Activity theory as a basis for negotiation training in adult English-as-a-foreign-language instruction

Cheng-Wei Lu

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ACTIVITY THEORY AS A BASIS FOR NEGOTIATION
TRAINING IN ADULT ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-
LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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
Cheng-Wei Lu
June 2006
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June 4, 2006
ABSTRACT

In Taiwan, learning English is viewed as a tool for attaining economic success, and the Taiwanese English classroom is primarily defined as an English-as-foreign-language (EFL) classroom. English is an academic skill that is only applied in some particular situations; people do not use English in daily life. The principal aim of this project is to provide Taiwanese educators a blueprint to use when teaching students crosscultural negotiation skills. Taiwanese teachers will learn a method of analyzing their educational practice to encourage more active and engaged teaching, with a useful curriculum and its corresponding assessment.

In Chapter One, an overview of the role of English in contemporary Taiwan, a review of English teaching and methodologies in Taiwan, and challenges of English teaching in Taiwan’s secondary schools are initiated. Chapter Two includes a literature review of key concepts that provide the basis for this project. Chapter Three proposes a theoretical framework that synthesizes the five concepts in Chapter Two. Chapter Four shows how to integrate the theoretical framework into a curriculum unit. Chapter Five suggests distinctive assessments as a means to evaluate students’ learning.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

The Role of English in Contemporary Taiwan

English is now more significant than ever as a foreign language in Taiwan, with the growth of the global economy, all-encompassing utilization of technology, and the desire to obtain information through the Internet. Because of these purposes for learning English, the Taiwanese English classroom is primarily defined as an English-as-foreign-language (EFL) classroom.

Taiwan, a democratic, developed country, gradually has come to participate in international assemblies as an integral member of the global community. Because Taiwan is an island country that lacks sufficient domestic energy sources, the economy of Taiwan is entirely dependent on international trade. Companies in Taiwan accept orders for such items as semiconductors, digital cameras, and other highly technological products from all over the world.

Because of international business, the demand for human resources in the field of foreign languages is steadily increasing. Because English is more in demand than any other international language, teaching English in
Taiwan has become a high-profile career in which professionals must work hard to meet the demand to stay current with the language of globalization.

For example, English tutoring schools are very popular; their function is to provide intensive English programs to meet students' needs, even at the adult level. Moreover, university textbooks and manuals of high-technology instruments are written in English with no translation; this is because professors, students, and engineers are eager to know the information directly as soon as possible. Additionally, people can enlarge their view of the world with English proficiency. Consequently, English is certainly the most important foreign language in contemporary Taiwan.

**History of English Teaching and Methodologies in Taiwan**

A few decades ago, students studied English only to obtain a high score in English on their college entrance examinations and have a good chance to be admitted to a high-status university. Because it was a paper-based test, students were concerned only about developing their reading and writing skills, but ignored development of their speaking and listening abilities. Furthermore, teachers used the grammar-translation method to teach
English, so students put emphasis on memorizing vocabulary, sentence structure, and article usage. As a result, almost all of the students were deficient in English speaking and listening; moreover, Taiwan also lacked an English-speaking environment for students to practice the English that they had learned. For example, some universities have English communication courses with native-English-speaking instructors, but most students feel anxious and uncomfortable talking in English with the instructor or with peers. After one hour of instruction in conversation class, students prefer not to talk in English to each other outside of the classroom and avoid communication with the native instructor in person.

In the past, "Examination guides the way of teaching" was a suitable description of English institution in Taiwan; however, the primary purpose of learning a language is to be able to communicate. Besides the traditional grammar-translation methodology, English teaching methods in contemporary Taiwan are varied. English teachers have started to introduce teaching methods from abroad, especially from the United States. In these approaches, the most pervasive by teachers in Taiwan is CALL (computer-assisted language learning), especially for engineers. Because computers are commonly used,
engineers usually embrace English-learning software without hesitation.

In recent years, the English classes at the elementary-education level have been designed to be lively, and to attract students’ interest. The object of learning English in elementary school in Taiwan is to promote students to talk naturally. On the other hand, this situation does not happen in high school and college-level education. In high school, English is only a medium to apply to a prestigious university; students just copy everything that the teacher says in class and they have no desire to learn actively. Although most teachers believe that testing students is the best way to measure the progress of students’ abilities when it comes to English, top-heavy testing restrains students’ passion to learn English.

**Dilemmas of English Teaching in Taiwan’s Secondary Schools**

All parents expect their kids to have a successful and meaningful future; they have great expectations for the next generation. No parent wants a child to lose at the starting stage of learning English, so parents encourage their children to learn English at an early age. Children learn English at an early age actively; however,
the learning in high school is different, with passive copying of text and little interaction. Furthermore, the goal of high school students, getting a good grade in English to enter prestigious universities, has been deeply rooted for many years. Even though the English teachers in high schools realize that the situation is not what they would desire, they have no choice but to accept a flawed situation of English education in high school. Under these circumstances, the drawbacks of learning English in high school have influenced students' performance gradually in their future career or life.

**Target Teaching Level: Upper-Level and Adult**

When I was in Taipei University, I suffered great difficulty in learning English. My major was electronic engineering; most of the textbooks students used were in English and we had a native-English speaker as the instructor of the communications course. For this major, English seemed unimportant because we took English classes only in the freshman year. Moreover, the atmosphere of the classroom was horrible. For instance, all of the students in the class were reading five-page lessons without any discussion; some of them fell asleep. Although students read many textbooks in English everyday, their English skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) were
deficient and inefficient. In conversation class, students were silent and responded to the instructor passively. No one spoke English outside the classroom. In this case, students’ failure to improve their English abilities could have affected their careers.

In my one-year working experience, most machine operation manuals were written in English; engineers spent a lot of time reading by using grammar-translation methods, which caused for a lot of lost work time. For this reason, the company paid extra money to have a professional interpreter convert the content of the manuals from English to Chinese; then engineers could read the translation explicitly and operate the machines without any misunderstanding. Moreover, skilled workers need to develop negotiation skills to clarify their workplace missions and experience more efficient management.

I am quite enthusiastic about teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). I would focus on teaching upper-level students and professionals already working in the engineering field. However, students should learn English at an early age; teachers of English education in high school should teach English actively and vigorously. I believe good instructional methodologies can
increase students’ interest and influence their career performance. Basically, fluent English usage for engineers can expand their experience in any aspect of engineering. As a prospective instructor of English as a foreign language in Taiwan, I would play a motivational role to encourage upper-level and adult students to persevere at becoming experienced English-speaking engineers and guide them to overcome the difficulties of learning English.

The Purpose of the Project

The primary aim of this project is to offer Taiwanese teachers who work with adults a new concept of teaching negotiation skills along with a practical tool (the concept of activity system) to analyze fundamental tenets of schooling. This project can bring new methods to Taiwanese teachers to solve students’ problems when they are either learning how to negotiate or basically learning the English language.

This project offers a blueprint for teachers to examine their practice when they conduct lessons for students who need to obtain proper English skills to achieve their desired goals in business or other fields. Understanding individual differences is a crucial idea for prospective teachers, to enhance students’ learning and to
create well-developed curricula to sustain students’ learning purposes.

The concept of social capital is foundational to understanding students’ backgrounds, previous knowledge, and the social networks that can assist students to accomplish their goals. A connected notion, personal habitus, characterizes students’ physical dispositions, individual differences, and social practices in order to design suitable strategies for individualized instruction. This, in turn, is connected to the concept of symbolic power, a tool for teachers to understand students’ language abilities, cultural backgrounds, and social class possibilities. Moreover, the use of nonverbal communication is a symbolic means that helps teachers to increase learning and teaching efficiency.

Additionally, because of the trend of applying English in the field of international business, understanding effective negotiating practices is relevant to English language learning as an essential concern both for teachers to cultivate students’ proficiency in improving negotiation skills and basic English capability, and for students to enhance their own awareness of English usage (speaking, reading, writing, and listening). This can help them to accomplish their goals not only in
negotiation, but also in English language learning. Moreover, activity theory is often used to analyze educational practice, to ascertain whether the outcome is satisfied or the tools are well mediated. Through the use of activity theory, researchers can modify teaching strategies and mediating methods to improve present learning circumstances, resulting in better outcomes of learning and teaching.

The Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters. Chapter One describes the background of teaching and learning in Taiwan and the purpose, content, and significance of this project. Chapter Two is a review of literature that features five important concepts: social capital, habitus, symbolic power, activity theory, and intercultural negotiation. Chapter Three presents a theoretical framework based on the above concepts. Chapter Four presents a curriculum unit that integrates the theoretical framework model to an instructional unit in the Appendix. Chapter Five explains the methods of assessment that are incorporated in the lessons in Chapter Four.
The Significance of the Project

Learning English is a challenge for people like Taiwanese EFL students because English in Taiwan is an academic skill that applies in some particular situations, but not in daily life. Furthermore, EFL students with limited motivation need support from explicit understanding of individual differences (different nations or cultures) to promote their interest in language learning. Appreciating diversity is a practical factor that students can use as they increase their English abilities, not only to get along with people from other nations by communicating in English, but also to seek desired outcomes/benefits in any given practice (intercultural negotiation). I hope that this project will be helpful to develop new ideas about interacting with others, using English in innovational learning environments; and also to offer a way of analyzing educational practice to cultivate students' competence and develop teachers' strategies in learning and teaching English.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Social Capital and Academic Achievement

Being educated is one of the most important stages in the process of socialization. Fram (2004) stated that education is organized with respect to the structure of inequality. Within that structure, educational opportunities are experienced, and educational attainment takes on different meaning for differently positioned groups (Fram, 2004). Generally speaking, school is the place where people receive institutional information and obtain effective experiences to prepare them to achieve their goals. Public schools are incredibly complex institutions, enrolling students from a wide spectrum of socioeconomic, ethnic, racial, and religious populations (Musial, 1999). Moreover, in Bourdieu’s point of view, school is an inevitable element of the social network.

In general, foreign students with abundant social capital (resources and abilities) are a minority of the total number of students in the United States; foreign students are second-language learners (L2 learners) who must obtain English proficiency to accomplish their goals. How students succeed in school involves several aspects,
internal (students' aspirations, academic abilities, and prior useful experiences), and external (professors' instruction, professional equipment, and effective curricula). Therefore, the students' aspirations drive their academic performances; their prior experiences assist their learning proficiency.

**Definition of Social Capital**

In the 1980s, social capital was a crucial concept that was broadly discussed. Bourdieu, an influential French theorist, proposed various concepts drawing from a wide range of sociological theory. Bourdieu formally defined social capital as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possessions of a durable network or more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249). Fram (2004) agreed that social capital for Bourdieu is how experience of day-to-day social connectedness is translated into effects.

Bourdieu's view suggests that people in advantaged social locations not only have more money, but also "information, resources, behaviors, and opportunities that help them to further their advantage, social networks among people of privilege work conservatively to keep resources and access the resources with the group" (Avis,
2002, p. 315). For example, students, as a special group of people, have academic goals of being educated in advantaged locations (elite colleges or privileged universities); therefore, "their academic performances are highly associated with the socio-economic background" that students have obtained (Khattab, 2003, p. 286).

Furthermore, "social capital provides individuals with access to people who can provide material goods, social support such as emotional support, and information on jobs and training programs" (Avis, 2002, p. 315). People believe that one can go to school to get a better job and higher income because then he/she can draw more resources from their social networks.

Several studies (Hao & Bonstead Bruns, 1998; Marjoribanks, 1998; Schneider & Stevenson, 1999) found that students who are part of families with strong relationship ties between parents and children are more likely than others to develop high future aspirations and ambitious educational plans. These studies also found that social capital plays an important role in channeling parents' perceptions of the educational system and the labor market opportunities to the students (Hao & Bonstead Bruns, 1998; Marjoribanks, 1998; Schneider & Stevenson, 1999). As seen in these studies, social capital
“influences students’ educational aspirations” and it also determines students’ academic achievements (Khattab, 2003, p. 286).

Putnam (2000) proposed that there are two distinct, but not mutually exclusive dimensions of social capital: bonding and bridging. Woolcock (2001) declared that “bonding refers to the close inward-looking relations between like-minded individuals” (p. 13) and “bridging refers to more outward-looking relations between people within different interests and goals” (p. 13). Additionally, Putnam (2000) suggested that “bonding social capital constitutes a kind of sociological superglue whereas bridging social capital provides a sociological WD-40” (pp. 22-23). By this implication, students use “private social capital” (friends and families) to glue themselves into powerful groups and “institutional social capital” (the resources of their universities) to overcome any educational difficulties in order to efficiently reach their level of aspiration in education (Lee & Brinton, 1996, p. 177).

Theoretical Frameworks of Social Capital

In more contemporary research, Pooley, Cohen and Pike (2005) defined the concept of social capital as having three integrated themes: 1) relationships, 2) networks,
and 3) competencies. These researchers clarified three themes as follows:

Relationships: Those between individuals as well as between groups.

Networks: Concepts such as trust (goodwill), reciprocity (interaction), structure (formal and informal), density (number and complexity), and membership of groups.

Competencies: The individual’s personal resources, which include the individual’s self-esteem and self-efficacy. (p. 73)

The explanation of social capital offered by Pooley et al. is much more practical than that offered by Bourdieu. These three themes offer second-language learners clear-cut ideas that help them to reach their aspirations of academic achievement in the United States.

Khattab’s Framework of Social Capital. Khattab (2003) stated that academic performance is highly associated with socioeconomic background; educational aspirations act as a mechanism of social reproduction. Moreover, social capital “influences students’ educational aspirations, for the most part, through parents’ norm, values, and expectations,” (Khattab, 2003, p. 286) and also “plays an important role in channeling parents’ perceptions of the
educational system to the students" (Schneider & Stevenson, 1999, p. 180).

Based on his findings, Khattab designed a general model that explains the production of high educational aspirations among minorities. The model is presented in Figure 1.

![Theoretical Model of Shaping Minority Students' Future Aspirations](image)

Source: Adapted from Khattab (2003).

Additionally, foreign students who pursue degrees at any level of schooling, especially in universities in the United States, are the minority of the whole population of students. Their learning aspirations are likely to be developed through "strong family ties between parents and
students that result in norms, values, and perceptions being directed towards the importance of higher education and the available opportunities within specific social structure" (Khattab, 2003, p. 286).

Balatti and Falk’s Framework of Social Capital.
Balatti and Falk (2002) stated that social capital theory is the proposition that networks of relationships are a resource that can facilitate access to other resources of value to individuals or groups for specific purposes. To be successful in school in order to get a high-level job is a primary purpose for most students. Students’ access to social capital is usually used to “describe the resources that are made available to individuals or groups by virtue of networks and their associated norms and trust” (Balatti & Falk, 2002, p. 283).

Based on Falk and Kilpatrick’s (2000) previous research, Balatti and Falk (2002) created a model that showed that social capital is the knowledge and identity resources available to the community for a common purpose (see Figure 2). As seen in the model, Balatti and Falk (2002) claimed that the nature of the interaction potentially changes the resources that store the participants’ social capital just as the resources
Action or cooperation for benefit of community and/or its members

Source: Adapted from Falk and Kilpatrick (2000).

Figure 2. The Model of Building and Using Social Capital

themselves have an impact on the nature of the interactions.

According to this model, it is obvious that the types of social capital available to the participants “lie within the knowledge resources and the identity resources that are brought to the interaction by the participants individually and collectively” (Balatti & Falk, 2002, p. 286). The importance of this model “reveals the interconnectedness of the two processes of drawing on and building social capital that are implicated in identifying learning outcomes” (Balatti & Falk, 2002, p. 287). The
model presents what kind of social capital participants need to have in order to achieve learning goals.

Throughout these two frameworks, educational researchers explicitly realize the impact of social capital that influences interactions among schools and family.

Social Capital Related to Academic Achievement

Musial (1999) stated that using social capital development as the legitimate and proper goal for schooling provides a blueprint for successful integration of the interdependent roles of society and schools. Privileged students who are willing to go to universities may generally depend on extraordinary social capital such as abundant economic resources, personal intelligence, and effective learning skill that are rare among other students. In other words, these students can get permission to enter colleges without any difficulty, can achieve their aspirations and parents’ expectations with few obstacles, and can graduate from universities without a hitch.

Apparently, social capital is “productive, making possible the achievement of certain ends that in it absence would not be possible” (Musial, 1999, p. 117). Also social capital “refers to webs of relationships with
people who can help an individual find appropriate training” (Schneider, 1997, p. 30). The students who possess an abundance of social capital not only are more likely to acquire better jobs, but also be able to assist others in need with the social networks.

Students. Musial (1999) suggested that capital treats people as objects that must be trained and modeled for the most efficient functioning of the industrial system. In this technological model of society, the individual is molded to meet the needs of technology; on the other hand, the system is not changed to meet the desires of the individual. In the 21st century, the technological capital that students need to acquire is mostly about computer innovations; access to the Internet and proficiency in using software are efficient skills for students to use to enhance their learning proficiencies. Essentially, Rodney (1999) stated that students must have a sense that they are proficient in performing their scholarly role; and both professors and administrators, as representatives of universities, must establish the conditions to ensure that students maintain their self-respect as they learn new and increasingly complex knowledge.

Teachers. The professors and administrators expect "that academic programs educate students to consider ideas
important, to increase their knowledge, and to shape their lives on the basis of ideas” (Rodney, 1999, p. 114). The level of social capital that teachers hold is also a critical fact that affects students' intellectual performances. Smyth (2000) proposed that teachers with high levels of social capital treat students in more inclusive ways that enhance their self-efficacy and learning skills.

Schools. Goddard (2003) declared that “the academic success of individual students is influenced by their personal characteristics and dispositions” (p. 59). Moreover, “equally true is that as members of schools, families, and communities, students may have access to various forms of social support that can facilitate their success in school” (Goddard, 2003, p. 59). School can be used as capital to link individuals with other groups. For example, schools may accept companies' funds to help sponsors train their employees or cultivate their students to be able to work for those certain companies. In other words, school is a medium to bonding or bridging other forms of social networks and is “a network with permeable boundaries connecting it to the other institutions comprising society” (Musial, 1999, p. 118).
Furthermore, in the higher education system, "the usefulness or effectiveness of the social capital may vary by the specific institution attended" (Lee & Brinton, 1996, p. 182). For instance, some vocational colleges offer scholarships for outstanding students and thus enable elite graduates to pursue high-salaried careers; students attain their particular achievements in order to find their desired jobs.

Social capital refers to social relationships from which an individual is potentially able to derive institutional support, particularly support that includes the delivery of knowledge-based resources (Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995). After Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch (1995) reviewed previous studies, they concluded five principles of social capital as follows:

1. The level of social capital in the students' network is positively related to the socioeconomic background of the students' family.
2. The level of social capital inherent in the students' network is positively related to the students' proficiency of learning.
3. Students with higher grades report information networks characterized by greater social capital.

4. Students with higher educational and occupational expectations also report greater social capital.

5. The relation between status expectations and social capital and between language traits and social capital is stronger for working-class minority students than for middle-class minority students. (p. 120)

Based on the above statements, social class no doubt influences the ability of students and their social groups (family and friends) to use social capital to acquire valuable goods. However, social class is not the only medium by which valued goods can be gained; some students from lower-income or working-class family also attain success with their personal capabilities and ambitious aspirations.

Summary

As Musial (1999) suggested, "the creation of a network of multiage persons, coupled with relationships, norm, and expectations, is at the root of social capital" (p. 118). Social capital not only occurs in narrow but
deep networks like families, but also happens in the broad but shallow networks such as schools and businesses. The type and level of social capital that students need to achieve their academic success can be a crucial concern. The way schools and families can assist students to be successful in school is also a critical issue. Educators and researchers need to know that social capital, a productive network, can be thoroughly cultivated to promote the success of all students.

Habitus in Education

Habitus, in general, involves the ways individuals "become themselves"—develop attitudes and dispositions—and the ways in which those individuals engage in practices. In 1992, Bourdieu and Wacquant observed that habitus is acquired during primary socialization. LeCompte and deMarraiais (1999) declared that people develop unconscious rules that determine their ideas about how the world operates, what values are important, their place in society and the kind of future to which they are entitled; these rules constitute their habitus. Students deal with other groups using various forms of habitus, employing these to accomplish their goals in interactions. Thus, habitus impacts the ways people understand the world
(their beliefs and values), the attitudes with which people constitute their ways of behaving, and the set of dispositions with which people face everyday life.

Education is a process in which students develop capabilities of learning and proficiency in manipulating knowledge. Even though education provides equal opportunities, each individual obtains unique levels of sufficiency in the process. The reason can lie in the inequality of individuals; "some want to be educated more than others and possess an effective habitus that generates practices in accordance with that desire" (Nash, 2002, p. 28). Habitus plays an inevitable character in the field of education and also influences students' performance.

The Definition of Bourdieu's Habitus

Bourdieu, French philosopher and sociologist, defined habitus as "systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles of the generation and structuring of practices and representations which can be objectively 'regulated' and 'regular' without in any way being the product of obedience to rules" (1991, p. 72). He also declared that habitus comprises both the social conditions of the
production of agents and the durable effects that they exercise by inscribing themselves in dispositions (Bourdieu, 1993). Individuals build up their habitus based on their experiences: they may try different ways to pursue the goals they desire, and they can manipulate various techniques to overcome difficulties, in the process figuring out the most effective method to solve their problems. Additionally, habitus is "an active sediment of past experiences which functions in the present, shaping perception, thought, and action and thereby shaping social practice in a regular way" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 134).

**Expanding the Idea of Habitus**

Dumais (2002) stated that habitus, or one's view of the world and one's place in it, is an important consideration in trying to understand how students navigate their way through the educational system. Students come from different levels of social status, have diverse previous experiences, and encounter unpredictable obstacles in their daily lives; they produce some regularity as they deal with the same situations they have faced. In other words, their habitus "may be quite different from that of mainstream culture, on the basis of their socialization and the views they form of the
opportunity structure available to them” (Dumais, 2002, p. 45). Moreover, Swartz (2002) claimed that habitus consists of deeply internalized dispositions, schemas, and forms of know-know and competence, both mental and corporeal, first acquired by the individual through early socialization. For instance, habitus consists of one’s dispositions, which affect the actions one takes and the attitudes one has; it also manifests in one’s physical behavior, the way one carries oneself, walks, or talks. The objective of study is always to describe the relations of causality between structures, dispositions, and practices (Nash, 2005).

Dispositions. All dispositions are behavioral by definition, but emotional, physical, and mental dispositions, specific states of being that generate acts, can all be distinguished (Nash, 2005, p. 13). When students face a problem that they have never encountered before, the ways they deal with the problem may be based on their previous understanding of similar circumstances. The situation may unfold in the following ways. Some may feel anxious and worried because they have no strategy to face this problem; they show their emotional dispositions upon lack of previous knowledge of this circumstance. Some may have plenty of skills to cope with the same kind of
problems, but they never practically deploy their ideas to solve the problem; they address the situation as would a theoretician. Still others may aggressively begin to work on the problem with no plan; they can become failures easily because of carelessness and lack of strategies. In a sense, habitus is “a set of mental dispositions to process symbolic information, to be able to use these mental operators effectively in appropriate conditions” (Nash, 2005, p. 15).

**Structures.** The concept of habitus can be divided into two aspects: subjectivism and objectivism. Webb, Schirato, and Danaher (2002) claimed that

Subjectivism draws attention to the point that objectivist maps of a culture (such as laws, rules, and systems) edit out intentionality and individuality (or what is referred to as ‘agency’). Objectivism points out that individuality and intentionality are regulated by cultural context— that is, we can only ‘intend’ what is available to us within a culture. (p. 36)

In Bourdieu’s view, “subjectivist accounts of practice edit out the relationship between cultural structure and individual practices; objectivist accounts
of 'other' practices or cultures have no place for the forgotten questions of particular conditions" (Webb, Schirato, & Danaher, 2002, p. 35).

Practices. Nash (1999) stated that "practices are generated by a certain habitus (this is a matter of definition) and, therefore, all practices give evidence of the structures of the habitus that generate them" (p. 178). In Bourdieu's view, human action constitutes the term "practice." People produce hundreds of actions daily and regularly; therefore, they mediate several practices in their social relationships with other individuals or groups. Nash (1999) proposed two models of habitus: specific (used in studies of actual class practices) and general (used to support the so-called statistical mode of reproduction). He concluded the following:

1. As practices are generated by a specific habitus, there must be, if the trajectories of people within a class are in some respects not the same, more than one identifiable habitus with a class.

2. Bourdieu constructs a 'statistical mode' of class reproduction in which, by some profoundly inexplicable mechanism, those brought up within the class are supposed to have internalized a
habit with the objective chances of that class built in it. (p. 178)

Nash (1999) also claimed that “social practice may then be analyzed to reveal the nature of the habitus through the relations of homology observed between the various elements that constitute the unity of the culture;” therefore, “this is a faculty theory of socialization within a structuralist theory of culture” (p. 177).

The concept of habitus, consisting of dispositions, structures, and practices, may be more complex than these researchers have imagined; properly employing habitus indeed influences students’ social lives and academic achievements. Furthermore, Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) suggested that “the notion of habitus is the corporeal scheme—the structure and capacities of our body—through which people learn by assimilating or modifying habits and dispositions” (p. 103). As students progress in school, they also gradually and socially learn “postural and gestural sets that create distinct forms of motility and perception” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 118).

Habitus Related to Higher Education

Swartz (2002) stated that “habitus generates perceptions, expectations and practices of earlier
socialization” (p. 635). In the field of education, students’ performances depend on their educational perceptions, parents’ expectations, and social practices that are generated along with previous knowledge. Moreover, habitus “adjusts aspirations and expectations according to the objective probabilities to the members of the same class for a particular behavior” (Swartz, 2002, p. 645). However, students in the same classroom coming from different social classes would have the same level of attainments if they positively and aggressively employ an appropriate habitus. The inequalities of being educated can be balanced by ingenious conduct of habitus.

Nash (1990) agreed that habitus is not the only principle generating cultural practice, and he occasionally refers to Bourdieu’s theory of practice and action. Bourdieu’s interest is exclusively on “how the taken for granted practice of socialized individual is effective in realizing the strategic end of their cultural group” (Nash, 1990, p. 434). Students must make continual progress. They can become more capable of dealing with further challenges because students accumulate capabilities by absorbing previous experiences. On the other hand, they can improve their efficiency by learning to do a better job, thus potentially improving future
studies. Additionally, "the dispositions of habitus tend to reproduce past behavior successfully only in fields where the opportunities are similar to those present during the formative period of the habitus" (Swartz, 2002, p. 665).

The strategies students use to acquire knowledge can be seen as the "reference to the social embedding of the actor, the fact that actors are socially formed with relatively stable orientation and ways of acting" (Hanks, 2005, p. 69). Language is one of the most important subjects in schooling; it is a basic medium that allows people to be well educated in order to fit in any social setting (such as schools, business, and social events). From a language perspective, habitus corresponds to social formation of speakers, including the dispositions to use language in certain ways, to evaluate it according to socially instilled values, and to embody expression in gesture, posture, and speech production (Ochs, 1996). Habitus plays a large role in students' success in school.

In recent studies, "students of education are no longer taught the general theory of intelligence as a dominant paradigm" (Nash, 2005, p. 17), so students have an opportunity to be taught by flexible, not fixed, subjects. Furthermore, each student may "produce a
collective habitus so that students sharing the same objective conditions tend to have similar subjective experiences, dispositions, and schemes of perception" (Bufton, 2003, p. 212). From the students’ perspective, educational habitus can be "acquired informally through the experience of social interactions by processes of imitation, repetition, role-play, and game participation" (Swartz, 2002, p. 635).

Nevertheless, “schooling does not have its own power to shape consciousness, over the power of family, and it is clear that the role of the school is acknowledged as active not merely passive” (Nash, 1990, p. 435).

Habitus takes place as a past practice that individuals routinely enact. Students’ academic behaviors can be adjusted by aspirations and expectations that are affected by individuals’ habitus.

Institutional Habitus of Higher Education

Thomas (2002) stated that central to Bourdieu’s notion of habitus are two ideas. The first is the need for classes and groups to reproduce themselves. Second, in society certain classes and groups are dominant and so control access to educational and career opportunities. Indeed, habitus among students is affected by such other social factors as gender, capital, and class. Moreover,
"school systems will perceive students who possess the habitus of the dominant classes as evidence of readiness (receptivity) for school knowledge" (Nash, 1990, p. 436).

Institutional habitus can be understood as the impact of a cultural group or social class on an individual’s behavior as it is mediated through the organization (Reay, 2004). The principal goal of institutional habitus is to encourage students who are from diverse backgrounds to discover greater acceptance of their own practices and knowledge in higher education (HE). However, some students may feel that their knowledge is not valued and their social practices are inadequate; students may tend to withdraw from school because they think they are not qualified for the field of education. This situation is like “a fish in water: it does not feel the weight of the water and it takes the world about itself for granted” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 127).

To apply the concept of institutional habitus to the field of higher education, Thomas (2002) suggested two different factors: academic experience (attitudes of staff, teaching and learning and assessment), and social experience (friendship, mutual support and social networks). This institutional habitus is a useful tool that “helps to determine the way in which difference is
dealt with, and thus the way students encountering difference for the first time react" (Thomas, 2002, p. 439); it also determines "the practices of the university, flexibility, willingness to change and the extent to which it embraces and suppresses diversity" (p. 439). The relations between staff and students, the outcome of assessment, and the atmosphere of learning and teaching among students and the teacher definitely and directly impact the success of students' friendship and social networks, as well as other supportive resources outside the field of education that assist students to overcome the internal and external problems they face.

Thomas (2002) identified the specific characteristics of institutional habitus from both his empirical research and a student's perspective:

1. Staff attitudes and relationship with students enable students to feel valued and sufficiently confident to seek guidance when they require it.

2. The habitus includes an awareness of different previous educational experiences, the language of instruction and implied requirements, alternative learning styles and needs, and other assumed norms.
3. Collaborative or socially-oriented teaching and learning promotes social relations between students through academic activities.

4. A range of assessment practices that give all students, irrespective of their preferred method of assessment, the opportunities to succeed, and which do not assume the same access to time and other resources.

5. Choice, flexibility, and support with regard to accommodation allow students to find the living arrangements that best suit them and to move if necessary.

6. Particular attention is needed with regard to students who are not able to socialize through their living arrangements.

7. Students are allowed to be themselves, and not expected to change to fit in with instructional expectations which may be very different to their own habitus. (pp. 439-440)

Thomas (2002), therefore, concluded that habitus involves a set of complex and diverse predispositions, although it is a dynamic concept, in which the past and the present, and the individual and the collective interact. No matter what kinds of habitus students have,
how different they are from one another, and what specific previous experience students have undergone, students must do their best in order to achieve success in the field of education. Students can succeed at school as a “consequence of personal aspirations, educational confidences, and positive response to the processes of schooling” (Nash, 2002, p. 46).

The institutional habitus is a useful tool that helps to determine the ways students encounter difference. Moreover, habitus is a dynamic concept, a synthesis of an individual’s past and present response to the demands of social life.

Summary

Webb, Schirato, and Danaher (2002) agreed that habitus is a set that people carry with them that shapes their attitudes, behaviors, and responses to given situations. In certain circumstances, students produce the particular attitudes, behaviors, and responses to fit in with dominant individuals and groups, and thus enhance their capabilities of learning. Because practice, structure, and disposition are linked together, students must thoroughly consider these three aspects of habitus (conscious or unconscious) before they take action. Additionally, institutional habitus is the means by which
institutions elaborate and improve on their instructional resources and influence students to seek and change their own practices. Successful students can employ habitus well; and therefore not only master their educational field but also the "real" world.

Symbolic Power in Schools

School is a place in which a variety of people perform various roles such as student, teacher or professor, administrator, or support staff. Each member of the community of the school has distinct responsibilities and obligations, and a school operates well when members of the school devote their attention to working cooperatively. In order for the institution to properly function, educators within the school must consider the effects of "authority and influence with respect to classroom instructions" (Diamond, Spillane, & Hallett, 2001, p. 3).

Throughout the educational system, language is the most powerful medium to express communicative competencies. Diamond, Spillane, & Hallett (2001) claimed that authority and influence over instruction are socially distributed across both administrators and teachers. Therefore, the ways teachers instruct can be considered as
symbolic means. In 1997, Galindo proposed that symbolic power operates through ideologies that establish the points of view of given groups as the natural order of things and disguise the self-interest and cultural production involved in establishing such a view of the world.

The power of an educational system is not always "real" but implied; symbols can be seen as one implication of power. Symbols such as linguistic, literary, and culture, "get exchanged in a way analogous to economic exchange, and are dependent upon economic value or some other manifestation of material base, for their working" (Loseberg, 1993, p. 1042). Furthermore, there are several facets like language, culture, and class that together maintain symbolic power and sustain the interactions among individuals and groups in the field of education. Bourdieu (1991) viewed symbolic systems as "more powerfully creating a social space (school) in which the interest of the dominant class gets legitimated for everyone" (p. 71).

Bourdieu’s Notion of Symbolic Power

In Language and Symbolic Power, Bourdieu (1991) defined symbolic power as follows:

A power of constituting the given through utterances, of making people see and believe, of
confirming or transforming the vision of the world, and, thereby action on the world and thus the world itself, an almost magical power which enables one to obtain the equivalent of what is obtained through force (whether physical or economic), by virtue of the specific of mobilization. (p. 170)

In school, symbolic power can be inculcated through teachers’ instruction, students’ habits, and unchangeable routine. For example, in the English-learner classroom, teachers who are capable of applying English to conduct a lesson, and students who are able to communicate with one another in English to accomplish their learning goals, are the group of people who possess symbolic power to dominate the other group of people who lack adequate proficiency in using English in the classroom. Moreover, school’s routine has symbolic power to regulate students’ schedule including the length of class period, the lunch time, and the time of arriving and leaving school.

Bourdieu (1991) created a figure that shows three categorized contents of the symbolic systems. Figure 3 presents the relations among components of symbolic power.
1. **Symbolic Systems as Structuring Structures.**

Bourdieu (1991) stated that the neo-Kantian tradition treats the different symbolic universes such as language, art, and science as instruments for knowing and constructing the world of objects, as symbolic forms. Moreover, within this tradition, "the objectivity of the
meaning or sense of the world is defined by the consent or agreement of the structuring subjectivities” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 164).

2. **Symbolic Systems as Structured Structures.**

Bourdieu (1991) declared that a structuralist, emphasizing the structured structures, views language as a structured system; “language is fundamentally treated as the condition of intelligibility of speech, and as the structured medium which has to be reconstructed in order to account for the constant relation between sound and meaning” (p. 166).

3. **Symbolic Production as Instruments of Domination.** Bourdieu (1991) affirmed that functionalism explains symbolic productions by relating them to the interests of the dominant class. Unlike myths, ideologies serve particular interests which are shared by the group as a whole. The dominant culture contributes to the real integration of the dominant class. Therefore, “the dominant culture produces the ideological effect by concealing the function of division beneath the function of communication: the culture which unifies is also the culture
which separates, and which legitimates
distinctions by forcing all other cultures to
define themselves by their distance” (Bourdieu,

Clearly, symbolic power is that invisible power
“which can be exercised only with the complicity of those
who do not want to know that they are subject to it, or
even that they themselves exercise it” (Bourdieu, 1991,
p. 164).

Forms of Symbolic Power

Symbolic power occurs along with interactions and
activity in the classroom when people communicate with one
another. When individuals possess diverse language
proficiencies and come from a variety of cultures, it is
clear that symbolic power operates as a measurement to
determine one’s position within a social structure or
social reality. Bourdieu (1989) stated that social
structures express themselves as relations of power within
a field.

Within the social structures of education, school
members often employ language, culture, and even class to
represent their positions and to demonstrate their
uniqueness. Differences between individuals can appear as
“a function of the symbolic system according to which
social space is inhabited” (Bourdieu, 1989; p. 20). The following paragraphs clarify the three factors (language, culture, and class) that incorporate symbolic power to influence students’ academic performance and teachers’ professional instruction.

**Language as Symbolic Power**

Language is a collection of symbols governed by rules and used to convey messages between individuals (Adler & Rodman, 2006). Language, both in oral and written form, allows people to satisfy basic functions such as describing ideas, making requests, and solving problems during interactions with other individuals or groups. Moreover, the ways people use language also influence others’ attitudes in more subtle ways. For example, teachers often form positive or negative impressions to judge students’ performance and self-representation, such as accent, choice of words, speech rate, and intonation. On the other hand, the “feeling of control, attraction, and responsibility are reflected in the ways people use language” (Adler & Rodman, 2006, p. 87). For instance, if a teacher conducts an uninteresting lesson and students are reluctant to speak frankly, the language they do use can suggest their degree of interest and attraction toward
the teacher, content of the lesson, and topic of instruction.

The language that teachers use is much more authoritative than that of students; therefore, the teacher’s attitude (either positive or negative) toward schooling influences students’ experiences and educational attainment. Particularly within the interactions among teacher and students, the way the teachers conduct a lesson predictably “represents a form of symbolic power enacted upon students” (Pajak & Green, 2003, p. 397). Language is the principal means that maintains symbolic power for people to effectively communicate with one another, and language is also widely manipulated to construct schooling by teachers.

Culture as Habitus

Students from a variety of countries possess different cultural backgrounds and habitus as they interact with one another in the community of a school, especially at the university and college level. The way individuals talk, walk, eat, and cooperate corresponds to the values and beliefs of their own cultures. When instructors or professors conduct their instruction, they have to consider their personal perspectives toward the different cultural bases of teaching any content, such as
sociology, history, and so on. Because of students' diverse cultural backgrounds, professors have to consider students' unique experiences as a necessity while instructing lessons. A more encompassing view includes the inequities in any sociocultural context that affects individual students' experiences (Wake, 2005).

Furthermore, Eriksen (1994) stated that culture makes both communication and misunderstanding possible, and is also the continuously generated result of ongoing processes of communication. In general, communications taking place between teachers and students are the most common interactions in the classroom. In this case, "the interactions that occur are shaped in particular by those who have acquired the symbolic power to define the situation" (Hallett, 2003, p. 131). For example, in the field of education, the professors who conduct the whole process of instruction hold more efficient symbolic power than students do because the professors are knowledgeable in managing the symbolic power. Culture is an unavoidable consequence for teachers to effectively conduct lessons, and even communications with students.

**Class within Social Capital**

Social class is held by the dominated groups of people with "ability to exercise control over others by
establishing their view of reality, their norms--both cultural and linguistic, and their cultural practices--as the most valued one" (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 93). Additionally, "when one examines the effects of class independently, important patterns of inequality are easily found" in social settings like schools (Horvat, 2003, p. 1). Furthermore, Wake (2005) asserted that educational systems controlled by the governing mainstream (powerful or upper classes) seek to perpetuate and legitimate the social status quo through a leveraging of linguistic legitimacy. In a sense, school is operated by and represents "a type of linguistic legitimacy as conceived by the standard language speakers of the socially dominant groups" (Wake, 2005, p. 9).

Bourdieu (1989) stated that social capital is the investment of the dominant class to maintain and reproduce group solidarity and preserve the group’s dominant position. In this sense, social capital varies between working-class and upper-class families. Although a student who comes from a working-class family can be successful in school, his/her future attainments of career or life are still affected by social stratifications. Hatcher (1998) concluded that the primary effects of class are "the differences in academic ability generated by family
backgrounds" and the secondary effects are "the educational choices made by students and parents at transition points in educational careers" (p. 7).

For example, when students make their choice of applying to a desired university where they will further their academic pursuits, their decisions are related to the "social selection which results not only from decisions made by the institutions, but also by the processes of self-selection by students and their parents" (Hatcher, 1998, p. 8). Without a doubt, upper-class students are more capable of attaining academic goals than working-class students, because they have more self-confidence, higher aspirations, more supportive family and friend networks, and can bear the costs more easily.

Generally speaking, within U.S. universities or other global systems of communication and exchange, school constituents must realize that differentiations in social class also have unavoidable effects that determine the ways individuals interact with one another in order to reach their goals in school.

Summary

Symbolic power, a major concept of Bourdieu's, refers to varied forms of power as they are routinely employed in
social life, and take on symbolic form. In other words, symbolic power is concerned with how the exercise of power is often disguised through symbolic means so that it is not recognized. Symbolic power, reflected by teachers’ instruction, students’ habits, and daily routine, is a concept that students and teachers must thoroughly consider when they operate within a school setting. In most cases, educators agree that language, culture, and class are three factors that sustain the constant effect of mastering the outcomes of learning and teaching.

Activity Theory as a Way of Analyzing Educational Practices

Activity theory has become "a well-established approach to contemporary research in the fields of applied linguistics, psychology, human-computer interaction, cognitive science, anthropology, communications, workplace study, and education" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 209). Activities always occur within a society where individuals share knowledge, norms, and social networks; therefore, the members of the society, as participants of the activity, have to use artifacts (tools) to interact with other individuals or groups. Indeed, individuals are active participants in multiple activity systems. In the real world, activity systems constantly interact with
other activity systems. Additionally, “participants themselves have many affiliations (identities, subject positions) with many other activity systems; ongoing social practices constantly change as tools-in-use are appropriated across boundaries and eventually are operationalized...to transform the activity system” (Russell, 1997, p. 531).

In educational systems--largely communicative in nature--the design of activity systems “depends on discourse as a semiotic tool for mediation within the cognitive, cultural, and creative activities essential to overcoming deep socio-historical patterns of education that are woven into the fabric of society” (Jenlink, 2001, p. 346). In educational systems design, the use of activity theory as a theoretical framework represents a sociocultural and inquiry-oriented perspective that illuminates the relationship between design as a human activity system and the sociocultural context in which the design activity unfolds (Jenlink, 2001).

In society in general, “people differentiate various types of activities by the specific knowledge, tools, and repertoires of tasks that people use to achieve particular outcomes” (Kain & Wardle, 2005, p. 1). For example, people see a college or university as having a goal of
facilitating learning; its participants include teachers, students, and administrators, and its tools include textbooks and chalkboards. In activity theory, it is activity itself that occupies the core of the analysis (Daniels, 2004).

Activity theory has been developed to analyze human activity, and it represents a sociocultural perspective that describes the relationship between activity systems and sociocultural contexts.

**The Development of Activity Theory**

Activity theory, a profound and well-known concept of psychology in Russia, was first explained and expanded by L. S. Vygotsky and his student, A. N. Leont’ev. The first generation of activity theory was formed around Vygotsky’s basic idea of cultural mediation of action that is conveyed as a triad of subject, object, and mediating artifact (Engeström, 2001) (see Figure 4). Engeström (1999a) stated that the individual can no longer be understood with his or her cultural means, and society can no longer be understood without the agency of individuals who use and produce artifacts. Moreover, Engeström (2001) claimed that the chief limitation of the first generation of Activity Theory was that “the unit of analysis remained individually focused” (p. 135).
To overcome the limitation of the first model, Leont’ev explicated the crucial difference between an individual action and a collective activity. Leont’ev expanded Vygotsky’s original model into a more complicated model that "is focused on the complex interrelations between the individual subject and his or her community" (Engeström, 2001, p. 134) (see Figure 5). Moreover, Daniels (2004) agreed that this expansion (the second generation) illustrates the social/cultural collective elements in an activity system, "with the addition of the ideas of community, rules, and division of labor while emphasizing the importance of analyzing their interactions with one another" (p. 123).
Even though activity theory had become intentional, Engeström (2001) proposed that the third generation of activity theory had to meet the needs of "developing conceptual tools to understand dialogue, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting activity systems" (p. 135) (see Figure 6). Also, Daniels (2004) stated that the purpose of Engeström's emphasis on the analysis of the activity systems use to explicate complicated circumstances--such as interacting activity systems--with explicit emphasis on the object of the activity and the outcomes.
Figure 6. Two Interacting Activity Systems as Minimal Model for the Third Generation of Activity Theory

After reviewing his own explanations of activity theory, Engeström (2001) summarized the five supportive principles of activity theory as follows:

1. A collective, artifact-mediated and object-oriented activity system, seen in its network relations to other activity systems, is taken as the prime unit of analysis.

2. Activity systems are multi-voiced.

3. Activity systems are characterized by historicity.
4. Contradictions play a central role as sources of change and development.

5. Expansive transformations are possible in activity systems. (p. 137)

As compared to the first generation of activity theory, the third offers detailed functions of each element and expresses the idea that two objects can interact and produce a third object.

Recently, researchers have employed the modern model of activity theory as a way of analyzing a variety of social practices situated in a particular sociocultural context. Activity theory has provided an explanatory model for a range of the fields of educational practice, including the general function of the university, the specific purpose of English as Second Language (ESL) classroom, and even innovational teaching using Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

Activity Theory Applied to the University

According to Russell (1997), an activity system can be seen as “an ongoing, object-directed, tool-mediated human interaction” (p. 510). For instance, a university is an activity system of long duration that began in the past and will continue into the future; additionally, in the university, “the types of activities that activity theory
is concerned with are directed towards specific goals” (Kain & Wardle, 2005, p. 2). Moreover, the types of tools that people use mediate, and shape, the ways people engage in activity; and the ways people think about activity are of crucial concern in accomplishing the goals of learning. In this case activity theory is concerned with the ways people work together, using tools, toward outcomes. For example, in the university, “teachers, students, researchers, administrator and staff interact with each other and with tools to achieve the outcomes of learning” (Kain & Wardle, 2005, p. 3).

Parts of an Activity System. Kain and Wardle’s (2005) article features brief descriptions of each element of the activity system. The subject is the person or persons who are directly participating in the activity students want to study. The motives direct the subjects’ activities and include “the object, which is fairly immediate, and the outcome, which is more removed and ongoing” (p. 4). The tools that mediate the activity systems include “physical tools such as computers, texts, and other artifacts, as well as non-physical tools like language (either written or oral) and skills” (p. 4). Furthermore, in this case, the university serves as the community and its members are assigned to accomplish their objectives. Within the
activity system, the other terms at the base of the triangle are division of labor and rules (see Figure 7). The division of labor describes how tasks are distributed within the activity system. Additionally, the rules attempt to manage or minimize conflicts within an activity system and are "defined not only as formal and explicit dos and don'ts, but also as norms, values, and conventions" (Kain & Wardle, 2005, p. 5).

![Figure 7. Class as an Activity System](image-url)
Moreover as applied to the model of the activity theory, Figure 7 provides an explicit idea of how the classes at a university function in terms of activity theory. Researchers who use activity theory investigate the relationships among people participating in activities, the tools people use to accomplish their activities, and the goals people have for the activity.

Language is an aspect of the communicative settings in a given social context. Jenlink (2001) stated that activity theory, "as a sociocultural theory of learning, has been used as a framework to construct understanding about how discourse and social language serve as semiotic tools related to educational system design activity" (p. 358).

Specifically, English supplies a social language in ESL classroom; and it serves a specific purpose for those second-language (L2) learners.

Activity Theory in the English-Learner Classroom

Wells (2002) stated that schooling should be seen as "fundamentally a form of 'semiotic apprenticeship,' in which students engage in investigations of issues, problems, and questions of personal as well as cultural concern" (p. 45). For English learners in most cases, English is a medium to survive in a sociocultural context.
and a vehicle to obtain better social status in their lives. Although activity theory "accounted primarily for material activity and its outcome in the form of transformed material objects (Wells, 2002, p. 43), spoken and written discourse has been recently placed in the list of mediating artifacts. Dialogue plays an important role in the activity of learning and teaching and occurs in everyday activity when classroom participants communicate with one another. In the ESL/EFL classroom, the dialogue is chosen by the students' needs as they function in a particular context and determined by teachers' judgments as they reinforce students' understanding.

**Language.** Because of the specific ways language is employed in the construction of knowledge in ESL classrooms, the outcome of the action from the students' subject position is too often "one of memorized information rather than the active appropriation and transformation of knowledge that the curricula designer presumably intended" (Wells, 2002, p. 47). Necessarily, the requirements a practical ESL curriculum must meet the English learners' needs. For example, the content of ESL curricula is to teach English learners to manipulate English as a useful tool in order to survive in an unfamiliar environment. In ESL classrooms, Boag-Munroe
stated that language “can be seen as setting up scripts which shape and are shaped by the activity they inhibit” (p. 167). Language is a medium that activates students’ motivations towards the language learning activity in the ESL classroom, both internally and externally. “Internalization is related to reproduction of culture; externalization as creation of new artifacts makes possible its transformations” (Engeström & Meittinen, 1999, pp. 10-11). Also Boag-Munroe (2004) claimed that language is not only at the heart of the language-learning activity, as the medium through which participants communicate, but also is an activity in itself.

The Unit of Analysis. Jenlink (2001) proposed that “activity theory claims that an activity is a unit that implies a socially defined goal and the execution of some specific actions that have evolved or have been created to attain that goal” (p. 349). To improve the effectiveness of English learning, researchers must consider “the aspects of the educational process, particularly teaching, the production of textbooks and learning materials, and the design of the learning environment” (Havnes, 2004, p. 159). Moreover, researchers employ the unit of analysis (activity theory) to evaluate “the context of educational
programs and the content of institutional structures under which students learn, teachers teach, and educational administrators work” (Havnes, 2004, p. 160).

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) agreed that “activity systems as English learner classrooms may be influenced by other educational contexts as well as exogenous activity systems not directly related to education” (p. 225). After summarizing the applications of activity theory to second-language learning settings, Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001) proposed the following:

It is not necessarily the case that all of the people in language classes have the goal of learning the language and the reason for this is because they have different motives for being in the class, because in turn they have different histories. It does not matter that in the operational domain they are all engaged in the same overt behaviors, for example, listening and repeating, reading and writing, communicative/task-based group work. (p. 148)

In order to improve the application of activity theory to educational contexts, Wells (2002) extended his focus in the issue of “understanding of events, concepts, and theoretical relationships and the mediational means,
the descriptions, narratives, and explanations in speech as well as writing, through which this understanding is achieved” (p. 43).

Language plays an important role in the activity system to cultivate English learners' learning. Researchers have discovered that activity theory is a useful measurement to evaluate the context of programs and the content of institutional structures.

Employing Activity in the Information and Communication Technology Classroom

Because of its effectiveness in the analysis of social practices, activity theory is also useful as a framework to study the information and communication technology (ICT) integration process from a sociocultural perspective.

Few decades, educators have employed computers to augment students' learning and to enhance the institutional structures of teaching. Because learning activity in ICT-mediated classrooms must be understood in the context of sociocultural issues, activity theory can be used to analyze differences of interactions within an activity system (Lim & Hang, 2003). In the sociocultural tradition, “learning is viewed as social practice suited
in a specific sociocultural context" (Havnes, 2004, p. 162).

In more recent work, Lim and Hang (2003) claimed that "activity theory proposes that activities consist of processes both at the individual and social level, including the mediational tools and artifacts that link the processes together" (p. 51). By taking activity theory as the theoretical framework, Lim and Hang (2003) concluded that incorporating this theory provides several important insights into ICT integration process as follows:

- Activity theory provides a conceptual map to the major loci among which human cognition is distributed in the learning environment, with ICT as one of the mediating tools.

- Activity theory includes other people who must be taken into account simultaneously with the subject as constituents of the activity system.

- Institutionalized activities are driven by something more robust and enduring than an individual goal-directed activity, making analysis less problematic.
Activity theory considers the history and developmental phases of the ICT integration process. (p. 51)

Integration of ICT is a well-accepted innovation of learning and teaching in the field of education. Adopting the model of activity theory to measure the ICT process offers educators an opportunity to discover potential flaws of educational programs and the defects of institutional organizations; moreover, educators are able to "document and describe the activity systems across schools and classrooms with the integral contextual understanding of the fundamental education" (Lim & Hang, 2003, p. 62).

Summary

No tool is bad or good in itself; its effectiveness results from and distributes to the whole configuration of events, activities, contents, and interpersonal processes taking place in the context of which it has been used. Each element of the activity system, including mediating tools, subject, rules, community, division of labor, object, and even outcome, interacts or influences the others.

Additionally, activity systems are dynamic and ongoing, not stable and fixed. Moreover, the mediating
Artifacts include tools and signs, both external implements and internal representation (Engeström, 1999b, p. 381). In particular, in the ESL classroom, language as the tool through which the subject interacts with the world is dependent on his/her objective in the activity system. In this case, “the relation between subjective and objective process can be considered as a kind of communication” (Lektorsky, 1999, p. 69). Using activity theory as a framework, educators can develop novel instruments to replace old-fashioned mediating tools to increase the efficiency of students’ learning and to build a well-developed educational environment.

**Intercultural Negotiation**

Negotiation has been a topic of interest to communication scholars since the 1960s. English has become more important than ever in the field of international business, so negotiation using English is also an inevitable trend all over the world. Therefore, learning negotiation becomes an additional subject of English language learning.

Furthermore, Lewicki, Barry, Saunders & Minton (2003) stated that the structures and processes of negotiation are fundamentally the same at the personal level as they
are at the group level. Individuals are unique; therefore, "understanding the fundamental process of negotiation is essential for anyone who works with other people to attain the goals of individual and groups" when people can negotiate about so many different things (Lewicki et al., 2003).

Negotiation as a form of communicative activity is "highly interpersonal in character" (Kumar, 1999, p. 64). Negotiation usually happens for two reasons: 1) to create something new that the other party could not do by himself or herself, and 2) to resolve a problem between the parties. Moreover, when the condition of negotiation is related to crosscultural negotiation, the negotiation becomes more complex than when people are negotiating with their own kind (a group of people sharing the same beliefs, values, norms, and even religion). Nowadays, businesses of all sizes search for suppliers and customers on a global level; Swaab, Postmes, and Neijens (2004) proposed that the concepts of international negotiation, including different cultures, varied norms, and diverse values, influence both negotiation of processes and outcomes. The increasingly global business environment requires managers to approach the negotiation process from the global business person's point of view, concerning the
problems may be caused by the concerns of intercultural negotiation (Zieba, 2003). However, "demarcation of the terms 'international negotiation' and 'intercultural negotiation' is not clearly drawn, and these two terms seem to describe a similar process" (Hayashikawa, 1999, p. 30). The ways people conduct a negotiation are related to parties' own backgrounds, previous experiences, and prior knowledge. Also, the goal or agreement of negotiation is the final and principal product that negotiators are eager to pursue.

**Interdependent Goals**

In negotiation, both parties need each other in order to accomplish their goals, and interdependent parties have an opportunity to influence each other. Many options are open to both sides. Interdependent goals are an important aspect of negotiation. The structure of the interdependence between negotiating parties determines the range of possible outcomes of negotiation and suggests the appropriate strategies and tactics that the negotiators use (Lewicki et al., 2003).

One type of interdependence occurs in a "win-win" situation (integrative negotiation) where solutions exist so both sides can do well in the negotiation. Kumar (1999) stated that the individualism-collectivism dimension has
the most impact on the content of the communicative goals that are pursued by negotiators from the diverse backgrounds; furthermore, Triandis (1995) claimed that individualists emphasize task-related goals while collectivists emphasize harmony-maintenance goals. More often in human collaboration, a person’s individual goal is always a part of the group’s collective goal and each person assists the whole group to reach the communal goal. 

**Process of Negotiation**

After defining the goal of the negotiation in the preparation stage of the negotiation, it is necessary to fully understand the details of managing the negotiation and to manage the flow of conducting the negotiation meeting. Stages and phases may be sequential and are a reflection of the framing conversation in negotiation. As Lewicki et al. (2003) pointed out, people are in many negotiations in their daily lives, so they develop a reasonable understanding of what should happen at each stage, as well as at the beginning and end of the process.

Recently, Greenhalgh (2001) articulated an easy-to-visualize model of negotiation, particularly relevant for integrative negotiation (see Figure 8). He also summarized seven keys steps to an ideal negotiation process (Figure 8) as follows:
1. **Preparation:** Deciding what is important, defining goals, and thinking ahead how to work together with other parties.

2. **Relationship building:** Getting to know the other party, understanding how both parties are similar and different.

3. **Information gathering:** Learning what a negotiator needs to know about the issues, about the other party and their needs, and about the feasibility of possible settlements.

4. **Information using:** Negotiators assemble the case they want to make for their preferred outcomes and settlement in order to maximize the negotiator’s own needs.

5. **Bidding:** The process of making moves from one’s initial, deal position to the actual outcome.

6. **Closing the deal:** The objective here is to build commitment to the agreement achieved in the previous phase.

7. **Implementing the agreement:** Determining who needs to do what once hands are shaken and documents signed. (Lewicki et al., 2003, pp. 52-53)
It is important to recognize the appropriate stages in the process of negotiation in order to avoid conflicts that may occur in any situation of negotiation.

Integrative Negotiation

Both parties can operate a negotiation that is satisfying to both sides, both of them gaining what they want; communication scholars call this negotiation a "win-win" situation (integrative negotiation). The fundamental structure of an integrative negotiation situation is such that it allows both sides to achieve their desired objectives (Lewicki et al., 2003). Moreover, research evidence specifies that effective information exchange and proper communication promotes the development of good integrative solutions (Butler, 1999). Also, trust is a foreseeable element within the collaboration. Like information exchange, shared cognition “not only enables
negotiators to reach agreement, but also improves their understanding of and communication about disagreements” (Swaab, Postmes & Neijens, 2004, p. 65).

**Information Exchange.** Even though direct information exchange is rare, information exchange can been seen as a bridge that helps both parties to become aware of the other’s background, values, interests, and especially the expectation of the outcome within the integrative circumstance of conciliation. Additionally in the case of common negotiations, information seeking is a competence that “negotiators who sought information about others’ priorities achieved higher profits, positively and significantly reciprocated” (Drake, 2001, p. 319).

**Communication.** Another necessity of good integrative negotiation is accurate communication, and language is a required tool to conduct any oral or written interaction while communication occurs. Zieba (2003) proposed that language is a cluster of codes used in communication, which if not shared efficiently, can act as a barrier to establish credibility and to reinforce trust among both negotiators. Also, knowing each negotiator’s interests and intention will improve the outcome of negotiation.

**Trust.** The negotiation will fail to produce the desired outcome if people who are interdependent do not
trust each other and therefore act defensively. Creating trust is a complex, uncertain process; it depends in part on how the parties behave and in part on parties’ personal characteristics. When people trust each other, they are more likely to share information, communicate their needs accurately, and discuss the facts of the situation (Butler, 1999).

When people who possess the same values, norms, and knowledge negotiate with each other, it is easier to work out the outcomes of the negotiation than with those people who come from diverse cultures, and so employ unfamiliar language. Additionally, some aspects that affect the process of negotiation are perceptions of differences and disagreements with the outcomes. These aspects can “arise and deepen when groups have so little in common that communication is hindered, for example, because of cultural differences that give rise to misunderstandings” (Swaab et al., 2004, p. 61).

In order to obtain the desired outcomes of negotiation, negotiators have to concern themselves with several factors that influence the process of negotiation including information exchange, communication, and trust.
**Intercultural Negotiation**

Negotiations between parties representing different cultures have taken on growing importance to international businesses. Currently, international negotiations often involve issues of cultural difference, which may be seen as sources of misunderstanding. However, "negotiating parties may find significant potential to form a shared identity around a dimension other than cultural and thereby build on a perception of shared identity" (Swaab et al., 2004, p. 63).

Avruch (2000) defined culture as a group-level characteristic, which may be an accurate descriptor of any given individual with the group; moreover, culture also describes a group's relatively homogeneous evaluations of multiple, interrelated phenomena (Drake, 2001). It is essential to develop "an understanding of how culture affects negotiation processes and outcomes" (Brett, 2000, p. 97).

**Two Views of Culture in Negotiation**

Cultures also differ with respect to information sharing. Information is an important medium in negotiation, relevant to reaching integrative agreements. Swaab et al. (2004) claimed that the sharing of information is a crucial aspect of negotiation because of
its effect on communication between negotiators. Some cultures share information about interests and priorities needed to reach agreement directly while others share that information indirectly (Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 1998).

Also, Avruch (2000) pointed out that although international negotiation experts consider culture the critical factor in negotiation across borders, there are many different concepts of culture, including two that are frequently discussed: culture as shared values and culture in context.

Culture as Shared Values. Sebenius (2002) stated that the concept of culture as shared values is centered on first understanding the values and norms of a culture, and then building a model to evaluate how these norms and values influence negotiation within that culture. In most cases, integrative negotiation (a win-win situation) is the most desirable type of negotiation because both sides of negotiators get what they want. Cai, Wilson, and Drake (2000) employed the individualism-collectivism continuum, adopted frequently to reflect a culture’s value preferences and emphasis on certain goals over others, to suggest four ways that collectivism affects integrative negotiation to achieve better outcomes, as follows:
1. Collectivist negotiators may have more concern for the opponent’s outcome because collectivist cultures measure success in term of maximizing group interests.

2. Collectivist negotiators may engage less often in fixed-sum assumptions because collectivism is characterized by a greater concern for the welfare of the group as the whole.

3. Collectivist negotiators may consider issues simultaneously rather than sequentially because collectivist cultures emphasize holistic over field independent thinking.

4. Collectivist negotiators may avoid distributive tactics because collectivist cultures value relational harmony and eschew forceful conflict styles. (p. 594)

In general, the individualist negotiator is “more concerned with preserving individual rights and attributes”; in contrast, the collectivist negotiator is “more concerned with relationships” (Bazerman, Curhan, Moore, & Valley, 2000, p. 297).
Culture in Context. In contrast to the culture-as-shared-values view, Cai et al. (2000) claimed that a view of the culture in context assumes "a multi-causal, contingency-based perspective in which not only culture but negotiator qualities, structural and contextual features, and mediating processes affect negotiation" (p. 595). In other words, proponents of the culture-in-context approach recognize that negotiation behavior is multiply determined, and to use culture as the sole explanation of behavior oversimplifies a complex social process (Lewicki et al., 2003).

In any intercultural context, the potential for misunderstanding by both parties is great. Low-communication-context cultures use explicit, direct language; whereas high-communication-context cultures use implicit, indirect language with words and phrasing that derive their meanings from contextual clues (Bazerman et al., 2000). Therefore, when these two diverse cultures conduct a negotiation, they can experience multiple conflicts, including "negative emotions and behavioral incompatibility" (Kumar, 1999, p. 69).

Indeed, culture has dramatic impact on negotiators who are more likely to be successful in intercultural negotiation when they are concerned about cultural values.
and contexts in order to attain a conclusion that is satisfactory to all negotiating parties.

Model of Culture and Negotiation

The way people from one culture perceive and create their own reality may be completely different from the way of thinking, behaving, and feeling of those in a different culture (Zieba, 2003). Different cultural systems can produce divergent negotiation styles, shaped by each nation’s culture, history, and values. Furthermore, Brett (2000) stated that when people from two different cultural groups negotiate, each individual conveys his/her way of thinking about the issue to be negotiated and the process of negotiation. Brett (2000) proposed a model (Figure 9) to describe the details of intercultural negotiation.

Source: Adapted from Brett (2000).

Figure 9. A Model of Intercultural Negotiation
Intercultural negotiations can be seen as a function of differences between two parties with respect to preferences on issues and negotiation strategies. Different cultural values not only result in preferences on issues that are distinct, but also affect negotiators' strategic negotiation process. As Figure 9 shows, Brett (2000) suggested that when the strategies clash that negotiators bring to the table, the negotiation process is likely to be less efficient, and agreements are likely to be optimal. Thus, negotiating interculturally may pose a significant strategic challenge.

**Summary**

Negotiation is an interaction between two parties who try to gain mutually desired outcomes. To obtain a successful outcome of negotiation, it is important to recognize the interdependent goals of both parties. Additionally, to understand the process of negotiation, a crucial point is to develop an integrative negotiation in which both sides can achieve a "win-win" situation to get what they want. The factors of developing integrative negotiations include information exchange, communication, and trust.

The numbers of international businesses have increased dramatically. To successfully pursue an
intercultural negotiation is a tough task for negotiators in the face of cultural differences. However, if negotiators are motivated to search for information to build up acceptable agreements and are flexible about how to conduct the search, cultural differences can be bridged (Adair et al., 1998). The more explicit information about the others that negotiators can obtain, the better outcomes and the higher benefits both parties can attain.
CHAPTER THREE
THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

In the review of related literature in Chapter Two, several sociological and methodological concepts have been presented. The five key concepts can be synthesized into a teaching model that involves social capital and academic achievement, habitus in higher education, symbolic power in schooling, activity theory in analyzing educational practice, and intercultural negotiation. This model demonstrates how these five concepts can be employed not only individually, but also synthetically. This purpose of the model is to improve language learners’ negotiating skills by applying activity theory as a unit of analysis. Through the analysis, teachers can recognize how the principal elements (symbolic power, habitus, and social capital) impact the whole activity system and identify which elements should be adjusted and emphasized.

Three major concepts of this theoretical framework extracted mainly from Pierre Bourdieu’s theoretical projects are social capital, habitus, and symbolic power. After reviewing several articles related to Bourdieu’s ideas, Pajak and Green (2003) stated that educational
systems performed two fundamental functions: 1) they reproduce the dominant sociocultural formulation, and 2) they reproduce power relations between the groups or classes that comprise society.

Within society, social settings like schools have the following salient aspects: 1) social capital, “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possessions of a durable network or more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249); 2) habitus, an active sediment of past experiences that functions in the present, shaping perceptions, thoughts and actions, and thereby shaping social practice in a regular way (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992); and 3) symbolic power, “a power of constituting utterances, of making people see and believe, of confirming or transforming the vision of the world, and, thereby action on the world and thus the world itself” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 170). These three factors have a strong effect on the efforts of educators to cultivate students’ learning and enhance the effectiveness of teaching.
Activity Theory as a Model for Analysis of Intercultural Negotiation

In this chapter, a theoretical model (Figure 10) is presented that incorporates the five concepts as components and delineates their mutual relationship.

Activity Theory as a Method for Analysis of Intercultural Negotiation

Mediating Artifacts:
Symbolic Power
• Language
• Culture
• Class

Outcome:
Intercultural Negotiation
• Integrative negotiation
• Two views of culture in negotiation

Subject

Object

Rules:

Community

Division of Labor:

Habitus

• Institutional habitus of higher education

Social Capital
• Related to academic achievement

An activity system consists of seven elements: subject, object, mediating artifacts, outcome, rules, community, and division of labor. These seven elements
within the activity system that has been applied in terms of intercultural negotiation not only cooperate with one another but also function well individually.

**Subject.** The subject of the activity is a negotiator or student for whom the activity is created.

**Object.** The object is socially given and partly constructed in relation to the student who situate in the activity.

**Mediating artifacts.** The artifacts that mediate the activity system contain several invisible forms of symbolic power including language, culture, and class. They are the key concepts in the term of mediating tools that are most frequently used in the training of negotiation.

**Rules.** The rules are the explicit and implicit regulations, norms, and conventions that affect individuals’ achievement in the academic field, and even in business negotiation.

**Community.** The community is comprised of students or two parties of negotiators who participate directly in the activity of negotiation training, which share the same general object.

**Division of Labor.** The division of labor is "the continuously negotiated distribution of tasks, powers, and
responsibilities among the participants of the activity system" (Cole & Engeström, 1993, p. 7). Therefore, the labor of each student can be seen as an allocation that encourages students to discover greater acceptance of their own knowledge in higher education, and even in negotiation practice.

**Outcome.** The outcome of the activity model of negotiation training is to achieve a satisfactory objective for both negotiators, who carefully consider cultural values and the context in which the culture is situated.

Each of these elements not only has its specific disposition within the activity system, but also interacts with others within the activity system. For example, the tools through which the subject interacts with the world are dependent on his/her object in the activity system, and this shapes his/her interpretation of the tools (Lim & Hang, 2003).

In the framework, activity theory is elaborated as a complex set of interrelated and situated relationships that enable participants to accomplish goals. **The Relational Model in English-Learner Classrooms**

These three sociological concepts can be placed according to activity theory within particular spaces of
the activity system, using symbolic power as a mediating tool, putting habitus in the place of the division of labor, and locating social capital in the position of the rules. They can be manipulated reciprocally in the activity system. For instance, when the instructor makes it a requirement to use proper language as a mediating tool to construct a lesson, he/she also needs to consider individual students' previous experiences or habits toward the lesson, and the conventions or customs in which individual students are situated within the social setting. By this consideration, the instructor can develop more efficient teaching methods and recognize the flaws of the existing context in order to increase students' learning proficiency.

Moreover, within negotiation training, educators can apply activity theory as a unit of analysis to measure the efficacy of negotiation training. If the initial situation of training is not fully satisfactory to teachers or students, through monitoring the activity, the teachers or educators can modify tools, rules, and/or division of labor to facilitate increasing success toward attaining desirable outcomes, which are defined as positive results for both parties in the negotiation.
Particularly, when teachers are teaching in an intercultural context like an English-learner classroom, they have to be more specific concerning the three concepts mentioned above because of students’ diversity. Like Taiwanese English teachers who teach an intercultural negotiation course, teachers should not only focus on the differences among individual students including the habitus they have, the social capital they obtain, and the symbolic power they employ to be successful in the classroom, but also emphasize intercultural negotiation training regarding individuals’ relation to these three concepts in order to attain successful outcomes of negotiation.

Summary

It is educators’ responsibility to understand thoroughly how the process of design works. By doing so, he or she can develop improved teaching methods based on a practicable models for the benefit of students.

This chapter provides a theoretical framework to explain how five key concepts connect and interact with each other. This theoretical model provides EFL teachers a clear framework for promoting students’ awareness of personal difference toward English language learning and
intercultural negotiation, as they might modify their own teaching with regard to the various components within the activity in order to attain success.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Introduction

The curriculum unit presented in the Appendix is designed based on the review of literature in Chapter Two and the theoretical model in Chapter Three. The unit is designed to promote the success of adult Taiwanese EFL students at the early-advanced level during intercultural negotiation. This unit provides an explicit blueprint for teachers to introduce some aspects that affect the outcomes and process of negotiation, and also offers a useful tool (activity theory) to analyze the effectiveness of intercultural negotiation.

Activity Theory as a Model

This unit incorporates intercultural factors into the process of negotiation training development. Each lesson takes place in a group activity setting where students work collaboratively on particular themes intended to amplify their knowledge of negotiation.

Table 1 presents the components of the Activity System Model (see Figure 10) and the association of the sub-components, and into which lessons they are
integrated. The table indicates how the theoretical model of the project is integrated into authentic lessons.

Generally, one aspect of each lesson is designed to let students manipulate cognitive strategies in a group setting. Psychological tools play a prominent position in each lesson, and these comprise cognitive strategies and other effective reading strategies.

Components of the Unit Based on Activity Theory

Each lesson has a major theme that addresses a keyword in Chapter Two. Suitable strategies have been employed to assist students' learning. Particularly, graphic organizers offer English-language learners an opportunity to “interact with concepts presented in various content areas in a way that supplements verbal texts” (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 115). By applying graphic organizers, students become more engaged in their learning even if their reading abilities are weak. Each lesson has a description of the components, task chains, authentic texts (focus sheets) and appropriate work sheets, an assessment sheet, and an evaluation rubric (see Chapter Five).
Table 1. Integration of Activity System Model Components and Sub-Components into the Unit Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Sub-component</th>
<th>Lesson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Individual student</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Members of group: 2 students</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruments</td>
<td>Psychological tools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Text:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What Do You Do before Conducting Negotiation?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding How to Improve Negotiation Skills</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Categories of Negotiation Behavior</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Features Determining the Outcome of Negotiation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nonverbal Communication</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conducting the Intercultural Negotiation</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salary Negotiation (Sample Negotiating Scripts)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Oral language</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Written language</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategies:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>discussion</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>brainstorming</td>
<td>1,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reflecting</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clarifying</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organizing</td>
<td>3,4,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sequencing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>predicting</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>role play</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>group working</td>
<td>4,5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>critical thinking</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>graphic organizer</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Work Sheet</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>School rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Attendance</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Punctuality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom rules</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• All students must do their best at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Be respectful toward others</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Each student must have a role and be responsible for those duties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Support others</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Display a positive attitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Participate in discussions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ask questions if you do not understand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use polite language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Complete all group and individual works</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Component</td>
<td>Sub-component</td>
<td>Lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor</td>
<td>Reporter</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recorder</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarifier</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negotiator</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>• Recognize the four steps of preparing for negotiation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Understand strategies of improving negotiation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Understand what kind of personal habitus affects the outcomes and process of</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negotiation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Understand the effects of social features on the outcomes of negotiation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Apply nonverbal communication to achieve the satisfying outcomes of negotiation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Understand and concern every aspect to achieve the desired outcomes of the</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intercultural negotiation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Negotiation development measured throughout assessments</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subject and community are the same in each lesson, but individuals’ labor and strategies may vary in each lesson. Additionally, group rules vary along with lesson, while school and class rules remain constant.

Assumptions

The unit assumes the teacher has arranged in advance for students to involve themselves in the activity setting to work collaboratively or independently. The lessons are designed to focus students’ learning into activities that are relevant to negotiation development.
Summary

This chapter has illuminated the intention of the curriculum design, the components of the lessons, and assumptions. All the lesson plans are designed to facilitate the negotiating skills of adult early-advanced-level students. After learning these five lessons, students can effectively achieve their goals not only in English language learning, but also in intercultural negotiation.
CHAPTER FIVE
UNIT ASSESSMENT PLAN

Introduction

Nowadays, because innovative teaching methods and the researches of education have increasingly developed, the types of assessments also rapidly modify from time to time. Because traditional paper-based assessments have become insufficient to evaluate students’ academic performance, it is necessary to develop various types of assessments that adequately appraise students’ learning achievement. However, no matter what kind of assessment teachers use to evaluate students’ performance, among the goals of assessment are for teachers to adjust their instructional content and methods to meet their expectation of students’ learning outcome, and for students to self-assess the effectiveness of their learning.

In the following sections, ways for teachers to evaluate students’ learning will be discussed. The assessment in the curriculum unit (see Appendix) features two parts: assessment sheets and evaluation rubrics.
Assessing Activities

An activity is an ongoing interaction, so its assessment cannot be static in nature. Because the unit plan is designed based on the foundation of an activity setting, it is important to recognize that its assessment must be dynamic. Dynamic assessment allows and encourages teachers to instruct when they evaluate students' interaction.

Assessment Sheet

After the period of instruction, students can express their own ideas that illustrate their understanding of the lesson content. The assessment sheet helps students to identify what they understand about the lesson during instruction and what they have learned after the instruction session. The assessment also assists students to realize their strengths and weaknesses concerning the specific topic. For example, in Lesson Four, students may recognize the importance of particular nonverbal communication usage that they may have previously ignored; therefore, students can add nonverbal communication to their repertoire as they conduct negotiation.

Furthermore, students write short paragraphs to demonstrate their own ideas toward learning effectiveness by utilizing concept development charts. Thus, teachers
can evaluate students’ writing by assessing three areas of their work: organization, grammatical competence, and strategic competence. As far as organization, students must be clear with their writing purpose and make sure every paragraph is logical. As for grammatical competence, students must avoid syntax errors and erroneous spelling. At the third part, students have to deploy proper word choices and sustain the flow of their writing.

Evaluation Rubric

Using an evaluation rubric, the teacher appraises students’ performance, combining the points of assessment sheet with several components drawn from the activity such as attitude toward learning, assistance, use of language (polite/impolite), cooperation, and use of strategies. Furthermore, teachers can add some necessary comments to clarify students’ score. While observing interactions between partners, teachers can note students’ reactions toward an activity and give credit to each student for individual contribution to the collaborative group effort. For instance, when two students discuss questions presented on a work sheet, individuals have to show their active participation and positive attitude. And the use of language is also a critical factor when partners communicate ideas with one another. The other component,
utilizing strategies, is used to evaluate student's learning effectiveness, whether students use appropriate methods to solve problems.

The assessment of the project does not have one fixed answer; the final grade of each student depends on individual understanding that reflects his/her written work (Assessment Sheet), and the teacher's observation, which shows the student's perceptions of important factors in the activity.

Thus the evaluation of learning requires not only a measure of the outcome but also careful observations by teachers of the learning behavior of each student.

To sum up, the purposes of assessment are to help students figure out the limitations of their learning, and provide teachers information to amend their teaching strategies. Assessment is designed to assist students to estimate their competence toward learning and to achieve their academic goals.

Conclusion

This project proposes instruction that gives English teachers an explicit idea concerning three main issues (social capital, personal habitus, and symbolic power) affecting the outcome of negotiation training; the project
also illustrates activity theory as a model for analysis of intercultural negotiation. It is anticipated that this project can serve as a resource for English teachers not only to enhance adult students' language learning, but also explicitly to develop students' awareness of three issues relevant to the outcome and process of negotiation. Additionally, this project can function as an inspiration to activate students' interest in learning English; and then students can employ English as a medium to get along with others who are from different cultures in order to obtain desired outcomes of intercultural negotiation.
APPENDIX

UNIT PLAN
List of Instructional Plans

Instructional Plan One: What Is Negotiation? ........... 100

Instructional Plan Two: Understanding Negotiating Behavior Reflecting Personal Habitus ..................... 108

Instructional Plan Three: Understanding Social Factors Influence Negotiation ............................... 116

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Instructional Plan Five: How to Successfully Conduct Intercultural Negotiation ............................... 132
### Instructional Plan One

#### What Is Negotiation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Object**      | • Recognize the four steps of preparing for negotiation,  
|                 | • Understand strategies of improving negotiation |
| **Division of Labor** | Recorder    
|                 | Reporter  
|                 | Clarifier |
| **Group Rules** | Each student must have a role:  
|                 | • Recorder: writes group response onto Work Sheet 1-1  
|                 | • Reporter: presents information to class  
|                 | • Clarifier: makes clear each question and explains to peers  
|                 | The group must complete Work Sheet 1-1.  
|                 | Individuals must complete Work Sheet 1-2 and Assessment Sheet 1-1.  
|                 | See Table 1 for general group rules. |
| **Instruments** | Discussion  
|                 | Brainstorming  
|                 | Sequencing  
|                 | Critical Thinking  
|                 | Graphic Organizers  
|                 | Focus Sheets 1-1 and 1-2  
|                 | Work Sheets 1-1 and 1-2 |
| **Task Chain 1.1** | The instructor hands out Focus Sheets 1-1 and 1-2.  
|                 | Using Focus Sheet 1-1, the instructor explains the four steps of how to prepare for negotiation with proper intonation and suitable eye contact.  
|                 | The instructor clarifies the questions that students raise.  
|                 | The instructor asks students to read Focus Sheet 1-2 individually and quietly.  
|                 | The instructor uses vivid examples to explain the terms that students have difficulty in understanding. |
| **Task Chain 1.2** | The group members actively discuss the question on Work Sheet 1-1.  
|                 | The Recorder writes the information with which the group members agree.  
|                 | The Reporter announces to other groups the information that is gathered from group members in other groups. |
| **Task Chain 1.3** | By brainstorming, students individually complete Work Sheet 1-2 using their own understanding. |
| **Outcome**     | Group completion of Work Sheet 1-1 (Making Good Use of Graphic Organizers)  
|                 | Individual completion of Work Sheet 1-2 (Brainstorming)  
|                 | Assessment Sheet 1-1 (Concept Development Chart)  
|                 | Evaluation Rubric |
Focus Sheet 1-1
What Do You Do before Conducting Negotiation?

Negotiation is a process in which two or more people, having both separate and conflicting interests, are dependent on each other for the successful conclusion of a bargain or agreement.

PREPARING FOR NEGOTIATION

1) Understand the conflict situation
   a. Understand how the other side sees the conflict
   b. Learn the basic facts around which the conflict has developed

2) Decide what you want
   a. What are your interests in this situation? What are your priorities? How firm are they?
   b. What kind of decision by the other side might serve your interests or priorities?

3) Analyze the other side
   a. What do you want?
   b. If they are a group or organization, how are they organized? What is the relationship between the group and its spokesperson or chief negotiator?
   c. What are the actual personal characteristics, needs and negotiating styles of the negotiators?

4) Develop a strategy to help them make the decisions you want
   a. Organize a persuasive case
   b. Compose a negotiating team of your own which has expertise and represents your group or organization; be clear as to who will be doing the actual negotiating on which issues
   c. Plan out a procedure for negotiating and assign negotiating roles to the members of your team
   d. Determine in advance the limits to the authority of the person(s) who will be negotiating for your side
   e. Practice by role-playing how you feel the negotiation may develop

Focus Sheet 1-2
Understanding How to Improve Negotiation Skills

Negotiation is asserting your position artfully, communicating effectively, and presenting your case factually and professionally. There are several strategies that help you to improve your negotiation skills.

1. Accept the need to learn negotiating skills and then develop them.
2. Seek a mentor to learn and develop negotiation skills.
3. Know to ask the important questions and decide priorities.
4. Eliminate any self-imposed limitations and be open to suggestions.
5. Do not be afraid to hold firm to your position if you have the experience and documentation.
6. Listen to and evaluate other points of view.
7. Mesh your goals with the goals of the organization.
8. Assess your situation carefully and define your outcomes.
9. Remember successful negotiations are always win-win.

After reading the content of preparing negotiation, can you carefully organize your ideas and explicitly fill out these sequential organizers with your own words? As a group, tell your answers to other classmates.
On the chart, please brainstorm as many ideas as possible for improving negotiation skills. Use your own words.
After this class session, please demonstrate what you have learned by filling out the concept development chart. Write paragraphs into the columns below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do we know about negotiation?</th>
<th>What have we learned from this class?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

105
### Assessment Sheet 1-1 (Con’t.)
#### Concept Development Chart

**Candidate:** ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Critique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I.  Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Purpose of writing is clear</td>
<td>___/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Division of each paragraph is logical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Grammatical Competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Phrases and clauses show logic</td>
<td>___/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No syntax errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The tense is appropriate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spelling is correct</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. Strategic Competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uses elegant words to paraphrase ideas</td>
<td>___/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The writing is smooth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>___/50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Evaluation Rubric 1-1**

The teacher fills out an evaluation for each person. Scoring is from 1 through 10; 1 = low proficiency, 10 = high proficiency. Write any necessary comments to clarify the score.

Candidate:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Attitude toward learning</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Assistance/Helpfulness</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Use of language (polite/impolite)</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Cooperation</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Utilizing Strategies</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Assessment Sheet 1-1</td>
<td>____/50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>____/100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructor’s Comments: 

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107
### Instructional Plan Two

**Understand Negotiating Behavior Reflecting Personal Habitus**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td>Understand what kind of personal habitus affects the outcomes and process of negotiation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Division of Labor** | Recorder  
Reporter  
Clarifier |
| **Group Rules** | Each student must have a role:  
- Recorder: writes group response onto Work Sheet 2-1  
- Reporter: presents information to class  
- Clarifier: makes clear each question and explains to students  
The group must complete Work Sheet 2-1. Individuals must complete Work Sheet 2-2 and Assessment Sheet 2-1. See Table 1 for general group rules. |
| **Instruments** | Discussion  
Reflecting  
Critical Thinking  
Graphic Organizers  
Focus Sheet 2-1  
Work Sheets 2-1 and 2-2 |
| **Task Chain 2.1** | The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 2-1 and asks students to read carefully and quietly. After five minutes of reading, the instructor has students discuss the content with each other. At the same time, students have to figure out some terms with which they are not familiar. The instructor clarifies the questions students have. |
| **Task Chain 2.2** | The group members discuss the questions on Work Sheet 2-1. When agreement is reached, the Recorder writes the agreement on Work Sheet 2-1. While discussing Work Sheet 2-1, the instructor observes the interactions between group members. The instructor obtains responses from the Reporter of each group. The instructor evaluates whether descriptions of terms are accurate. |
| **Task Chain 2.3** | Students individually complete Work Sheet 2-2 with their own understanding by reflecting on their own experiences. |
| **Outcome** | Group completion of Work Sheet 2-1 (Negotiation Behaviors)  
Individual completion of Work Sheet 2-2 (Reflection)  
Assessment Sheet 2-1 (Concept Development Chart)  
Evaluation Rubric |
Focus Sheet 2-1
Categories of Negotiation Behavior

In order to conduct a successful negotiation, you must recognize the other negotiator’s habitus by his/her present negotiating behaviors. There are several valuable dimensions of negotiating behaviors as follows:

Influence of Individual Aspiration: Collectivist vs. Individualist

Individualist: Individualist negotiators are emotionally independent from the organization to which they belong.

Collectivist: Collectivist negotiators have a strong sense of identity with and loyalty to their organization.

Internal Decision-Making Process: Independent vs. Consensus

Independent: Leaders or other influential individuals on the negotiating team may make decisions independently without concern for viewpoints of other on team.

Consensus: Decision-making power is delegated to the entire team. The team leader must obtain support from team members and listen to their advice.

Risk-Taking Propensity: Risk Averse vs. Risk Tolerant

Risk-Averse: Risk-averse negotiators will take steps to avoid the risk of failing to come to an agreement.

Risk-Tolerant: Risk-tolerant negotiators adopt a perspective that there is a level of acceptable risk that should be taken in a negotiation.

Style of Communication: High-Context vs. Low-Context

High-Context: Negotiators from high-context cultures are more sensitive to and reliant on non-verbal cues. They will tend to use language that is indirect, ambiguous, and understated.

Low-Context: Negotiators from low-context cultures are less likely to notice and understand non-verbal cues. The communicator is direct and using language is precise and frank.
Focus Sheet 2-1 (Con’t.)
Categories of Negotiation Behavior

Nature of Persuasion: Factual-Inductive vs. Affective

Factual-Inductive: Factual-inductive negotiators base their arguments on empirical facts and use linear logic to persuade the other party.

Affective: Affective negotiators may base their arguments on abstract theory, ideals references to status and relationships, and/or on appeals to sympathy.

Adapted from http://blake.montclair.edu/~cibconf/conference/DATA/Theme4/Usal
Please describe the following specific behaviors by using your own words. Write few sentences including proper word usage and correct grammar.

For example:
Low-context negotiator: While low-context negotiators may prefer to do business with people whom they like, it is possible for them to conclude agreements with people whom they do not like personally.

High-context negotiator:

Risk-tolerant negotiator:

Independent negotiator:

Collectivist negotiator:

Affective negotiator:
Work Sheet 2-2
Reflection

If you are in the situation of negotiation, how will you behave in the process of the negotiation? Use Focus Sheet 2-1. Please write a short paragraph to describe yourself.
Assessment Sheet 2-1
Concept Development Chart

After this class session, please demonstrate what you have learned by filling out the concept development chart. Write paragraphs into the columns below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do we know about negotiation behavior?</th>
<th>What have we learned from this class?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Assessment Sheet 2-1 (Con't.)**

**Concept Development Chart**

Candidate: ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Critique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Purpose of writing is clear</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Division of each paragraph is logical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Grammatical Competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Phrases and clauses show logic</td>
<td>____/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No syntax errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The tense is appropriate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spelling is correct</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. Strategic Competence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uses elegant words to paraphrase ideas</td>
<td>____/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The writing is smooth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>____/50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Evaluation Rubric 2-1**

The teacher fills out an evaluation for each person. Scoring is from 1 through 10; 1 = low proficiency, 10 = high proficiency. Write any necessary comments to clarify the score.

Candidate: ____________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Attitude toward learning</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Assistance/Helpfulness</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Use of language (polite/impolite)</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cooperation</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Utilizing Strategies</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Assessment Sheet 2-1</td>
<td>____/50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>____/100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructor’s Comments:

115
### Instructional Plan Three
**Understand Social Factors Influence Negotiation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td>- Understand the effects of social features on the outcomes of negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Division of Labor</strong></td>
<td>Recorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reporter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group Rules</strong></td>
<td>Each student must have a role:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Recorder: writes group response onto Work Sheet 3-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Reporter: presents information to class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Clarifier: makes clear each question and explains to students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The group must complete Work Sheet 3-1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individuals must complete Work Sheet 3-2 and Assessment Sheet 3-1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>See Table 1 for general group rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instruments</strong></td>
<td>Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graphic Organizers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focus Sheet 3-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work Sheets 3-1 and 3-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task Chain 3.1</strong></td>
<td>The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 3-1 and asks students to read carefully and quietly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After five minutes of reading, the instructor has students discuss the content with each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At the same time, students have to figure out some terms with which they are not familiar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The instructor clarifies the questions students have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task Chain 3.2</strong></td>
<td>The group members discuss the questions on Work Sheet 3-1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When agreement is reached, the Recorder writes the agreement on Work Sheet 3-1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>While discussing Work Sheet 3-1, the instructor makes sure students are discussing Work Sheet 3-1 by using English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The instructor obtains responses from the Reporter of each group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The instructor evaluates whether descriptions of terms are accurate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task Chain 3.3</strong></td>
<td>Students individually complete Work Sheet 3-2 with their own understanding of the lesson's content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome</strong></td>
<td>Group completion of Work Sheet 3-1 (Prediction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual completion of Work Sheet 3-2 (Organization)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessment Sheet 3-1 (Concept Development Chart)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation Rubric</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 3-1
Social Features Determining the Outcomes of Negotiation

Business executives will need to be much better educated about international negotiating in order to make successful deals. International business negotiations are fundamentally different from domestic negotiations, and require a different set of skills and knowledge.

There are six distinctive features that negotiators must know when they operate international negotiations.

1. In international negotiations, the parties must deal with the laws, policies, and political authorities of more than one nation.
2. The factor unique to international business is the presence of different currencies.
3. The element common to international business negotiations is the participation of governmental authorities.
4. International ventures are vulnerable to sudden and drastic changes in their circumstances.
5. Different countries may have very different ideas about private investment, profit, and individual rights.
6. In addition to language differences, different cultures have differing values, perceptions and philosophies.

Adapted from http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/example/sala7533.htm
Work Sheet 3-1
Prediction

Can you figure out the cause and effect consequences that will occur in the "real" situation of negotiation? Please use this chart to express your own ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The presence of different currencies</td>
<td>Because the relative value of different currencies varies over time, the actual value of the prices or payments set by contract may vary, and result in unexpected losses or gains.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please express your own understanding of intercultural negotiation to fill this mind map by concerning social features.
Assessment Sheet 3-1
Concept Development Chart

After this class session, please demonstrate what you have learned by filling out the concept development chart. Write paragraphs into the columns below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do we know about social factors affect negotiation?</th>
<th>What have we learned from this class?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

120
**Assessment Sheet 3-1 (Con’t.)**  
Concept Development Chart

Candidate: ____________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Critique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Purpose of writing is clear</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>III. Strategic Competence</strong></td>
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<td>• The writing is smooth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>_____/50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Evaluation Rubric 3-1

The teacher fills out an evaluation for each person. Scoring is from 1 through 10; 1 = low proficiency, 10 = high proficiency. Write any necessary comments to clarify the score.

Candidate: ______________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Attitude toward learning</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Assistance/Helpfulness</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Use of language (polite/impolite)</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Cooperation</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Utilizing Strategies</td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Assessment Sheet 3-1</td>
<td>____/50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>____/100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructor’s Comments:
## Instructional Plan Four
**Awareness of Nonverbal Communication in Negotiation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td>• Apply nonverbal communication to achieve the satisfying outcomes of negotiation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Division of Labor** | Leader  
                  Recorder  
                  Clarifier  
                  Director  |
| **Group Rules** | Each student must have a role:  
• Leader: initiates the discussion  
• Recorder: writes group response onto Work Sheet 4-1  
• Clarifier: explains students’ difficulty  
• Director: monitors students’ works  
The group must complete Work Sheet 4-1.  
Individuals must complete Work Sheet 4-2 and Assessment Sheet 4-1.  
See Table 1 for general group rules. |
| **Instruments** | Discussion  
Organizing  
Critical Thinking  
Group Working  
Graphic Organizer  
Focus Sheet 4-1  
Work Sheets 4-1 and 4-2 |
| **Task Chain 4.1** | The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 4-1 and asks students to read carefully and quietly.  
After five minutes of reading, the Leader initiates discussion.  
The instructor has to make sure students are on the right track of understanding nonverbal communication by solving students’ difficulty. |
| **Task Chain 4.2** | The group members discuss the questions on Work Sheet 4-1.  
When agreement is reached, the Recorder writes the agreement on Work Sheet 4-1.  
The instructor obtains responses from Recorder of each group.  
The pictures, definitions, and names of term must be explicitly correlated and correct. |
| **Task Chain 4.3** | Student has to finish Work Sheet 4-2 individually and demonstrate the perception of nonverbal communication. |
| **Outcome**     | Group completion of Work Sheet 4-1(Match Game)  
Group completion of Work Sheet 4-2(Expose Yourself)  
Assessment Sheet 4-1 (Concept Development Chart)  
Evaluation Rubric |

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Nonverbal Communication

Codes of communication consisting of symbols that are not words, including non-word vocalizations and nonverbal messages are an essential component of communication in the negotiation process.

Four principles of Nonverbal Communication
There are four principles to which negotiators must conform when they conduct a successful negotiation.
1. Supplements or replaces verbal communication
2. Regulates interaction
3. Establishes relationship-level meanings (responsiveness, liking, and power)
4. Reflects and expresses cultural value

Three Major Reasons of Applying Nonverbal Communication
Negotiators should be aware of nonverbal behavior in the negotiation for three reasons:
1. An awareness of nonverbal behavior will allow you to become better receivers of others negotiators' messages.
2. You will become a better sender of signals that reinforce negotiation.
3. This mode of communication increases the degree of the perceived psychological closeness between both negotiators.

Two Significances of Manipulating Nonverbal Communication
There are two specific features that illustrate negotiators more likely use nonverbal communication than verbal communication.
1. Nonverbal communication is "more believable."
2. Nonverbal is continuous.

Types of Nonverbal Communication
- Eye contact
- Facial Expressions
- Gestures
- Use of Time
- Paralinguistic
- Artifactual Communication
Eye Contact

Eye contact, an important channel of interpersonal communication, monitors feedback, maintains interest and attention, regulates the conversation, and increases the speaker’s credibility. Moreover, it signals the nature of the relationship.

Facial Expressions (smiling)

Smiling is often contagious and the other will react favorably. Thus, if a negotiator smiles frequently, he/she will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm, and approachable.

Gestures

A lively and animated negotiating style captures other’s attention, makes the subject of the negotiation more interesting, facilitates negotiation, and provides a bit of entertainment while conducting negotiation.

Use of Time

Monochronic:
- Does one thing at a time.
- Time is very serious.
- Job tends to be more important than family.
- Privacy is extremely important.

Polychronic:
- Does several things at a time.
- Time is important but not sacred.
- Family and interpersonal relationship are more important than work.
- Actively involved with others.

Paralinguistic

The facet of nonverbal communication includes such vocal elements: tone, pitch, rhythm, timbre, loudness, and inflection. If negotiator speaks in a monotone, the other one will perceive the other side as boring and dull. Negotiator report that he/she receives less and loss interest more quickly when listening to the other party who have not learned to modulate their voice.
Focus Sheet 4-1 (Con’t. 2)
Nonverbal Communication

Artifactual Communication
Clothing and body adornment:
• Formally dressed negotiator = prepared, knowledgeable, and organized
• Informally dressed = friendly, fair, enthusiastic and flexible

Tips on improving nonverbal communication:
• Self-awareness
• Expand your repertoire of nonverbal activities
• Remember that good communication focuses on the receiver of the message
• You can send suitable signals to amplify your verbal messages

Adapted from http://honolulu.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/commun-1.htm
Work Sheet 4-1
Match Game

There are several pictures that indicate the terms the instructor has taught through this lesson. Please give each picture a definition and describe it with your own words. Remember! Work with your partner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Picture</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
<td>Eye contact:</td>
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<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
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<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
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<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image7.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image8.png" alt="Picture" /></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Work Sheet 4-2**  
**Expose Yourself**

Please imagine you are in the intercultural negotiation. And then figure out one, two, or three types of nonverbal communication that you probably use in this negotiation; also tell reasons. Organize your thoughts with your words by using the graphic organizer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nonverbal Communication</th>
<th>Your Reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Assessment Sheet 4-1
Concept Development Chart

After this class session, please demonstrate what you have learned by filling out the concept development chart. Write paragraphs into the columns below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do we know about nonverbal communication?</th>
<th>What have we learned from this class?</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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129
Assessment Sheet 4-1 (Con’t.)
Concept Development Chart

Candidate: ______________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Critique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Purpose of writing is clear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Division of each paragraph is logical</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>____/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Grammatical Competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Phrases and clauses show logic</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• No syntax errors</td>
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<td>____/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Strategic Competence</td>
<td></td>
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<td>• Uses elegant words to</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>paraphrase ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>____/50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Evaluation Rubric 4-1**

The teacher fills out an evaluation for each person. Scoring is from 1 through 10; 1 = low proficiency, 10 = high proficiency. Write any necessary comments to clarify the score.

Candidate: ____________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Attitude toward learning</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Assistance/Helpfulness</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Use of language (polite/impolite)</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Utilizing Strategies</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Assessment Sheet 4-1</td>
<td>/50</td>
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</tbody>
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Instructor's Comments:

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### Instructional Plan Five

#### How to Successfully Conduct An Intercultural Negotiation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>• Understand and concern every aspect to achieve the desired outcomes of the intercultural negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of Labor</td>
<td>Recorder Clarifier Director Negotiator (Role-play)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Group Rules | Each student must have a role:  
  • Negotiator: applies role-play with scripts  
  • Clarifier: makes clear each detail of the content  
  • Director: monitors students’ works  
The group must complete Work Sheet 5-1 and 5-2.  
Individuals must complete Assessment Sheet 5-1.  
See Table 1 for general group rules. |
| Instruments | Discussion  
  Brainstorming  
  Organizing  
  Role Play  
  Critical Thinking  
  Group Working  
  Graphic Organizer  
  Focus Sheets 5-1 and 5-2  
  Work Sheets 5-1 and 5-2 |
| Task Chain 5.1 | The instructor hands out Focus Sheets 5-1 and 5-2, and then asks students to read carefully and quietly.  
After five minutes of reading, the instructor reads aloud the content of Work Sheet 5-1 with clear voice and proper tone.  
The instructor asks students to identify each item of each step and propose questions that they are not familiar with.  
Students must figure out the specific concepts that are relevant to previous lessons.  
The instructor reminds students to be familiar with each item of script and try to memorize scripts on Focus Sheet 5-2.  
The instructor has to clarify students’ inquiries when students get confused. |
| Task Chain 5.2 | The group members discuss the questions on Work Sheet 5-1.  
When agreement is reached, the Recorder writes the agreement on Work Sheet 5-1.  
The instructor obtains responses from the Recorder of each group. |
| Task Chain 5.3 | Students have to finish Work Sheet 5-2 as a group and demonstrate their understanding of negotiation by creating their own scripts.  
The negotiators play each role with the created scripts, and they also can exchange each role while they are practicing.  
The instructor has to monitor the presentations. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Group completion of Work Sheet 5-1 (Brainstorming Ideas)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group completion of Work Sheet 5-2 (Negotiating Salary)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessment Sheet 5-1 (Concept Development Chart)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation Rubric</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 5-1
Conducting the Intercultural Negotiation

Some cultures prefer to start from agreement on general principles, while others prefer to address each issue individually. Some cultures prefer to negotiate by "building up" from an initial minimum proposal; others prefer to "build-down" from a more comprehensive opening proposal. Cultural differences also show up in the preferred pacing of negotiations and in decision-making styles. However, individual negotiators often conform to cultural stereotypes.

To conduct an intercultural negotiation, negotiators do not only understand the general process of the negotiation, but they also must be concerned specifically about cultural aspects (mentioned in the previous lessons) that affect the outcome of the negotiation.

CONDUCTING THE INTERCULTURAL NEGOTIATION

A. Entry (Lessons 2, 3, 4)
   1. Learn the source and extent of the authority of those with who will be negotiating.
   2. Start on a positive note.
      • Establish your good faith by a gesture of good will or positive, upbeat speech.
   3. Establish control of the meeting without talking all the time; for instance, by hosting the meeting, suggesting an agenda, knowing the facts, or being silent.
   4. Agree with the other side on ground rules before proceeding.

B. Dealing with people (Lessons 2, 3 and 4)
   1. Listen.
      • Don't interrupt.
   2. Be courteous.
      • Respect requests for confidentiality.
   3. Present a good show.
      • Be confident in your case and in the process.

C. Exploration (Lesson 2, 3, 4)
   1. Educate them and yourself.
Focus Sheet 5-1 (Con’t.)

Conducting the Intercultural Negotiation

- Identify and build mutual understanding about external facts or influences that shape or constrain the negotiation process.

2. Explore possible areas of resolution.
- Study their responses, verbal and nonverbal to your suggestions.

3. Get them into the habit of saying “yes,” for instance, by getting their agreement on procedural issues.

4. Keep the meeting on track, dealing with the issues at hand.

D. Inventing (Lessons 2, 3, and 4)

1. Generate a range of alternative solutions.
   - Hold team meetings where you try to invent as many ideas as possible, with no evaluation allowed.

2. Generate possible agreements that are favorable to both sides by taking advantage of differences in each side.
   - Interests, priorities, concern with timing, and forecasts.

E. Bargaining (Lessons 2, 3, and 4)

1. Bargaining for mutual adjustment or adaptation rather than complete victory.

2. Use reason.
   - Use objective reasons and clear, comprehensible standard or norm.

3. Never give up something for nothing.

4. Make it easier for them to decide what you’d like them to decide.
   - Continue to think about their problems, their interests, their choices.

5. Use carefully chosen tactics.
   - Let them make the first realistic offer except when there is going to be very little bargaining.
Focus Sheet 5-1 (Con't. 1)
Conducting the Intercultural Negotiation

6. Use counter-tactics against hard bargaining
   • Recognize the tactic and thus neutralize its impact.

7. Pay attention to procedures.
   • Think of inviting in an uninvolved third party to break an actual impasse.

8. Listen. Watch out for hints of offers:
   Follow up on them.

F. Closure (Lessons 2, 3)
1. Don’t be pressured.
   • Make sure that people you represent can accept the settlement.

2. Make the agreement operational.
   • Make sure the language is clear and accurately reflects the settlement.

3. End on affirmative note.
   • Hold a ceremony; celebrate your success together.

Focus Sheet 5-2
Salary Negotiation (Sample Negotiating Scripts)

Q. What salary are you expecting?
A. "I still have one or two questions about my responsibilities and it will be easier for me to talk about money when I have cleared them up. Could I first ask you a few questions about...?"

Q. What were you earning in your last position?
A. "My salary history followed a steady upward path and I have never failed to receive merit increases."

Q. We'd like you to get back to us with your answer by next Tuesday.
A. "From what you have told me, the offer sounds very good. I would like to read over the offer to see if I have any point that need clarification before I get back to you. I also might want schedule on site visit before I make my final decision. With this in mind, could I get back to you by Monday of the following week based upon our final agreement?"

Q. Based upon your qualification, we feel the following is an equitable package for this position. Can we hope for your response to our offer by...?
A. "Well, it certainly seems that we are close. I was hoping for something more in the range of $A to $B based upon the research I have done and the skills based and education I bring to this position. How much room do we have for negotiation here? Is this at the top of the range? If so, can we negotiate for starting at a higher level?"

Q. This is the top amount we can offer.
A. Even though the salary is not as high as I had anticipated based upon my initial research, I am still interested. Can we re-visit the package and see if there is anything here that is negotiable such as bonus, job title, association fees, moving reimbursement, insurance, training, review dates, tuition reimbursement, etc.

Adapted from http://www.anderson.ucla.edu/documents/areas/prg/emba/NegScripts.pdf
Work Sheet 5-1
Brainstorming Ideas

As you read Focus Sheet 5-1, you may discover that the details of each step may imply the concepts we have learned in the previous lessons. Please choose one step to summarize the ideas that you learned before. Work with your partner.

For example:

In step B:

1. Use nonverbal communication like nodding the head to agree with other’s idea.
2. Understand other’s personal negotiating behavior in order to request the agreement that can be beneficial to both sides.
3. Understand other’s social feature (ideas about profit) in order to ask for better outcome.
Work Sheet 5-2
Negotiating Salary

As you read Focus Sheet 5-2, you may have an idea of the pattern of “real” negotiation. Please work with your partners and compose your own scripts following, the given model. And then be prepared to present your scripts as role-playing to other groups. In order to be familiar with the negotiation, you and your partner may exchange your roles.

Q. What salary are you expecting?
A.

Q. What were you earning in your last position?
A.

Q. We’d like you to get back to us with your answer by next Tuesday.
A.

Q. Based upon your qualification, we feel the following is an equitable package for this position. Can we hope for your response to our offer by...?
A.

Q. This is the top amount we can offer.
A.
After this class session, please express your personal idea by filling out the concept development chart. Write paragraphs into the columns below.

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#### Concept Development Chart

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Assessment Sheet 5-1</td>
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Instructor’s Comments:

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REFERENCES


