, they look for issues and concepts underlying the problem studied. They are always eager to explore the truth
of a matter. Paul et al. (1989) state that "they are able to cover relevant aspects in a process of thoughts and discussion, use important issues to organize their thought and are not limited by accepted ways of doing things" (p. 77). By being so, people are in turn able to fully understand the root of the issue. To develop a critical thinker, people should be encouraged to explore the reasons and purpose underlying the issues. They will thus be able to develop their own categories, and will realize not only the importance and value of the issue, but see the whole process of the matter.

Analyzing or evaluating arguments, interpretations, beliefs, or theories. When evaluating arguments, critical thinkers take various viewpoints into account and manage to find the reasons. Paul et al. (1989) state that a critical thinker will use analytic tools to understand the issue and determine its weakness and strengths rather than accepting any reasoning based on the preconception of what is true. When they are given an argument, they are sensitive to possible evidence. They will manage to find the difference between evidence and argument, and inspect the assumptions on which the issue is based until they are able to verify it.
Generating or assessing solutions. When dealing with problems, people have to be creative when generating solutions because solutions are not often given. Critical thinkers use everything helpful to find out the solution. Instead of jumping to conclusions, they are willing to take time creating their thoughts precisely and accurately. Paul et al. (1989) state that a critical thinker must be a creative thinker as well, thinking out the possible solutions. They are always willing to try any ideas or thoughts that could be possible for use.

Analyzing or evaluating actions or policies. Critical thinking involves not only an analysis of reasoning but also an analysis of consistency between actions and stated intentions. Paul et al. (1989) think that critical thinking includes an analysis of behavior or policy and a recognition of the reasoning that behavior and policies presupposes. Critical thinkers will develop their opinions about action according to the assumptions with which they have rationally agreed.

Comparing and contrasting ideals with actual practice. The confusion between ideal and facts exists everywhere. Paul, et al. (1989) argue that the confusion of facts with ideals
hinders people from achieving their ideals. In contrast to uncritical thinkers, critical thinkers strive to find gaps between facts and ideals. They are concerned with consistency. Therefore, they will work to decrease inconsistency.

Examining or evaluating assumptions. Usually people are not aware of assumptions, because they form their reasoning by taking what they believe for granted. Critical thinkers are eager to find the truth. They have a tendency not to accept weak reasoning. Therefore, "they have the intellectual courage to seek out and reject false assumptions" (Paul et al., 1989, p. 93). As critical thinkers, people have to be willing to scrutinize all possibilities that an assumption can have to find out the right solution. And an acceptance or rejection of an assumption should be always based on discrete scrutiny.

Distinguishing relevant from irrelevant facts. Critical thinking requires an ability to distinguish relevant facts from irrelevant ones. Critical thinkers can perceive the facts that affect the matter they confront and will not let irrelevant facts influence their thoughts and conclusion.
Recognizing contradiction. Contradictions exist everywhere in people’s lives. For instance, people often have inconsistency between word and deed. Paul et al. (1989) state that consistency is a fundamental ideal of critical thinkers. Critical thinkers should be able to find points of agreement and specify points of contradiction.

Exploring implications and consequences. Statements people make when they have an interpersonal interaction sometimes are not explicit. One can develop a better understanding of the meaning of these statements’ by exploring their implications. A critical thinker will think over the consequences of acting on the thoughts regarding to the statements.

Conclusion

A forward-looking education must be built on the twin foundations of knowing how to learn and knowing how to think clearly about the rapidly proliferating information with which we all have to contend (Halpern, 1997). If people cannot think intelligently about a multitude of problems around them, they may jeopardize themselves and others by having answers coming out of unexplored thoughts. Therefore, critical thought should be everywhere; it should permeate humans’ lives. As
educators, teachers need to assume more responsibility for developing students' critical thinking.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Based on the review of current literature, a disciplinary framework can be developed, directed by theoretical themes in the field of ESP, critical thinking, negotiation, learning strategies, and communicative competence. This theoretical framework consists of three domains (see Figure 5). The encompassing domain of the framework, the context domain, is ESP. The context domain identifies the target language, which is business English. Entailed in the context domain is the learning philosophy domain. The learning philosophy domain underlies the learning methodologies, and assists learners in locating the appropriate learning strategies. Within the learning philosophy domain, three elements, negotiation skills, critical thinking, and communicative competence, comprise the topic domain. Each of three elements overlaps each other, which means that each of three takes advantage of one another and that satisfying the needs for business English is dependent upon the skill development of these three elements.
Figure 5. A Model of the Theoretical Framework

Context Domain: ESP

Learning Philosophy Domain: Learning Strategies

Critical Thinking

Topic Domain

Negotiation

Communicative Competence
Context Domain: English for Specific Purposes

The term English for Specific Purposes identifies the context for the curriculum of this project. It provides an approach for teachers to determine both learners' needs and interest and thereby develop the appropriate curriculum. In this project, the learners' needs correspond to business English skills in terms of negotiation, communicative competence, and critical thinking, according to what often takes place in Taiwan's business field.

The content of ESP in Chapter Two has shown that ESP features the English knowledge and abilities that enable learners to perform well in their occupation. Therefore, it suggests that the learners would be those who consider their skills of English as a second language to be important to their current profession or future career.

This curriculum builds on this feature of ESP. That is, ESP is the context in which the curriculum develops and the starting point of the learners' route to the level at which they can perform adequately in their business. This curriculum focuses on real situations that the learners may encounter in their current and future jobs. In order to design an authentic curriculum for the ESP learners, the learning
Learning Philosophy Domain: Learning Strategies

The learning philosophy domain is located within the context domain, and it is comprised of learning strategies. These learning strategies provide the basics of how learners acquire the target language, and suggest the fundamental principles underlying teaching methodologies. In this curriculum, learning strategies approach is suggested to be the learning philosophy for the two reasons as follows: one is that a learning strategies approach helps learners find the strategies that work best for them. The other is that learning strategies facilitate learners to become autonomous, so that learners can learn on their own after the particular learning course is over.

Learning strategy theory itself is a major focus of this curriculum. Students not only learn to use the best strategies to acquire the skills that they need, but also learn, with the teachers' assistance, to explore a variety of strategies and evaluate what works best for them. Therefore, besides the topic domain of this project, learning strategies should also be emphasized by teachers.
Within the learning philosophy domain lies the topic domain. The topic domain includes a set of skills and knowledge that represent what learners need to perform well in their jobs. These skills and knowledge are negotiation, critical thinking, and communicative competence. They are what this curriculum is intended to develop and the targeted language elements that the learners wish to obtain.

These skills of negotiation, critical thinking, and communicative competence are differentiated from general English and are designed to reflect the professionalism represented in this domain. People who acquire this professionalism will be able to use the target language needed in their jobs in a more professional and effective way.

There are three reasons to emphasizing the skills of negotiation, communicative competence, and critical thinking. First, bargaining occasions occur anytime and anywhere in business field. Whenever people have disagreements with others in terms of asking for promotion, settling a conflict, or closing a deal, they need to negotiate. Second, negotiation is based on communication; communicative competence thus plays an important role in the development of their business English.
skills. Finally, the thinking process is a major factor of communication and is a determinant of problem solving. There are many occasions that require critical thinking to settle the issues regarding business. The way one thinks greatly affects the ideas one conveys and in turn affects the outcome of problem solving.

According to the above reasons, one can conclude that these skills of negotiation, communicative competence, and critical thinking constitute a set of skills of business English that require emphasis. It shows that each of these three aspects partly influences the others and that these three aspects overlap one another. Learners who are acquiring one of the three aspects need to draw on the other two. The curriculum of this project focuses on the development of these skills and incorporates them into the lesson plans shown later.

Negotiation Skills

Negotiation skills must be incorporated into the business English because many business affairs are addressed by negotiating. According to the literature review in Chapter Two, one can have a good command of negotiation skills through understanding the qualities and major factors of negotiation, developing the strategies of negotiation, and practicing
negotiation. Therefore, the knowledge and skills of negotiation are included in the curriculum of this project.

Communicative Competence Skills

People have more and more business dealings with those from different countries, where English is not the first language. Certainly, business will be much smoother easier if both parties can fluently use English as a universal language.

In business field, corporate communication skills are needed on many occasions, such as decision making, giving and receiving feedback, running an effective meeting, professional interviewing, giving a business presentation, and using the telephone. Classroom instruction may offer a simulated context for students to engage in real situations. Ellis (1994) suggests that the first step to teaching communicative competence is to create a classroom environment in which real communication can take place and can be practiced continuously.

In addition to providing the simulated situations, this curriculum will focus on encouraging classroom interaction, creating good group dynamics, and providing practice activities, so that learners may acquire the skills that they need in their jobs.
Critical Thinking Skills

The most frequent issue in business is problem solving. To solve a problem requires clear and logical thought. Critical thinking involves proper and logical thinking aimed at solving problems. The literature review in Chapter Two represented features of critical thinking such as analyzing, classifying, evaluating, comparing and contrasting, making inferences and judgements, and generalizing, which are essential to solve problems in business. This curriculum is designed to develop the critical thinking of learners and will strengthen training of critical thinking by offering more opportunities for students to practice.
The design of business English course has been affected by three developmental trends in business field. First, the contact among various industries is increasing, which in turn leads to the need for graduates to acquire English business communication skills. Nowadays, even small businesses need to deal with international business and must compete with international counterparts. The future business environment will be even more global and complicated. Second, negotiation has become involved in more situations than ever. Whether in domestic business or in international business, there are more and more issues requiring negotiating, and mandating negotiation as a necessary repertoire in business. Third, intercultural communication has become an essential issue in business. Even in the same country or nation, intercultural communication may be needed between people from different communities.

Based on these factors and on the theoretical framework in Chapter Three, a unit plan is proposed for the ESP students for business purposes in Taiwan. The objectives of this unit plan are to develop students' awareness of cultural difference,
to develop critical thinking skills, to improve students' communicative competence, and to develop students' negotiation strategies for various situations. The unit plan consists of five lessons, which are designed as a continuous, step-by-step sequence to develop students' negotiation repertoire.

The unit plan is designed for adult learners and school students who are assumed to consider the development of their English skills important to their performance in their current or future business, and to be willing to take responsibility for their own learning. In addition, the learners are assumed to have had some basic knowledge of English. This is because most Taiwanese students have been taught English during the six years in their high school lives.

Lesson Sequence

The unit plan encompasses five sequential lessons that impart to learners necessary strategies and skills for negotiation, communication, and critical thinking. Each lesson provides teachers with systematic procedures and ideas for instruction. The beginning of each lesson features the context for the lesson, the objectives, and the materials required (focus sheets, worksheets, assessment sheets). Each lesson addresses a topic drawn from a different negotiation
situation.

Each lesson plan basically follows a sequence of four steps. The first step is to involve students' prior knowledge, interest, and background information. This step activates students' existing knowledge, helping teachers obtain the feedback from students about students' skills so the teacher can employ the most appropriate approach. The second step is direct teaching. This is a process of introducing and inputting the new information. Direct teaching provides students with organized and integrated information so students can gain information in an efficient way. This step must be followed by the third step, practice. Practice offers an opportunity for students to exercise the newly introduced knowledge so they can turn it into their own. In this step, a variety of activities are introduced and conducted in a task chain. The task chain involves sequential procedures to facilitate students to acquire new information. The final step is assessment of students' learning. This step is to offer a yardstick for teachers or a method for students to gauge the result of learning. The assessment of the lessons will be described in detail in the next chapter.

Each lesson follows a sequence: objectives, task chains,
and assessment. The task chains are designed to correspond to the objectives. The focus sheets and work sheets are numbered according to this order as well.

Content of Lessons

The contents of the lessons are designed to develop students' negotiation skills. Therefore, the unit plan starts from introducing basic knowledge about negotiation and a set of negotiation skills, and it involves negotiation in the workplace, in closing a deal, over culture clash, and concerning international business.

In addition to the input information, the unit plan also provides opportunities for students to simulate the process of negotiation. After students learn the information about the situation and acquire the negotiation strategies for the situation, they are provided a chance to prepare for a simulation negotiation. The last lesson, group negotiation, broadens the scale of negotiation. This lesson increases the complexity of negotiation by making it from person-to-person basis to group-to-group basis. Students should apply the previously learned tactics and ploys for negotiation to the situation they simulate in this lesson. In these simulations, students can gain not only the necessary skills in negotiation through
the acquisition of new knowledge but also build confidence for themselves through successful experience or correction of their mistakes.

Through the process of negotiating training, students also have opportunities to undergo the training of critical thinking and English communication. Students will be asked or prompted to use critical thinking skills such as questioning, comparing, analyzing, and reasoning. This in turn helps students develop critical thinking. With teachers' help, students will also be able to find out the most appropriate learning strategies for themselves either through extracting the useful skills from these lessons or exchanging experiences with others. Most Taiwanese students have long abided by the way of learning English through a teaching-centered approach. Although they are skilled in memorizing information, they have a lack of experience in learning by themselves and taking responsibility for their own learning. Therefore, it is time for Taiwanese students to start learning to learn on their own.
CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

The importance of assessment is one of the moot points in teaching. There are various kinds of assessments, and their diversity and accuracy constitute a common debate. Therefore, how to find the most appropriate and effective ways of assessment is the first issue when it comes to the assessment design. To determine the proper assessment, teachers have to understand the purposes of the assessment.

Purpose of Assessment

The purposes of the assessment are twofold. First, the assessment must help learners retrace, evaluate, and become responsible for their own learning. Dickinson (1987) states that a successful learner-centered instruction should entail students undertaking responsibility for their learning. Because college students are adults, they should be more active in and aware of their learning. Second, the assessment should reflect accurately by measuring students’ progress of the skills. This project is designed to develop the English negotiation skills in the business field. With this consideration, the learning tasks and activities in five lessons will thus be consistent with negotiation-directed
topics. Meanwhile, they should involve the relevant skills such as critical thinking and communicative competence. Also, because the philosophy of learning is defined as learning strategies in Figure 5, to prompt students to develop from the learning process the learning strategies that work best for them is also one objective of this project. Based on these considerations, the type of assessment should be developed to match the specific lesson plan requirements.

Assessment Content

To assess the effectiveness of students’ learning, this project adopts two types of assessment. The first type is self-evaluation, an informative type of assessment. Because these lessons are targeted at adult learners, self-evaluation is employed so they can assess their own learning. LeBlanc and Painchaud (1985) proposed that self-evaluation is useful for adults because adults generally understand the learning situation they will face. Nunan (1998) supports this point of view by arguing that learner self-assessment provides one of the most effective means of both critical self-awareness of what it is to be a learner and skills to learn how to learn. Based on these reasons above, I will use this assessment to keep track of students’ ongoing progress and facilitate them
to be autonomous in learning. The second type of assessment is formative assessment, which deals with the quality of the skills students perform. Formative assessment takes place while students are learning so they can improve as part of the process.

Through these two types of assessment, students will be able to become aware of their learning progress, identify their needs and goals of learning, and find out better ways of learning for themselves. The teacher will be able to identify learners' strength and weaknesses, to verify learners' application of skills, to determine learners' achievement levels, and to provide positive feedback. Teachers may in turn evaluate the effectiveness of an instructional program. To sum up, the goal of these two types of assessment is to help learners become better in both English and negotiation skills and to help teachers gain an opportunity to improve their teaching. Following is a description of how this two types of assessment are applied.

Self-evaluation

In self-evaluation assessment, students are provided a self-evaluation sheet, which has some self-reflective questions. These questions are designed to lead students to
think about and evaluate their own learning. Through the process of self-evaluation, students can have an opportunity to realize and correct their previous mistakes, they can thus learn from experience.

Peer assessment is another type of informative assessment. Peer assessment focuses on evaluating the other group members' performance. Students can obtain the feedback about their performance from the other group members, and they may in turn improve their skills depending on these feedbacks. Although not included in the assessment of this project, it is encouraged and left to teachers' description.

Formative Assessment

Formative assessment focuses on the quality of students' skills of communication, critical thinking and negotiation. Each of these three kinds of performance is included in a rubric for scoring. The assessment of critical thinking skills depends on what kinds of techniques the lesson is designed to teach. In order to be tailored to the objective requirements of each lesson, to be diversified, and to be flexible for teachers, the assessments are designed slightly different. The required skills, and the number of skills to be assessed in different lessons are different, so total grade value of
each lesson is different. For example, in Lesson Two, the score of the grading chart runs from 5 to 3 to 1. Students who score 5 "almost always" demonstrate the skills listed, which is considered good; students scoring 3 "partly" demonstrate the skills listed, which is considered adequate; students who show "almost never" on the listed skills will be graded 1, which is considered a failing score. In Lessons 4 and 5, each of the three components, critical thinking, communicative competence, or negotiation entails three to four skills to be graded. Each skill takes up the same proportion of the total point value.

Teachers can decide the percentile of the informative assessment and formative assessment in the total grade. If the average grade of the class is greater than 80%, then the curriculum design is effective.

With the combination of these two types of assessment designs being used in this project, Table 7 shows the assessments in this project. Therefore, one can find a self-evaluation assessment in Lessons One and Three. A grading rubric assessment and a self-evaluation sheet can be seen in Lessons Two, Four, and Five. In order to reinforce self-awareness in learning, the assessment of this project
adopts self-evaluation in every lesson. The rubric for grading students' skills in critical thinking, communicative competence, and negotiation is provided in Lesson Two, Four and Five because these lessons emphasize the application in these skills mentioned above and teachers are required to observe and grade the learners' learning outcome.

In summary, effort has been made to offer teachers an approach to measure the learners' achievement in learning; and, to facilitate students; becoming conscious of their own learning; to keep track of the ongoing learning progress; and to identify the best way for future learning. The teacher may in turn evaluate the effectiveness of the lessons, so that they can put effort into improving it. Teachers' use of assessment, then, can be a source of feedback as to the effectiveness of this unit in the teaching of negotiation, critical thinking, and communicative competence in the domain of business English.

Table 7. Assessment Type Per Lesson

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Assessment Type</th>
<th>Content of Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>Formative</td>
<td>A grading rubric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>Formative</td>
<td>A grading rubric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>Formative</td>
<td>A grading rubric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX

INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Plan</th>
<th>Lesson Business Skills</th>
<th>Communicative Competence</th>
<th>Critical Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Learning strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Negotiation</td>
<td>Negotiating Skills</td>
<td>Listening, Speaking</td>
<td>Analyzing, Contrasting, Questioning</td>
<td>Self-evaluating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Asking for a Raise</td>
<td>Negotiating Skills</td>
<td>Speaking, Listening, Reading, Turn-taking</td>
<td>Comparing, Generating, Questioning, Reasoning</td>
<td>Cognitive Strategies, Social Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When culture Clash</td>
<td>Negotiating Skills</td>
<td>Speaking, Listening</td>
<td>Generating, Questioning, Reasoning, Summarizing</td>
<td>Self-evaluating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Making a Sale</td>
<td>Buying and selling, Negotiation</td>
<td>Listening, Speaking</td>
<td>Generating, Questioning, Reasoning, Summarizing</td>
<td>Self-evaluating, Social Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Group Negotiation</td>
<td>International Negotiation</td>
<td>Listening, Speaking, Turn-taking</td>
<td>Analyzing, Generating, Reasoning, Summarizing</td>
<td>Cognitive, Strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson Plan One: Negotiation

Level: Adult; intermediate to advanced fluency
Lesson length: Four hours
Lesson context: English for Specific Purposes

Objectives

1. To acquire the strategies of negotiation
2. To develop students' communicative competence
3. To develop students' critical thinking through distinguishing appropriate negotiation strategies from inappropriate ones

Materials

Focus Sheet 1.1, 1.2A, and 1.2B; Work Sheet 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3, and Assessment Sheet 1.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge

Ask students the following questions:

1. In your opinion, what is negotiation?
2. In what situations would you want to negotiate?
3. How would you prepare for a negotiation?

Task Chain 1: Planning a Negotiation

1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 1.1. Students read Focus Sheet 1.1.
2. The teacher provides Work Sheet 1.1, pairs up students; has students discuss which points they agree or disagree on, add other tips for negotiation they can think of, and share the ideas with the class.
**Task Chain 2: Considerations During Negotiation**

1. Students read Focus Sheet 1.2A and 1.2B.
2. With Work Sheet 1.2, students in pairs discuss on which points they agree or disagree.
3. After the students answer the questions, they discuss in pairs which tips for better negotiation can be utilized.

**Task Chain 3: Simulate Negotiation**

1. Teacher provides students with Work Sheet 1.3. Students in pairs decide a simulated conflict issue to negotiate. The topic should be realistic, one with which the students are familiar or may confront in the future.
2. Students initiate the exercise of negotiation. After a period of practice, students switch roles.
3. Students act out their negotiation. The teacher should encourage peer review.

**Assessment**

Students will be assessed through the assessment sheet.
Focus Sheet 1.1

Nine Tips on How to Prepare for a Negotiation

Every negotiation will have its own set of specific provisions that should be included in your objectives; however, general considerations should include the following topics.

1. **Establish a target price that you will pay for what you want.** This price should be what you reasonably expect to pay for what you are getting in return. Note: Price is used here in a generic sense to represent what is being exchanged. Many negotiations, of course, won’t deal at all in monetary terms.

2. **Identify your negotiation limits.** You should identify a minimum position in terms of the least favorable offer that you will accept. This is essentially your “walk-away” point. At the same time you want to fashion an initial offer which is the best deal you may get.

3. **Decide what concessions can be made during negotiations to reach agreement.** Try to rank these concessions in terms of priorities.

4. **If possible, pinpoint potential give-aways that you can trade-off for concessions by the other party.** These are not true concessions, but are instead issues that you will build into your offer and treat as concessions during negotiations.

5. **Indicate any time constraints for reaching an agreement.** Include any that you think the other side may have.

6. **Pinpoint any potential outside influences that may impact your negotiations** (bankers, government agencies, and labor unions are a few examples of outsiders who may have an interest in negotiations that they are not directly involved in.)

7. **Identify any phony issues your adversary may raise, and plan how to overcome these impediments.**

8. **Think about any creative suggestions you can propose if negotiations become stalemated.** (For instance, are there any secondary elements you could suggest that might sweeten your offer?)

9. **Determine your alternatives if negotiations are unsuccessful.**

(Fuller, 1991)
Some factors to be considered before negotiating:
1. Decide what you are negotiating for and what, if anything, you will accept as a compromise.
2. Determine what concessions you can make if it becomes necessary to do so.
3. Settle who will or will not assist you in negotiations.
4. Evaluate the tactics you will use during negotiations.
5. Assess your opponent's negotiation strengths, weaknesses, and likely strategies.
6. Set the limits of your negotiation position—the point where you quit pushing for further concession, or the point where you say "No thanks," and proceed to other alternatives.

(Fuller, 1991)

I. List the ones on which you agree and disagree and explain why.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. List two other factors that you think should contribute to success for negotiation.
1. 
2. 
Focus Sheet 1.2A
Negotiation—Some Do’s

1. **Be clear about your point of view.** Negotiation is about moving the other party to come around to your way of thinking; to win them over to your own position. It often helps to say out loud to yourself what you believe to be your “rights” in the situation...but remember that the world does not owe you a living so you must persuade it to see things your way.

2. **On a big issue, dig in early on, stick close to your position.** The effort of doing alters the other party’s expectation of the final deal which is to be struck.

3. **Work out the relative bargaining power of yourself and of the other party.** If you have power, use it carefully and gently at first. Take care that if you use power to get your own way, then sooner or later they will do the same with you—perhaps on the next deal. You will have taught them how to deal with you.

4. **Summarize.** Do so regularly and not just at the end. Sum up the points you like and weaken the other party’s position by ignoring or playing down those you don’t like. Use it to illustrate the concessions you need—...if you can do this and this, then we...

5. **Lend a helping hand.** If the other party gets himself into a deep hole it can pay well, on occasions, to give him a ladder. This is a small investment for a larger return.

6. **Aim high.** The more you ask for the more you get. It pays to make high demands. However, a posture must be credible. Aim too high, and you will achieve deadlock or the other party may withdraw. Very high demands need to be tentatively signaled to the other party in order to test reaction and set up expectations. The higher you aim the more likely the other party is to ask you ‘why.’ Have a response prepared; however, it does not necessarily have to be a case based on logic. Emotions and feelings can just as effectively support an ambitious target. “I feel your prices are far too high,” or “when you stopped deliveries in order to force us to pay your price increase, you badly damaged the
relationship between our companies" are powerful expressions of feeling if stated assertively. What price can be placed on confidence? What price hurt pride?

7. **Use the building block technique.** Each negotiable issue is a card in your hand—do not play them all at once. Play the cards singly and get a concession from the other party each time, e.g., get the best price for a smaller volume, then a reduction for larger volume over the year, then two years, and so on. Too many buyers offer "good news" to the supplier even before the negotiation has begun: "Before we start, let me say that we are now looking for twice the volume and a three year contract!"

8. **Elicit offers, don’t make them.** Get the other party to reveal their targets, or what "they think is reasonable." Use the "what if" or "just supposing" questions if they do not respond to a direct approach. Reveal your expectations too soon and you’ll never know what they might have offered, which might have been better.

9. **Authority.** Ensure you understand the levels and extent of your authority in the areas in which you are to negotiate. The tactics of "removed authority" or "defense in depth," that is, removing or strictly limiting authority, can be beneficial if not declared to the other party.

   (Steele, 1989)
Focus Sheet 1.2B
Negotiation—Some Don’ts

1. Don’t make things easy for the other party. People derive more satisfaction from things they have worked hard to achieve. Give the other party this satisfaction. On the other hand, at the end make it a little better than they thought it was going to be.

2. Don’t compromise early in the meeting. Compromise will favor the party whose posture is more extreme. Use it to break an impasse or bridge a “last gap.”

3. Don’t go it alone on protracted or complex negotiations. To negotiate and remain objective is very difficult. To have a partner who remains objective can be beneficial. Besides the obvious advantage of increased security, another person can, for example:
   (a) decide when a recess is relevant;
   (b) plot concessions made by the parties;
   (c) listen for signals—sometimes what is not said rather than what is said.

4. Don’t lack confidence. Those who have confidence will ask questions/get information and challenge positions and ideas. Why does one lack confidence? This arises from two related yet somewhat different sources:
   (a) the fear of losing;
   (b) the fear of facing an experienced opponent.
   Both can be avoided by knowledge that you are a trained, skilled negotiator. Lack of confidence often results from fear that a mistake might be made. It is a pity because we learn more from our mistakes. Remember that the making of a mistake is not a final defeat—it can be rectified without damage to one’s negotiating position.

5. Don’t get sidetracked. The use of side-issues is a classical tactical ploy. Don’t wander unless you intend to do so. Your opponent will try to side-track you if he considers he is losing a particular point under discussion or that a telling point is about to be made against him.
6. Don't "bridge". Saying phrases like, "3 or 4 per cent" or "4 or 5 years," not only signals uncertainty on your part but also allows the other party to choose the number that suits them best and then concentrate on it.

7. Don't be greedy. A negotiator needs to push hard then grab that result/opportunity and not try for something the opponent will never give. Being greedy you risk losing all. Don't take that risk.

8. Never, ever show triumph. We have all seen the negotiator who lost and said little, but seethed with anger and determined to beat the other party, if not destroy him, the next time.

9. Don't feel too successful. Bernard Shaw once said, "Success is the brand on the brow of the person who aimed too low." Are we successful? Was our need to feel successful strong? Was our perception of what was possible lowered?

(Steele, 1989)
## Work Sheet 1.2

**Suggestions for Negotiation**

The following are 17 suggestions for negotiations. Group these into appropriate (make a cross mark in column A), and inappropriate strategies (make a cross mark in column I) for negotiation according to your own situations and explain the reason why it is either appropriate or inappropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions for Negotiations</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>Reasons for Either its Appropriateness or Inappropriateness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Be prepared.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Ignore the marketplace.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Don’t listen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Aim high.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Be patient.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Focus on satisfaction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Don’t make the first move.</td>
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<td>8. Concentrate on disagreements.</td>
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<td>9. Take unreasonable positions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Delay.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Don’t accept the first offer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Smile even when you are saying, &quot;No.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Treat the other party as an enemy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Make continuous counteroffers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Show the value of your offer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Be willing to walk away.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Don’t put things in writing.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 1.3
Simulated Conflict

Simulated Negotiation

What is your simulated conflict?

Preparation

1. What is the minimum that I can accept?

2. What is the maximum I can ask without getting laughed out of the room?

3. What is the maximum I can give away?

4. What is the least I can offer without getting laughed out of the room?

Results of the Deal

1. Did you get a good deal? How about your partner?

2. When you switched roles with your partner, what was the result of the deal? Can you compare your tactics with your partner's tactics as the same role?
Assessment Sheet 1
Learning to Negotiate

Self-evaluate your negotiation learning by answering the questions as follows:

1. Did you use suggestions for negotiation during the class? If you did, what were they? How did you use them?

2. What did you learn from the simulated negotiation?

3. What negotiation style do you think suits you? And why?

4. If you could do the simulated negotiation again, what would you do differently?

5. What negotiation strategies do you think will be helpful for the conflict you may confront in the future?
Lesson Two: Asking For a Raise

Level: Adult; Intermediate to advanced fluency
Lesson length: Four hours
Lesson context: English for Specific Purposes

Objectives

1. To learn the steps of preparing for the negotiation of asking for a raise
2. To learn to find the appropriate strategies for asking for a raise
3. To simulate negotiation of asking for a raise
4. To develop students’ communicative competence and critical thinking

Materials

Focus Sheet 2.1, 2.2; Work Sheet 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5; and Assessment Sheet 2.

Involving students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge

Ask students the following questions:

1. In what situations would you ask for a raise?
2. How much of a raise do you feel you deserve?
3. How will you plan to ask for a raise?
4. What kinds of benefits or promotions do you think substitute for a raise?

Task Chain 1: Comprehension of Negotiation in Asking-for-a-raise Situation
1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 2.1 and arranges students in pairs. Students read it and discuss the problem shown in the situation.

2. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 2.2. Students read it and work on Work Sheet 2.1 and 2.2.

**Task Chain 2: Deciding the Objectives and Strategies**

1. Students discuss and work on the problems shown in Work Sheet 2.3.

2. The teacher should encourage students to compare experiences in their jobs.

**Task Chain 3: Making a Presentation and Simulation**

1. Students work on Work Sheet 2.4 and practice their presentations with one another.

2. Students simulate the negotiation between Mr. Chan and the manager, Mr. Cheung, and act it out in front of the class. The teacher should encourage peer reviews.

3. Students work on Work Sheet 2.5, analyze their objectives, concessions, and strategies.

**Assessment**

Students will be assessed through the assessment sheet.
Mr. Chan, an employee, is trying to negotiate with his department head, Mr. Cheung, for a salary increase. In Mr. Cheung's mind, Mr. Chan has performed acceptable work in the past but does not warrant an increase in salary.

Mr. Chan is anxious to increase his earnings because he feels that he is doing some exceptional work, but his supervisor, Mr. Cheung, feels that the standards are barely acceptable. Mr. Cheung does not mind if Mr. Chan leaves the company but he does not wish that to happen soon, which would be the case if Mr. Cheung does not get the increase that he is now seeking. Therefore, it is in Mr. Cheung's interests to have Mr. Chan stay for about one year. Mr. Cheung's challenge in this negotiation is to keep Mr. Chan with the company while not giving in to the request for an increase in salary. Mr. Cheung is challenged to find out what would keep Mr. Chan to stay. For Mr. Chan, while he really wants to have the increase, he realizes that the present economy is not good, and his employer may be unwilling to comply. He does not really want to leave unless he does not achieve anything with this negotiation. He would be satisfied for the time being if he gets either one of the following (failing a salary increase):

1. to have the company sponsor him for an evening class in order to improve his management skills; or
2. to set a list of performance targets for six months, and if he reaches these targets, then he will be promoted to a senior title as well as enjoying the salary compensation that goes with such a promotion.

(Sambey, 1999)
Focus Sheet 2.2
Strategies—Asking for a Raise

These are some objectives that may match your strategies for asking for a raise and some actions that you may have to do:

1. To find some way to keep your boss apprised of your good work.
   (1) Relate your work to the boss’s goals.
   (2) Veil your part beneath a compliment about the effort of your team.
2. To follow the golden rule when dealing with colleagues. Be considerate of the time and effort your peers expend.
3. To demonstrate to the boss that you are always available to help the department. Anticipate what’s needed and volunteer to do it before the boss requests it.
4. To patch up any hard feelings that may exist between you and a colleague, take the first step, explaining that it is mutually beneficial to become friends again and not risk a bad reputation.
5. To manage the information about you that’s fed through the grapevine. Casually mention what you want passed along to anyone who might spread the word to your boss.
6. To keep alert and quickly sift through all the talk surrounding you. Sort the information you hear into three categories—for immediate use, for later use, and for disposal.
7. To make the most of your job and to see its potential as a stepping stone. Study your operation for better, faster, cheaper, more effective ways to do anything related to your job.
8. To be persuasive, to sound confident, business-like, and believable.
   (1) Based on national and local data, decide in advance the minimum salary you will accept, the minimum amount you feel you are worth and can earn elsewhere.
   (2) List recent accomplishments—specific ways you helped cut costs, increase sales, and so on.
9. To learn as much as you could about where you stand, note the boss’s responses so that you can consider the options when you get back to your desk.

Read the following strategies to prepare for asking for a raise.

a. Informing the boss that your work is consistently good.
b. Getting unsolicited commendations.
c. Volunteering before you are asked shows you are a team player.
d. Mending fences before it is too late.
e. Using gossip for your advantage.
f. Listening and speaking up when needed.
g. Helping your mentor sound better.
h. Sharing resources and solutions with your personal network.
i. Proclaiming yourself a more fitting title.
j. Matching your boss’s style when presenting your case.
k. Acknowledging the boss’s priorities.
l. Preparing your pitch.
m. Extracting valuable lessons from the boss’s comments.

(Solomon, 1988)
### Work Sheet 2.1

**Vocabulary Comprehension Check**

Find out the meaning of the words as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ex. Priority</td>
<td>A thing that is regarded as more important than others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. patch up</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. pitch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. golden rule</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>d. proclaim</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. mentor</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. gossip</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>g. sift</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. unsolicited commendation</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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Work Sheet 2.2
Thinking Over the Circumstances

What is worth thinking twice?
Before you go rushing into the boss's office to ask for a raise, what do you think should be contemplated?

These are several things that you may want to think over. Compare the following with your answer to the above question:
What is going on in your company and in your job market?
How much do you think your job is worth?
Can your company afford the raise?
Must requests be submitted at set times, such as three months before the final budget?
Will your cohorts also be asking for a raise?
What is the going pay range for your type of job nationally and locally?

Answer the following questions
Which questions above do you think you will be thinking over? And why?

Which ones do you think you will not be thinking about? And why?

What other things do you think should be taken into account before you ask for a raise?
Work Sheet 2.3
Deciding Your Strategies

Of the strategies on Focus Sheet 2.1, which ones do you agree on when asking for a raise, and why?

Which ones do you disagree on when asking for a raise? Why?

List two other strategies you think will help you to get your way. Explain why.

Decide the main strategies you are going to apply for when asking for a raise if you were Mr. Chan in the situation as shown in Focus Sheet 1.1.
Work Sheet 2.4
Making a Presentation

Answer the following questions that your boss may ask you when you ask for a raise:

1. Why do you think you are worth more to us than we are now paying you?

2. How does investing in you benefit the company?

Plan a presentation for asking a raise, write down the outline of this presentation, and practice with your partner.

What is the result of the simulated negotiation for asking for a raise?

If you failed the negotiation, what could you have said to help you obtain a raise? List faults you made during the process of the negotiation.
Work Sheet 2.5
Reviewing Your Request

Answer the following questions:

1. Did you succeed in asking for a raise? If not, did you make any other agreement as a substitute? Did your partner make any concession?

2. What concessions did you make during the process of negotiation?

3. What did you learn from this simulated negotiation?

4. Write down the steps you think an employee should follow when planning to negotiate for a raise.

5. The line below represents a continuum contrasting two different styles of persuasion. Indicate where you fit in, on each line.
   (English & Lynn, 1992)

   Cooperative --------------- Competitive
   Spoke indirectly so no Spoke directly and
   one was embarrassed or embarrassed or humiliated
   humiliated --------------- someone
   Used emotions -------------- Used logic
   Reacted carefully ------------ Reacted quickly
### Assessment Sheet 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Almost always</th>
<th>Partly</th>
<th>Always never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Critical Thinking</strong>&lt;br&gt;(based on the written work and outline of presentation)</td>
<td>Questioning doubts&lt;br&gt;Analyzing the leverage&lt;br&gt;Exploring thoughts underlying feelings&lt;br&gt;Clariﬁying the circumstance&lt;br&gt;Generating thoughts&lt;br&gt;Examining and evaluating&lt;br&gt;Participating in discussion&lt;br&gt;Being articulate in expression&lt;br&gt;Turn taking&lt;br&gt;Recognizing when it is appropriate to communicate&lt;br&gt;Using correct grammar, syntax, punctuation, and spelling&lt;br&gt;Using summary statement&lt;br&gt;Using concise language&lt;br&gt;Setting up objectives&lt;br&gt;Employing strategies&lt;br&gt;Using logic&lt;br&gt;Making concessions&lt;br&gt;Using other appropriate ploys to help&lt;br&gt;Preparing the presentation&lt;br&gt;Discovering appropriate strategies for learning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** /100

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Lesson Plan Three: When Cultures Clash

Level: Adult; intermediate to advanced fluency
Lesson length: Three hours
Lesson context: English for Specific Purposes

Objectives

1. To understand some traditions about Sikh clothing
2. To acquire negotiation skills
3. To develop students' communicative competence
4. To develop students' critical thinking through addressing culture clash issues

Vocabulary: Sikh, headgear, practicing, turban, legion, publicity.

Materials

Focus Sheet 3.1, & 3.2,; Work Sheet 3.1, & 3.2,; and Assessment Sheet 3.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge

Ask students the following questions:

1. Have you ever encountered clashes regarding culture?
2. Will you arrange a negotiation to resolve the clashes?
3. How will you deal with a culture clash?

Task Chain 1: Understanding of culture difference and critical thinking.

1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 3.1. Students read Focus Sheet 3.1.
2. The teacher provides Work Sheet 3.1, pairs up students, and has students discuss the given issue. Students work on Work Sheet
3. Students must use their resources to find information related to questions of homework.

Task chain 2: Simulation of negotiation.

1. The teacher provides students with Focus Sheet 3.2.
2. Students discuss the issues on Focus Sheet 3.1 and 3.2.
3. Students decide the role they are going to play, and the negotiation strategies they will use.
4. Students initiate the exercise of negotiation, and switch the roles.
5. Students act out their generated negotiation in front of class, and work on Work Sheet 3.2. The teacher should encourage peer review.

Assessment

Students will be assessed through the assessment sheet.
Focus Sheet 3.2

Read the following article:

In Taipei, a trade company, Asia and universe, is confronting a problem that a few employees are advocating that on Friday they can dress casual at work. The company code does not allow them to. To settle this conflict, the manager, Mr. Lee, is holding a meeting to negotiate with these employees. He is in charge of maintaining the policy of this company. However, that the company values its tradition and dress code is a problem for him. The representative of these employees, Mr. Lu, has been working in this company for 15 years, and has taken charge of a number of important responsibilities.
Work Sheet 3.1

Comprehension check

Read the key word in the left column. Circle the letter of the word that is related to the key word.

1. march  a. walk  b. attend  c. specify
2. remove a. take off  b. put back  c. give up
3. refuse  a. out  b. no  c. when
4. respect a. danger  b. color  c. honor
5. disgust a. demand  b. dislike  c. discover
6. disgrace a. disrespect  b. dismiss  c. distinguish
7. object a. disagree  b. encourage  c. reflect

Critical thinking exercise

Write down your opinion about the problem shown in Focus Sheet 3.1.

Answer the following questions:

1. Do the Sikhs have a right to wear their turbans in the Legion hall? Why or why not?

2. Do you believe that the majority has the right to make certain rules about customs even though it violates someone’s religious beliefs? Why or why not?
Homework

Use your resources to list the following: three different religions or social cultures, the clothing for each one, and two culture clashes you may have in the future.

Religions or social cultures:

Clothing:

Two culture clashes you may confront in the future:
Work Sheet 3.2
Simulation of Negotiation

Understanding of the issues:
Discuss with your partner about the issues on Focus Sheet 3.1 and Focus Sheet 3.2. Role play the characters in these issues and write down the items on the following table.

Role play:
1. Decide the role you will be playing and the strategies and concessions you will make, and then start to simulate the negotiation between the two parties in the two situations on Focus Sheets 3.1 and 3.2.
2. Work to the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role play:</th>
<th>A Sikh vs. a branch of the National Canadian Legion</th>
<th>Mr. Lu vs. Mr. Lee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Concessions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Results</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Assessment Sheet 3

Self-evaluate by answering the questions as follows:

6. Did you use any suggestions from Lesson Plan One for negotiation during the class? If you did, what are they? How did you use them?

7. What did you learn from these two simulated negotiations?

8. If you could do the simulated negotiation again, what would you do differently?

9. What negotiation strategies do you think will be helpful for the conflict you may confront in your future?

10. Do you know how to learn more cultural knowledge, more English vocabulary, and better speaking skills of English?

11. What strategies do you find are helpful to the learning about of your culture knowledge and English?
Lesson Four: Making a Sale

Level: Adult; Intermediate to advanced fluency

Lesson length: Four hours

Lesson context: English for Specific Purposes

Objectives

1. To develop the strategies and techniques for the negotiation of buying and selling
2. To simulate negotiation of buying and selling
3. To develop students’ communicative competence and critical thinking

Materials

Focus Sheet 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4A, 4.4B, and 4.5; Work Sheet 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4A, 4.4B, and 4.5; and Assessment Sheet 4.

Involving students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge

Ask students to look at the following quotes, and then think about how they could respond as a seller or a buyer:

"Your price is too high!"
"We’d like to buy from you, but we have not budgeted that much. Can you cut the price just eight percent?"
"Your competition just came in with a lower price!"

Task Chain 1: Comprehension of Background Information of Sales and Negotiation

3. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 4.1 and groups students in pairs. Students read and comprehend it.
4. Students work on Work Sheet 4.1 and discuss the questions. The teacher should check students and make sure that they understand the text.
Task Chain 2: Develop the Preparation Strategies for Buying and Selling Negotiation
1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 4.2, and Focus Sheet 4.3. Students discuss and work on the problems shown in Work Sheet 4.2 and Work Sheet 4.3.
2. The teacher should encourage students to exchange experience in buying and selling.

Task Chain 3: Practice Negotiation and Develop Negotiation Strategies
1. Teacher provides students with Focus Sheet 4.4A and 4.4B. Students discuss the given situations with their partners.
2. Students work on Work Sheet 3.1 and simulate each situation. The teacher should encourage students to think and apply the appropriate strategies so that students can develop their skills.

Task Chain 4: Acting Out an Exercise
1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 4.5.
2. Students discuss the given situation, and decide what role each will take.
3. Students act out the exercise in front of the class, while the class acts as observers.
4. Students work on Work Sheet 4.5 and self-evaluate.

Assessment
Students will be assessed through the assessment sheet.
Focus Sheet 4.1
Background Information

Read the following paragraphs

Selling

You don't have to be a special kind of person to sell a product. But although successful salespeople often have special talents and outgoing personalities, the skills they employ are used by us all: we build and maintain relationships with different kinds of people, we listen to and take note of what they tell us, and we explain things to them or discuss ideas with them.

A firm may depend on their own sales team and/or on the salesmanship of their distributors, wholesalers or retailers. But any company needs to establish a personal relationship with its major clients ("key accounts") and potential customers ("prospects"). It is often said that, "people do business with people." A firm doesn't just deal impersonally with another firm, but a person in the buying department receives personal visits from people representing the firm's suppliers on a regular basis. A team of buyers may travel around visiting suppliers.

Negotiating

"Negotiation" is the part of the sales conversation where bargaining about the conditions of an order takes place. It comes at the end of the sales talk at the point when the buyer is definitely interested. Because additional persuasion may be required, it's important not to give away concessions while making the sales presentation.

In international business there are different types of business negotiations, negotiation styles and negotiation situations. A simplified model of what goes on shows four main phases of negotiation:
1. The preparation phase: this is where you work out what you want and what your main priorities are.
2. The debating phase: this is where you try to find out what the other side or the customer wants. You say what you want but you don't say
yet what the final conditions are. You use open questions and listen to the customer to find out in what areas they may be prepared to move.

3. The proposal phase: this is the point at which you suggest some of the things you could trade or which you might theoretically be prepared to trade, offer, or concede. Formulate your proposals in the form of if... ..., then........ Be patient and listen to the other side’s proposals.

4. The bargaining phase: this is when you indicate what it is you will actually trade, offer or perhaps concede. In turn, you conditionally exchange individual points along the lines of: “If you are prepared to pay swiftly, then we are prepared to change our delivery schedules.” Remember to write down the agreement.

People often try to postpone a decision. They might politely break off from the negotiation and say something like: “I’ll have to think about it” or “I’ll have to consult my boss or my department head”, etc. On the whole, however, people expect that agreement will be reached or else you’ll do business with another company. Normally both parties are interested in reaching an agreement in which both sides take away something positive from the deal. This is called a “win-win situation.”

(Jones, 1996)
Work Sheet 4.1
Comprehension of Background Information

The Phases of Negotiation

1. As to the information on Focus Sheet 1.1, what part do you agree with? And why?

2. What part do you disagree with? And why?

3. Summarize the four main phases of negotiation.

Comprehension Check of Vocabulary

Circle the word that has a similar meaning:

1. wholesale a. merchandising b. retail c. stock
2. salesmanship a. enterprise b. skill c. franchise
3. unproductive a. ineffective b. creative c. fruitful
4. accommodation a. configuration b. lodging c. obligation
5. debate a. propagate b. deteriorate c. argue
6. bargain a. haggle b. reverse c. short-change
7. win-win situation a. double-win situation b. one-shot situation c. balance situation
8. prospect a. aspect b. candidate c. collection
Focus Sheet 4.2

Rules and Skills for a Sales Negotiation

Read the following information

The rules of a sales negotiation are basic and flow from three equally basic objectives as follows:

1. To take advantage of your counterpart’s anxiety to get an order
2. To get added concessions
3. To give up a point or item only to get another of great value

These objectives are achieved through the following six rules:

1. All negotiated items are segregated into one or another three categories, depending on their value to the negotiation:
   - Musts: those items the buyer must not lose in the give-and-take of the negotiation
   - Wants: those additional items the buyer would like to obtain, if the cost is not too high
   - Gives: those items which the buyer would be willing to give up or trade to obtain a must or a want
2. Make large initial demands.
3. Do not make the first concession.
4. Make only small concessions.
5. Do not become impatient under any circumstances.
6. Use your power advantage to obtain your objectives.

(Stumm, 1987)
Focus Sheet 4.3

Tips to Help You Become a Successful Negotiator

Be Cooperative
In a cooperative approach to negotiating, the goal is to find a solution that will be perceived as beneficial to both parties—a win-win situation.

Be Flexible
The negotiators must be able to adjust their demands in response to each other's proposals.

Be Prepared
Know exactly what you want to achieve from the negotiation and what you are willing to concede for those things, if necessary.

Be Honest
It is important for both parties to share ideas and concerns openly. This creates an atmosphere of trust and therefore a more cooperative negotiating session.

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Work Sheet 4.2
Investigating Strategies for Buying and Selling

1. Out of the rules on focus sheet 2.1, which ones do you find helpful when you are buying? Which ones do you find helpful when you are selling?

2. Which ones do you not agree on to apply in a negotiation of buying and selling? Why?

3. Besides those rules, can you list two others you think are productive?

4. What tips do you think are helpful when you are buying? What other tips can you come up with? (What else can you think of?)

5. What tips do you think are helpful when you are selling? What else can you think of?
Suppose you are a salesperson and you are dealing with a buyer in a bargaining situation. Answer the following questions:

1. Suppose the buyer has made a large initial demand. How do you proceed?

2. Suppose the buyer cannot be led into making the first concession. How do you proceed?

3. The buyer will try to avoid making a large concession. You should too. The buyer will make only small concessions. How do you proceed?

4. The buyer will try not to become impatient with the progress of a negotiation while attempting to instill impatience in the seller. How should you proceed?
Suppose you are a buyer and you are dealing with a salesperson in a bargaining situation. Answer the following questions:

1. Suppose the sales representative would not give into your initial demand. How do you proceed?

2. The sales representative will try to avoid making a large concession. The sales representative will make only small concessions. You follow suit. How do you proceed?

3. The sales representative will try not to become impatient with the progress of a negotiation while attempting to instill impatience in the buyer. How should you proceed?
Focus Sheet 4.4A
Practice of Situations

The following are two cases of bargaining:

Case 1: Background

Alex, the owner of a small chain of stores, is negotiating the sale of the business to Ken, who represents a major chain interested in buying the business. After extended negotiations, the bargaining has gotten down to a disagreement over price.

Ken: We can't go any higher than $15,000,000.
Alex: I've been telling you all along that the price is $20,000,000, and I won't accept one cent less. Let's just forget the whole thing. (The threat that negotiations are over is the initial bluff, which is being made in an attempt to get Ken to raise the offer.)
Ken: Well, sorry we couldn't get together, Alex. If you change your mind, get in touch with me. (Ken is calling the bluff to see if Alex will continue to negotiate. Actually, Ken's company will pay the $20,000,000 asking price, but only if necessary.)
Alex: It's just as well it didn't work out. I am not ready to retire yet anyway. (Alex wants to sell the business but he knows Ken's company really wants his stores. So he decides to walk away and see what happens.) Two weeks later Ken calls Alex and agrees to pay the $20,000,000 asking price. Alex, by responding to the challenge when his bluff was called, is successful in getting what he wanted.

(Fuller, 1991)
Focus Sheet 3.1 (cont.)

Practice of Situations

Case 2: Background

John Adams, a sales representative, is negotiating with Joe D., a buyer for a large chain of stores. For over an hour John has been subjected to all sorts of hostility, despite his attempts to keep the discussions civil. Finally, John decides it's time to pull Joe up short.

Joe D.: Slamming his papers on the table, loudly says, "Adams, you have got to be stupid. I am tired of wasting my time trying to explain things to you. Either you want the #@$%^* deal or you don't."

John: Standing up and leaning across the table says, "I have had enough of your bull--! If you can't conduct this negotiation in a civil manner without getting personal, just say so, and we will end this negotiation right here and now."

Joe D.: Taken aback by the sudden outburst by John, who up until now has been dignified and restrained, pauses a moment, then smiles and says, "Hey, don't get uptight. Let's see if we can resolve this thing." (The negotiations then continue to a satisfactory conclusion with no further belligerent behavior on the part of Joe D.)

(Fuller, 1991)
Work Sheet 4.4A
Analysis and Simulation of Case One

Questions

After reading Focus Sheet 4.4A, answer the following questions:

1. What strategies do you think Ken and Alex are using?

2. Do you think that these strategies are successful?

3. What do you have to know before you carry out these strategies?

Simulation

Write down the possible dialogue between you and your partner (You take the role of Ken, and your partner takes the role of Alex, What could you say to win the negotiation?)
Work Sheet 4.4B
Analysis and Simulation of Case Two

Questions

After reading Focus Sheet 3.1, answer the following questions:

1. What faults do you find in this conversation?

2. What strategies are both parties using?

3. If it exacerbates the solution, what could be better for John to say?

4. What do you learn from this conversation?

Simulation

Write down the possible dialogue between you and your partner (You take the role of John, and your partner takes the role of Joe D. What could you say to win the negotiation?)
Focus Sheet 4.5

Acting Out

Negotiate the following situations:

One person takes the role of A and another takes the role of B. The class should act as observers and judges.

Goal: negotiate the selling price of a house

A. Your company is transferring you to another city and it is imperative that you sell your house immediately. You are asking $227,000 for the house, which you bought five years ago for $200,000. At the time you bought the house, the real estate market was an excellent investment. Now, however, the market is depressed and has been for several months. Even so, you don’t want to incur a great loss in selling the house.

B. You will be getting married in six months and would like to buy a house. You are in no hurry but you are interested in this house. There are many houses on the market but you’ve seen only a few of them. Even so, you thought you’d put in an offer of $189,900.

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Work Sheet 4.5
Self Evaluation

After you and your partner simulate the negotiation between buyer and seller, critique the negotiation based on the following:

1. Were both buyer and seller prepared for the negotiation?

2. Were the negotiators flexible? What would have happened if either party was not?

3. Were the negotiators cooperative and open with each other?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Point Value/Critique</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Employing strategies</td>
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<td>Being persuasive</td>
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<td>Using other appropriate ploys to help</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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Lesson Five: Group Negotiation

Level: Adult; Intermediate to advanced fluency
Lesson length: Four hours
Lesson context: English for Specific Purposes

Objectives

1. To learn the steps of preparing for a group negotiation
2. To simulate a group negotiation
3. To develop students' communicative competence and critical thinking

Materials

Focus Sheet 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4; Work Sheet 5.0, 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5A, 5.5B, and 5.6; and Assessment Sheet 5.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge

The teacher can ask students questions such as the following
1. List five products that you use in your daily life. What countries are they from?
2. What will you do to make an international business trade?
3. What should be considered in an international business negotiation?
The teacher provides Work Sheet 5.0 to students.

Task Chain 1: Comprehension of Background Information

1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 5.1. Students read it thoroughly and discuss with others.
2. After reading Focus Sheet 5.1, students work on Work Sheet 5.1.
Task Chain 2: Knowledge about Preparing for an International Negotiation

1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 5.2. Students read it thoroughly, and work on Work Sheet 5.2 and 5.3.
2. Each student presents the story shown in Focus Sheet 5.2, using Work Sheet 5.4. The teacher should encourage students to speak.
3. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 5.3 and divides students into two groups, group A and group B. Each group reads their part on Focus Sheet 5.3 and works on Work Sheet 5.5A.

Task Chain 3: Role Play

1. The teacher provides Focus Sheet 5.4. Students read it thoroughly. The teacher has students practice speaking the phrases, and making sure that students know when to use them.
2. Students start playing out the negotiation and working on Work Sheet 5.5B. The teacher monitors the progress of the negotiation.
3. Students analyze their negotiation through working on Work Sheet 5.6.

Assessment

Students will be assessed through the assessment sheet.
## Work Sheet 5.0

**Taiwan as an Importer/Exporter**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importer</th>
<th>Exporter</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are Taiwan’s five top imports?</td>
<td>1. What are Taiwan’s five top exports?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Why does Taiwan import these goods or services?</td>
<td>2. Why does Taiwan export these goods or services?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. From where does Taiwan import them?</td>
<td>3. Where does Taiwan export them to?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of importing them?</td>
<td>4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of exporting them?</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Does Taiwan have a balance between the amount of goods that it exports and the amount that it imports (balance of trade)? Is this important? Explain why.</td>
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</table>

(Adapted from Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Focus Sheet 5.1

Comprehension of Information about Negotiation

CO-OPERATION AND COMPETITION IN NEGOTIATION

Negotiations are complex because one is dealing with both facts and people. It is clear that negotiators must above all have a good understanding of the subject. They must also be aware of the general policy of the company or institution in relation to the issues and they must be familiar with the organizational structure and the decision-making process.

However, awareness of these facts may not necessarily suffice to reach a successful outcome. Personal, human factors must be taken into account. The approach and strategy adopted in negotiating are influenced by attitude as well as by a cool, clear logical analysis of the facts and one's interests. The personal needs of the actors in negotiating must therefore be considered. These can include a need for friendship, goodwill, credibility, recognition of status and authority, a desire to be appreciated by one's own side and to be promoted and, finally, an occasional need to get home reasonably early on a Friday evening. It is a well-known fact that meetings scheduled on a Friday evening are shorter than those held at other times. Timing can pressure people into reaching a decision and personal factors can become part of the bargaining process.

Researchers who have studied the negotiating process recommend separating the people from the problem. An analysis of negotiating language shows that. For example, indirect and impersonal forms are used. This necessity to be hard on the facts and soft on the people can result in the sometimes complex, almost ritualistic, style of negotiating language.

Language varies according to the negotiating style in negotiating you can use either a co-operative style or a competitive one. In the co-operative style the basic principle is that both parties can gain something from the negotiation without harming the interests of the other. Or in other words that both parties will benefit more in the long run in friendship and co-operation even if they make some concessions. This type of negotiation is likely to take place in-house between colleagues and departments, or between companies when there is a longstanding relationship and common goals are being pursued.

Unfortunately co-operative style negotiations without a trace of competition are rare. In most negotiating situations there is something to be gained or lost. There can be a danger in adopting a co-operative mode, as unscrupulous people may take advantage of co-operative people.

The opposite mode to co-operative negotiating is competitive negotiating. Negotiators see each other as opponents. Knowledge of the other party's needs is used to develop strategies to exploit weakness rather than to seek a solution satisfactory to both sides. This type of negotiating may be appropriate in the case of one-off contracts where the aim is to get the best result possible without considering future relationships or the risk of a breakdown in negotiations. Needless to say, the language in this type of discussion may become hostile and threatening even if it remains formal.

In reality most negotiations are a complex blend of co-operative and competitive mode. Negotiating successful implies dealing appropriately with the four main components of any negotiation: facts, people, competition, co-operation.

Skilled negotiators are sensitive to the linguistic signals, as well as the non-verbal ones of facial expressions, gesture and behaviors, which show the type of negotiating mode they are in.

Language reflects tactics and therefore a study of the language used in negotiating brings a great awareness of the negotiating process.

(New international business English, Jones, 1996)
Work Sheet 5.1
Comprehension Check

After reading the article shown in Focus Sheet 1.1, fill in each line below with one appropriate word.

a. Good negotiators must know their ________ well and they must know their company’s ________. But they must also consider ________ factors because they are dealing with ________.

b. The participant’s ________, as well as logic affects negotiations.

c. Research has shown that it can help to separate the ________ from the ________. This can be done by using special negotiating ________.

d. In a ________ style of negotiation the parties are ________. This style may be suitable for a ________ contract. The language here can become ________ and ________.

e. In a ________ style of negotiation, the participants try not to harm each other’s ________. In order to maintain a good long-term ________ they both make ________.

f. Most negotiations are a ________ of the two styles. A good negotiator must be aware of the ________ and ________ signals which show the style being used.

g. The four main factors involved in a negotiation are ________, ________, ________, and ________.
Focus Sheet 5.2

Understanding of an International Negotiation Case

Iguana Oil is a petroleum company with operations in the United States and more than eighty other countries. The company's operations include exploring for and developing crude oil, a most important commodity in today's world. In addition, Iguana Oil is involved in transporting crude oil in pipelines, supertankers, and trucks. At the end of last year, Iguana Oil's total assets were $38.9 billion and it was ranked as the fourth largest petroleum company in the world based on revenues.

The company was founded in 1932 and experienced phenomenal growth during the 1930s and 1940s; it made an important contribution to the war effort during World War II. Its growth continued well after the war, as baby boomers bought cars to support their need for mobility in their work, entertainment, and vacationing. During the 1970s, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) helped to increase the profits of Iguana Oil by raising oil prices. By the end of the 1980s, Iguana Oil was in a strong financial position.

Now, as Iguana Oil prepares for the twenty-first century, the world's oil supplies are diminishing and the cost of exploring and developing new oil fields is increasing tremendously. According to the president of Iguana Oil, Bill Rowen, "Iguana Oil must prepare for the future by exploring for more oil reserves and developing new sources of energy. The exploration and development of new reserves is urgent for Iguana Oil. Our future depends on it. At our current rate of extraction, which is in accordance with world demand, our present oil reserves are expected to be used up within the next twenty-five years. Iguana Oil needs to find new sources, rich with reserves, that will carry the company well into the twenty-first century."

An initial exploration by Iguana Oil has determined that there is a strong possibility there is an oil reserve off the coast of Guilipa, a poor developing nation located in the tropics. However, the size of this reserve is not known. Yesterday Mr. Rowen told the board of directors, "The reserve may be extremely large or it may be extremely small. There is no way of knowing until we actually start developing the oil exploration sites already staked out."

The country of Guilipa has a population of about 4.5 million people. The per capita income averages approximately $700 per year. Guilipa's main exports are sugar, coffee, fish and other seafood. Its main imports are raw materials for plant and equipment, technological and electronic goods, and, of course, oil. Since the 1970s, Guilipa has been plagued by a large deficit, unable to earn enough foreign currency to pay for its imports. This debt, and the balance of payments deficit, has contributed to runaway inflation and to a severe shortage of consumer goods.
Recently, a native Guilipian remarked to the foreign press, "Now there are very few products in our supermarkets. What is available for me to buy gets more expensive every day because my money continues to lose its value. I don't know what the future holds for my family, but we are getting more and more desperate.

In addition, Guilipa is suffering from a high level of unemployment, especially in the capital city. Outside the capital city, many of the citizens are peasant farmers or fishermen on the coast.

Guilipa's president, José Sanchez, who is running for reelection next year, recently said at a campaign rally, "If I am elected as your president again, Guilipa's economy will continue on its path of improvement. More jobs will be created, your children will eat and go to school, your money will be worth more!" With this, all the people clapped and shouted, "Sanchez! Sanchez! Sanchez!"

When President Sanchez returned to his office later that day, he was contacted by the Iguana Oil Company, which notified him of its interest in starting oil drilling off Guilipa's coast. All of President Sanchez's aides were exclaiming, "This is just what Guilipa needs to help rebuild the economy! Even though President Sanchez thought this could be an excellent opportunity for Guilipa, he was still a bit wary. "Yes, Guilipa desperately needs economic help. We are going through very difficult times. However, we still want representation, autonomy, and dignity in this venture."

President Sanchez, clearly a man of the people, is considered by all to be above undue influence. During the whole time José Sanchez has been his country's president, not a bit of corruption has touched him or his administration.

In response to Iguana Oil's interest in drilling for oil off Guilipa's coast, President Sanchez faxed a letter to Mr. Rowen, President of Iguana Oil.
Dear Mr. Rowen,

I am delighted to learn about your company's interest in drilling for oil off the coast of Guillipa. A venture such as this could really help to solve some of the economic problems my country is now facing. However, after reviewing the contract that you faxed to my office, I am very concerned about certain areas. In order for me to sign the contract, honestly representing all citizens of my country, we must negotiate the following areas:

OWNERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

► How does Iguana Oil propose to develop the potential oil reserves?
► Will Iguana Oil have centralized or decentralized control in the venture?
► Who will the management consist of?
► Will Guillipians hold positions in management? If so, how many, and which positions?

PROFIT AND INVESTMENT

► Who will own the oil? At what percentage?
► How will Guillipa gain income on the oil?
► What percentage of the profits will be Guillipa's?
► What percentage will be invested in the country's infrastructure?

ECONOMIC ISSUES

► How much employment will the venture provide locally?
► How much oil will be provided for the domestic market? At what selling price?

ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

► If there is an oil spill, who will be responsible?
► How will it be cleaned up? Who will pay for the cleanup?

OTHER ISSUES

► We propose to take up additional issues as they arise, particularly as we approach the active negotiation stage.

At our negotiating session next month in Guillipa, I hope we will be able to come to an agreement on these areas.

Yours truly,

José Sanchez
President of Guillipa

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Work Sheet 5.2

Finding Out the Meaning of Words

The words in bold are taken from the case. Read the following sentences and try to guess the meaning of the words. Write a synonym or your own definition.

1. At the end of last year, Iguana Oil's total assets were $38.9 billion and it was ranked as the fourth largest petroleum company in the world based on revenues.

2. The company was founded in 1932 and experienced phenomenal growth during the 1930's and 40's; it made an important contribution to the war effort during World War II.

3. It's growth continued well after the war as baby boomers bought cars to support their need for mobility in their work, entertainment, and vacationing.

4. Now as Iguana Oil prepares for the twenty-first century, the world's oil supplies are diminishing and the cost of exploring and developing new oil fields is increasing tremendously.

5. At our current rate of extraction, which is in accordance with world demand, our present oil reserves are expected to be used up within the next twenty-five years.

6. The oil reserve may be extremely large or it may be extremely small. There is no way of knowing until we actually start developing the oil exploration sites already staked out.

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
7. Since the 1970's, Guiipa has been plagued by a large deficit, unable to earn enough foreign currency to pay for imports.

8. All of President Sanchez's aides were exclaiming, "This is just what Guiipa needs to help rebuild the economy!"

9. Even though President Sanchez thought this could be an excellent opportunity for Guiipa, he was still a bit wary.

10. "Yes, Guiipa desperately needs economic help. We are in very difficult times. However, we still want representation, autonomy, and dignity in the venture.

Now try to match the words with one of the given synonyms or definitions.

- 1. rank
- 2. phenomenal
- 3. baby boomers
- 4. diminish
- 5. in accordance with
- 6. stake out
- 7. deficit
- 8. exclaim
- 9. wary
- 10. autonomy

a. extraordinary
b. independence
c. shout
d. cautious
e. order
f. demarcate
g. individuals born after the immediate post-World War II period
h. corresponds to
i. decrease
j. shortage

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Work Sheet 5.3
Generating Thoughts

1. There are some issues President Sanchez mentions in his letter to Mr. Rowen. These are taken out of the original text. What could they possibly be? Discuss with others and write down your answer/answers.

2. Why do you think these issues should be included in the negotiation?

3. To solve these new issues, what experts do you think are needed in this negotiation?
Work Sheet 5.4
Storytelling

What's the Story?

Retell the case in your own words. Use the pictures below as a guide.

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Focus Sheet 5.3

Group Problem Solving

Setting Up

Group A: Iguana Oil

Your group represents the management of Iguana Oil. Someone on your team will be the president of Iguana Oil, Bill Rowen. The other group members are experts in a specific area needed to fulfill the team's goals for the negotiation. For example, someone will be the vice-president of finance. Your group will go first in the negotiating session, addressing the issues that President José Sanchez raised in his memo to your company. Your group will "have the floor" first, with each team member speaking about his or her specific area. Begin by first introducing all participants (in both Group A and Group B) and their specific roles. Keep in mind the tips for negotiating which are located at the end of the chapter.

Group B: Guilipa

Your group represents the country of Guilipa. Someone on your team is President José Sanchez. All other members are experts in a specific area needed to fulfill the team's goals in the negotiation. For example, someone is the economy minister. Your team will first listen to what Group A has to offer and then respond with what your group has decided is acceptable and not acceptable. It is important that all team members take notes while Group A is presenting its points, so as not to forget important points that you may want to address.

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Work Sheet 5.5A
Preparing the Platform

To prepare your group for the negotiating session (only Groups A and B), discuss each issue raised in the memo that José Sanchez sent to Bill Rowen. Decide what is acceptable and not acceptable to your group for each issue. (Use additional lines if necessary.)

Ownership and Management

Profit and Investment

Economic Issues

Environmental Issues

Other Issues

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Focus Sheet 5.4
Communication Strategies

The following phrases will help you achieve a win-win situation when negotiating.

"Please correct me if I'm wrong."

It is important to establish a dialogue with the other person. To achieve this, it sometimes helps if you present the information you have as though it might possibly be inaccurate.

"Mr. Wong, I've just learned—please correct me if I'm wrong—that the cost of producing your goods is $25 per unit. When I started doing business with your company last month, I was told that the cost was $45. Have I been misinformed?"

"Could I ask you a few questions to see whether my facts are correct?"

Ask the other side to clarify its position.

"Is the cost of producing each unit $25?" This is less threatening than "The cost of producing each unit is $25, which means that you have been overcharging me."

"Let me see if I understand what you're saying."

Restate the other side's position in positive terms to make sure you have understood it.

"Let me see if I understand what you're saying, Mr. Wong. If I've understood you correctly, you think that the unit selling price of $90 is fair because the costs of buying the raw materials fluctuate."

"One fair solution might be...

Present a fair option for both parties.

"Given all the considerations we've discussed, one fair solution might be to sell the goods to me at a fixed 50 percent markup over your production costs. The selling price should fluctuate as the market price for raw materials fluctuates."

"If we agree... If we disagree..."

Make it easy for the other party to agree to your proposal.

"If you and I can reach an agreement now, I'll place an order for more goods. If we can't reach an agreement, I'll have to take my business elsewhere."

(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
Group A begins the session with an uninterrupted presentation of what it is willing to offer to Group B. After Group A is finished, Group B presents its platform and responds to what Group A has to offer. The following is a worksheet to help you during the negotiating process. The first part of the worksheet is designed to help you remember important points brought up that you would like to address later in the session. The second part is designed to help you evaluate the other team's proposals, and the third part is provided to help you record the final agreements. (Use additional lines if necessary.)

**Points to be brought up later**

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**EVALUATION OF THE OTHER TEAM'S PROPOSALS**

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<tr>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES</th>
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**Final Agreements**

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(Spring-Wallace, 1993)
When the session is over, evaluate the negotiation according to the following questions:

1. Was the negotiating process successful? Why or why not?
2. What ideas, techniques, and ways of speaking were effective in the negotiation?
3. Did the session focus on important points or were many irrelevant issues presented?
4. Which important issues did both teams overlook?
5. Did everyone contribute to the session or did only one or two students dominate the session?
6. Was the agreement the best possible solution?
7. What specifically was said that was crucial to reaching the agreement?
8. How could the negotiating session have been improved?
## Assessment Sheet

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REFERENCES


Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. TESOL Quarterly, 9, 41-51


