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Non Native Speakers' Needs to Effective Negotiating Strategies

The case of Engineers in the Engineering Directorate/Sonatrach/Arzew

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Magister Degree in ESP

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Dedication

To my parents, my brothers and sister.

To my husband and my little princess 'Ayan'.

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List of Acronyms

BE: Business English

CC: Communicative Competence

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CS: Communication Strategies

DA: Discourse Analysis

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBP: English for Business Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

EGBP: English for General Business Purposes

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

EPP: English for Professional Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

EST: English for Science and Technology

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EMP: English for Medical Purposes

ELP: English for Legal Purposes

ELT: English Language Teaching

EPP: English for Professional Purposes

EVP: English for Vocational Purposes

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LSP: Languages for Specific Purposes

NS: Native speakers

NNS: Non Native Speakers

PSA: Present Situation Analysis

TBLT: Task-Based Language Teaching

TBL: Task-Based Learning

TSA: Target Situation Analysis

Contents

Abstract

With the increase of the global business interests, the world's consideration towards the use of English as a medium of business communication has eventually changed. Negotiating is an example of business interaction in which parties cooperate to reach mutual goals. Negotiation; a business speaking skill requires a good command of the linguistic codes of English (linguistic competence) besides the way these linguistic resources are employed effectively to end the negotiation meeting successfully. For this very reason, job-experienced learners of business English need to acquire knowledge about how to use English effectively and appropriately in negotiations. This knowledge of the language of negotiation, in fact, is not restricted to the acquisition of linguistic knowledge. It extends to the acquisition of other types such as sociocultural, discourse, pragmatic and communication strategies. Accordingly, BE teachers, syllabus designers and material writers should ponder the necessity of developing learners' abilities in both speaking and listening skills. This latter can be achieved in a course designed to give learners the opportunity to exploit their professional and language knowledge, thus, to improve their negotiating styles and strategies, and develop their communicative competence to overcome cross-cultural communication problems.

Key words: business English, negotiations, the language of negotiations, speaking and listening skills, communicative competence, job-experienced learners, styles and strategies, intercultural competence.

Résumé

Avec l'accroissement des intérêts économiques et financiers mondiaux, le regard du monde des affaires envers l'utilisation de la langue anglaise comme un moyen de communication par la suite a aussi changé. Les négociations étant un example d'activité d'affaire nécessitent des interlocuteurs montrant une bonne compétence orale et d'écoute. De plus, il est exigé des négociateurs une bonne commande des codes linguistiques de l'anglais (compétence linguistique) sans compter la manière que ces ressources sont employées efficacement dans la communication afin de conclure les négociations avec succès. Pour cette raison même, il est important d'apprendre comment utiliser l'anglais efficacement et convenablement dans les négociations. Ceci nécessite une connaissance du registre langagé des négociations dans le cas d'apprenants en service et expérimentés, et qui en fait ne se limite pas aux connaissances linguistiques (grammaire, vocabulaire, prononciation). Elle se prolonge à l'acquisition d'autres types de connaissances tels que sociolinguistique, de discours, pragmatique et stratégies de communication. Ainsi les professeurs de l'anglais des affaires, les concepteurs de programmes et les auteurs de matériels pédagogiques devraient considérer la nécessité de développer les compétences orale et d'écoutes chez ces apprenants dans un cours en registre langagé des négociations leur permettant d'exploiter leurs connaissances professionnelles et de langue, en raison d'améliorer leurs styles et stratégies de communication pour surmonter les problèmes qui peuvent intervenir durant les négociations avec leurs partenaires étrangers.

Mots clés : anglais des affaires, négociations, registres langagé des négociations, compétence orale, compétence d'écoute, compétence de communication, apprenants en service et expérimentés, styles et stratégies, compétence interculturelle.

General Introduction

The different developments the world has witnessed since the First World War and the world reorganization which in terms of center of power shifted towards the United States of America has also shifted emphasis on the issue of language use at the international level. In addition, the economic and technological growth of the USA has showed bought to notice the need of a 'lingua franca' by both academic and business communities and which happened to be in favor of the English language. Now, people from different cultures and from all around the world maintained English either as a first language which is the case of the former British colonies or as a foreign language in all the other cases.

Besides, the increase of the global business interests during the two last centuries has changed the world's consideration towards English. In fact, people at different academic, occupational and business domains use English. This gave rise to the idea of English for specific purposes in relation to the specific activities that users of English perform. The idea of developing English for specific purposes generated further need of specialized sub branches of English for specific purposes among which business English. The language of business meetings, business presentations, and business negotiations happens to require particular emphasis in terms of language use. A negotiation as an example of business interaction requires that the nonnative user of English needs certain proficiency in the language of negotiations which is quite different from general English. A negotiator can be an excellent one in his native language, but things do not happen in similar ways if the language used during the negotiations is another language and that proficiency is faulty.

Nowadays, effective skills to negotiate projects in English are essential for success on the private individual level as well as the corporate one. Negotiation as a business speaking skill requires in addition to linguistic and sociolinguistic competences, cultural and cross cultural competences given the cultural aspects which intervene as far as language use. It is important to know a language but it is fundamental to know how to use it effectively since it has a direct effect on the success or the failure of the negotiation goal.

With the impact of globalization on the world countries, Algeria being a producer and an exporter of oil and gas, and the opportunity of many foreign investments and partnerships ponders the necessity of teaching English for corporate setting. Therefore, the policy of English mastery is a condition for hiring the company staff. Although, English has the status of second foreign language (EFL) after French (L2), it holds a particular importance regarding the business activity of the company. For example in the oil and gas industry, English is the leading language in meetings, negotiations and presentations and written communication. This is due to cooperation with different nationalities both nonnative and native speakers of English.

For this very reason the present study aims at conducting a research on the use of English as a medium of business communication in professional settings. This area provides the opportunity to investigate and analyze the needs, strengths and weaknesses of the ESBP users who are, in fact, the engineers working at the engineering directorate of the Algerian Oil and Gas Company SONATRACH / Arzew. This target population needs English for specific business purposes since their job involves cross-cultural negotiations. Moreover, they need to develop macro and micro skills to become expert users of English in their field of work.

The present study considers the perceived needs of business English job-experienced learners to acquire knowledge of how to use English to negotiate with non native speakers and native ones.

The rationale of the present study is to obtain results that might have a bearing on the instruction of the language of business negotiation and negotiation skills. By the end of this research, we attempt to raise teachers', learners' and sponsors' awareness on the importance of developing communicative competence in BE courses. This, in fact, helps the learners to improve their negotiating language skills. In order to achieve the objective of the research three research questions are raised. One focuses on the Algerian ENG managers and executives' needs to negotiate effectively in English, the other tackles the issue of awareness as of the cultural background effect on the negotiations success, and still another one dealing with aspects communicative competence to be developed in a business course destined to English users concerned with negotiation activities.

Thus two hypotheses are addressed: The target population's needs of basic level of proficiency in general English required to engage in the negotiation activities using the English language , and the need of a tailored course that develops the performance of tasks and activities that reflect their actual work situations.

Thus the whole work is organized in four chapters. The first chapter is a description of ESP as the learner-centered approach focusing on nonnative speakers. The second chapter deals with the issue of Business English and Business negotiation. The third chapter is a field work for data collection and analysis. The questionnaire is used as a method of data collection. Thirty engineers from the eight ENG / SONATRACH departments answered the questionnaire which comprises 21 questions including closed-item, multi-choice questions and rating scales. The questionnaire intends to collect data about the general and business English backgrounds of the engineers. The fourth chapter is a syllabus suggestion which in fact is a combination of the task-based approach and the skill-based approach.

Chapter one

ESP and Nonnative Speakers' Communicative Competence

1.1 Introduction

The expansion of science, technology and commerce in the USA and Britain after the Second World War (1945) favored English to become the international language of science and commerce. As a result, a new generation of people such as doctors, business people, and mechanics started to feel the necessity to learn English for Specific Purposes, *hereafter,* ESP. These circumstances created a revolution in linguistics since studies shifted from describing the rules of grammar (English usage) to describing the English varying from one context to another. i.e., The English of law is different from the English of commerce. Accordingly, the field of educational psychology has witnessed a change as the interest is centered on the learners and their attitudes to learning. Quoting Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters,

> One finding of this research was that the language we speak and write varies considerably, and in a number of different ways, from one context to another. […]. These ideas married up naturally with the development of English courses for specific group of learners. […]. Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning (2006: 7).

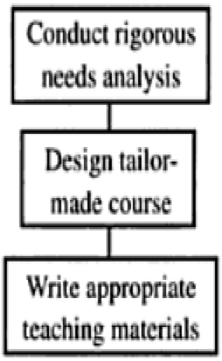
The purpose of this chapter is concerned with ESP and NNS' competence to communicate effectively. In fact ESP is not restricted to the mastery of linguistic knowledge. It extends to the acquisition of other types of knowledge such as sociocultural, discourse, pragmatics and communication strategies. Within this line of thought, the chapter will, firstly, provide an overview of ESP as a learner-centered approach. Secondly, it will provide an overview of the different definitions of language proficiency in second language learning and its relation to learners' competence. In addition, the concept of communicative competence, *henceforth* CC, as defined by Dell Hymes, (1972) and Philip Riley (1996) will be dealt with given its importance in second or foreign language learning.

1.2 ESP: A Learner-Centered Approach

Historically speaking, ESP has gone through five phases of development: the "register analysis" approach (Peter Strevens, 1964, Jack Renew Ewer and G. Latorre, 1969 and John Swales, 1971), the "rhetorical or discourse analysis" approach (J. P.B Allen and Henry G. Widdowson, 1974), the "target situation analysis" approach (John

Munby, 1978), the "skills and strategy" approach, (Françoise Grellet, 1981, Christine Nuttall, 1982, Charles Alderson and Sandy Urquhart, 1984), and recently the "learner-centred approach" (Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters, 1987). Register analysis is also known as "lexicostatistics" by Swales (1988: 1, quoted in Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St. John, 1998) and "frequency analysis" by Pauline. C. Robinson (1991: 23) while discourse analysis is also termed textual analysis. The first four phases deal with the linguistic aspect of language use and have been fundamentally flawed in that they are all based on descriptions of languange use. However, the fifth one is based on the conception of learning. In other words, the approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the processes of languange learning. That is, the process of course design and material selection are fulfilled on the basis of the results that are obtained from the learners' needs analysis (Tony Dudley-Evans, 2001). Citing Hutchinson and Waters (2006:19) "it [ESP] is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need". Within this line of thought, Alan Waters proposes the Recipe Book Approach which displays the underlying process in the case of language for specific purposes course design in general.

Figure 1.1 Recipe Book Approach



Source Alan Waters 1997:82

On the theoretical aspect, teaching ESP means teaching a language that meets the needs of specific learners. This involves designing appropriate courses and textbooks for learners. Hence, the ESP approach neither focuses on a particular methodology nor on a particular type of teaching material. For Hutchinson and Waters (2006:19) "ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consists of a particular type of teaching material. … ESP, then, is an approach to language teaching in which decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning". Supporting this view Dudley-Evans explains

> The teaching of 'common core' LSP / ESP with courses such as The Nucleus Series (Bates and Dudley-Evans, 1976 onwards) or The Focus Series (Allen and Widdowson, 1974 onwards) or The Reading and Thinking in English Series (Moore et al., 1980) may indeed not differ very much from the teaching of general English textbooks. …… . However, more specific LSP work requires a rather different methodology. (1997:60)

On the practical aspect, ESP course contents must be based on learners' discipline of study or profession by taking into consideration their goals, needs and interests (e.g. texts about management are given to management students). For Hutchinson and Waters (2006:8) "The English needed by a particular group of learners could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study". It is for this very reason that ESP teaching unlike teaching general English requires furthermore the consideration of its very needs that are declined into needs analysis, discourse and text analysis, as well, as preparing learners for successful communication in academic or occupational settings. For Peter Robinson (1989:396)

> ESP is goal-directed. Students study ESP not because they are interested in the English language as such but because they have to perform a task in English. The task may be that of studying or it may be paid employment. Many students all over the world are studying technical English or academic subjects wholly or partly through the medium of English; their command of English must be such that they can reach a satisfactory level in their specialist subject studies.

Robinson (1989) believes ESP courses to be normally destined to adult learners in homogenous classes constrained by a shortage of time since students must develop a sufficient proficiency in English to perform their work or study task, and thus teachers are required to start with needs analysis for the ESP course preparation. Furthermore, the nature of the interaction between the teacher and the learner is considered particular because in some situations the teacher may have an equal status with the learners. Here, the ESP teacher is rather a language consultant because s/he practices teaching with learners who master the subject matter. For this very reason, ESP and LSP teachers in general should possess specialist knowledge relevant to the subject matter of the discipline or profession of their learners. Within this context, Gibson Ferguson, (1997:80) argues that " LSP teaching , like all teaching varies in its setting, goals, methodology, learners and so on … a common response to the question of quantity of desirable specialist knowledge is to say it 'all depends'." For Pauline C. Robinson (1991 qtd in Ferguson op cit: 80) the variables it all depends on include "Whether the student is 'an expert' or an apprentice in the discipline", and "the needs of the student (e.g. is the student seeking to activate an existing but dormant language proficiency, is he / she seeking genre specific skills, is the student more interested in writing, speaking, reading etc., and so on?)"

For Hutchinson and Waters (2006: 157) the ESP teacher's role "is one of many parts". In his turn, Swales (1985 qtd in Hutchinson and Waters 2006: 157) argues in favor of 'ESP practitioner' rather than 'ESP teacher'. Hutchinson and Waters (op cit) observe "in addition to the normal functions of a classroom teacher, the ESP teacher will have to deal with needs analysis, syllabus design, materials writing or adaptation and evaluation." Similarly Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:13) identify five key roles "teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator."

On the other hand, Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson (1994) prefer to use 'trainer' since teaching refers to training adult learners in company context when referring to BE teacher, whereas Sylvie Donna (2000 qtd in Klára Bereczky, 2009: 84) prefers the terms 'language teachers', 'instructors' and 'consultants' in relation to the business environment where English is taught. Thus, a difference exists between a teacher as 'a provider of input and activities' and as 'a facilitator or consultant' as claimed by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:149). The former role implies that the teacher is expected to provide information about skills and language and to control both the class and the activities. For Bereczky (op cit) "this role seems to match the traditional role of teachers and apparently most likely to occur in classes for pre-experience learners". The latter role implies that the teacher is expected to manage the class rather than to control it and that the decision about the course design and content are the result of a negotiation between the teacher and the job-experienced learners. Bereczky (op cit) believes "… the course content is a result of negotiation with the learners, and course materials are often provided by them". However, T. Bell (1999: 5 qtd in Bereczky, 2009: 85) argues for the teacher's role as a facilitator and believes "without this specific background, the trainer would be in the same position as the learners, reaching for the dictionary". This means that knowledge of the subject matter is a determining parameter for the ESP teacher's role.

In line with the definition of ESP, there have been several attempts to determine a series of characteristics relevant to what an ESP course constitutes. Peter Strevens (1988) distinguishes between four absolute characteristics and two variable ones. As revealed by John Flowerdew and Matthew Peacock (2001:13), Strevens (op cit) argues that ESP from a pedagogical point of view consists of English language teaching. It considers the specific needs of the learner dealing with content related themes and topics focusing on particular disciplines, occupations and activities, by linguistically highlighting the syntactic, lexical, semantic, discourse and analysis of this discourse in contrast to general English. To distinguish ESP, Strevens further notes that ESP may be, but is not necessarily restricted as to the language skills to be learnt (e.g. reading only) and is not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology suggesting that the rationale for ESP is based upon: a) "being focused on the learner's needs", "it wastes no time; b) "it is relevant to the learner", c) "it is successful in imparting learning", and d) "it is more cost effective than 'General English'" (qtd in John Flowerdew and Matthew Peacock, 2001:13).

Strevens' (1988) definition of ESP allowed scholars to further develop these characteristics into two types including three absolute ones:

(i) "ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner";
(ii) "ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves";
(iii) "ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities".

While the variable characteristics are:

(i) "ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines";
(ii) (ii) "ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English";

(iii) (iii) "ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level";

(iv) "ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners".

This division of ESP into absolute and variable characteristics helps to give a clear picture of what ESP is and is not. Besides, Diane Belcher (2006:135) puts forward other characteristics and notes that "ESP assumes that the problems are unique to specific learners in specific contexts and thus must be carefully delineated and addressed with tailored-to-fit instruction." This entails that ESP course development requires collaboration between language specialists and subject specialists with a consideration of both types of characteristics. Lindsay Miller (2014:307) notes,

> The task of the ESP developer is to ensure that all the absolute characteristics and as many as possible of the variable characteristics in the above definition are accommodated within an ESP course. This may require some collaboration between language teaching experts and discipline experts, or at least some knowledge by the curriculum developer of the most important technical and semi-technical vocabulary, specific notions and functions and other general communicative events required by the learners.

ESP has always been subject of an ongoing debate as a result of the great awareness of the learners' needs and their diverse purposes amongst the academic and business community. As Belcher (2006: 135) observes,

> Although hard to pin down, ESP does have some prominent distinguishing features on which many involved in ESP would likely agree. Needs assessment, content-based teaching methods, and content-area informed instructors have long been considered essential to the practice of specific-purpose teaching, yet how these concepts are defined and realized at the teaching site has been and continues to be the subject of much debate.

Teaching ESP, therefore, is neither limited to a specific group of learners nor necessarily concerned with a specific discipline. It is simply an approach to teaching; a more eclectic and task-based approach (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 32). Thus, the ESP practitioner has to carry out research about the discipline and the language needs of the learners as a starting point before the process of course design and materials selection.

1.2.1 Needs Analysis

ESP being learners' centered approach is essentially based on teaching and learning programs that are responsive to learners' needs. This implies that needs analysis is a prerequisite to language learning. Linguists have been much controversial as regards the term "needs" and needs analysis as conceived within language learning issues. As René Richterich argues "The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous." (qtd in Robert Keith Johnson1989 :65). While Robert Keith Johnson (op cit) considers needs as conventionally being something like "the gap between what is and what should be". For Kenneth Harold Lawson (1979: 37)

> 'Needs' are for the educator to define against a background of normative concepts of almost infinite range and variety. His task is to select those normative areas in which there appear to be deficiencies and to match them up with what the educator qua educator can supply or provide. Where a deficiency can be remedied by the help of some educational process, an 'educational need' is established. [However] "what is finally established as a 'need' is a matter of agreement and judgment and not discovery", (qtd in Robert Keith Johnson op cit) .

Within this context, Hutchinson and Waters (2006:54) make a distinction between "target needs" and "learning needs". The former refer to what the learner needs to do with the language in the target situation subdivided into "necessities", "lacks" and "wants", while the latter refers to what the learner needs to do in order to learn the language. Further than Hutchinson's and Waters' classification of needs, Richard Berwick (1989) and Geoffrey Brindley (1989), quoted in Marjatta Huhta, Karin Vogt and Heikki Tulkki, 2013, suggest other types of needs in exploring different kinds of perspectives on the professional context of learning.

Berwick makes the difference between "felt needs" or "expressed needs" of the learner and "perceived needs" of authority. As explained by Marjatta Huhta et al. (op cit: 11) "the distinction here being made between a personal, inside perspective and a more objective, outside view of the professional learner and his or her professional context for learning". Within the inside and the outside perspective to describe needs, Brindley (1989) rather uses the terms "subjective" and "objective needs." The former are concerned with facts and may be introduced from and outside view, whereas the latter involve the personal perspective of the learner as an individual (qtd in Marjatta Huhta, 2013: 12). Furthermore, Brindley (op cit) makes an additional distinction of needs into "product oriented" and "process oriented". The former involve "how the learning is carried out" while the latter refer to "the final outcome of the course" (qtd in Huhta, opcit).

These distinctions of needs show that needs analysis involves more than a simple process of matching means with objectives. It is worth noting that the numerous stakeholders' perspectives result in a multitude of objectives and desired outcomes of the ESP course which some may be contradictory. Thus, as Huhta et al. (op cit) note "the number of definitions for what can be considered "needs" has led to a correspondingly wide range of definitions of needs analysis." This controversy between the two types influenced largely the way scholars define needs analysis. In fact needs analysis is not particular to ESP. Ken Hyland (2007:392) notes,

> While not unique to ESP, needs analysis is a defining element of its practices and a major source of its interdisciplinary. The use of systematic means to define the specific sets of skills, texts linguistic forms, and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire is central to ESP… It is a crucial link between perception and practice, helping ESP to keep its feet on the ground by tempering any excesses of academic theory –building with practical applications.

David Pratt (1980:79) (qtd in Jack C Richards 1990:1) considers needs analysis "a procedure for establishing the specific needs of language learners". James Dean Brown (2006:102) provides a detailed definition in which he refers to the different agents and factors having a role to play in needs analysis.

> Need analysis …is… the process of identifying the language forms that students ultimately will need to use in the target language. However, since the needs of the teachers, administrators, employers, institutions etc. also have some bearing on the language learning situation, many other types of quantitative and qualitative information of both objective and subjective types must be considered in order to understand both the situation and the language

> involved as well as information on the linguistic content and the learning process. Needs analysis is the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of the particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation. (qtd in Marjatta Huhta et al. 2013:12)

These different definitions of the term 'needs' and the resulting impact to define 'needs analysis' enlightens the reason why 'needs analysis' has been further developed by scholars each according to the optical angles from which 'needs analysis' is conceived. Then, the question that any ESP teacher or course designer should ask in order to assess his / her students' reason for taking the ESP course: 'What do learners need from an ESP course?' As Diane Belcher (2006:135) (qtd in Nagwa Kassabgy and Amani Elshimi, 2007 :27) notes , "needs assessment is seen in ESP as the foundation on which all other decisions are, or should be, made." . In terms of Hutchinson and Waters

> What distinguishes ESP from general English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. If learners, sponsors [company] and teachers know why the learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in the language course and, on the positive side, what potential can be exploited. (2006: 53)

Controversy among scholars concerning needs analysis resulted in enlarging further the concept. For Robinson, (1991: 8) "A needs analysis which focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course can be called a target situation analysis or TSA". The aim of the target situation analysis is to define the ultimate needs and objectives of learners through the collection and analysis of data about necessities, lacks and wants of the target situation. Looking at the target needs in terms of necessities means collecting data about "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation", (Hutchinson and Waters, 2006:55). This kind of information is gathered by observing the situations in which the learner will need to perform his / her tasks followed by the analysis of their constituent parts.

In terms of learner's lacks, it is important to identify the learner's existing proficiency to match it against the target proficiency, so "the gap between the two can be referred so as to the learner's lacks" (Hutchinson, Waters and Michael .P Breen, 1979 qtd in Hutchinson and Waters, 2006: 56). On the other hand, the identification of the learners' wants involves having their view on what their needs are. However, the learners' wants may conflict with the ESP teacher's perception of their necessities and lacks. For this reason, it is important to bear in mind the learners' motivation in taking the ESP course.

At this level, the analysis of the target situation will be complete and efficient if the learning needs are considered in addition to the different constraints of the learning situation which constitute the basis of the learning needs analysis. In other words, the course content should reflect both target situation and learning situation needs. For Hutchinson and Waters (op cit: 62)

> The target situation, in other words, is not a reliable indicator of what is needed or useful in the ESP learning situation. **The target situation analysis** can determine the destination; it can also act as a compass on the journey to give general direction, but we must choose our route according to the vehicles and guides available (i.e. the conditions of the learning situation), the existing roads within the learners' mind (i.e. their knowledge, skills and strategies) and the learners' motivation for travelling.

Elaborating a syllabus, designing a course and finally selecting useful materials passes by the process of needs analysis. This means that the ESP teacher must collect information about the discipline (by reading and / or coordinating with teachers of the discipline), and get acquainted with the available teaching materials. The objective of this phase consists of guiding the teacher to select materials and be as knowledgeable as possible about his students' needs. Miguel F. Ruiz-Garrido, Juan Carlos Palmer, and Inmaculada Fortanet-Gomez (2010:159) reveal that "ESP practitioners are more often faced with the task and responsibility of developing learning materials."

Furthermore, they are also required to be aware and familiarized with the specialist knowledge relevant to the learners and to keep learning materials updated with the latest innovations in the target discipline. Given this issue of language being mostly in the possession of the teacher and subject matter being that of the learners, the relationship between teacher and learner is different from that of teachers of general English. The hierarchy distance is rather of give and take in the case of ESP teaching and learning. Karlfried Knapp, Barbara Seidlhofer and H. G. Widdowson (2009: 532) note

> Since teachers tend to be specialized in language rather than in the subject and it is not uncommon for learners to know more about the subject than their teacher, the relationship between teacher is different from that in general language teaching as teachers quite often need to draw on the specialized knowledge of the learners to determine the aims and the content of the course. Such distribution of knowledge and competency as well as the shared interest in the aims of the course by teachers and learners and how they achieve them, the mutual the exchange of information on learners' disposition as well as the teachers' expertise and the institutional possibilities offer good potential for a balanced and constructive relationship between teachers and learners.

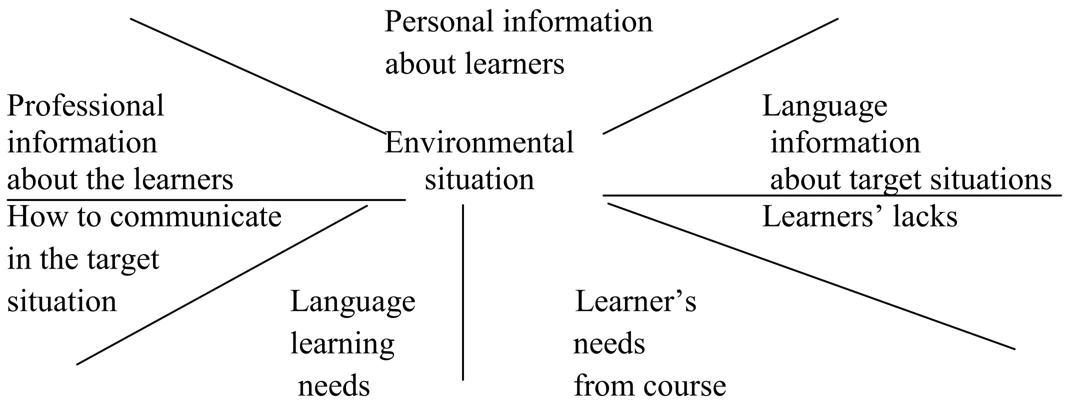
Consequently, any ESP course is based on learners' needs analysis which is "the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 122). When it comes to the learners' needs, four types are distinguished, namely objective and perceived needs, subjective and felt needs, product-oriented needs and process-oriented needs. These needs constitute the object of three types of analysis: target situation analysis (objective / perceived and product-oriented needs) learning situation analysis (subjective / felt and process-oriented needs) and present situation analysis (strengths and weaknesses).

The environment where the course will take place constitutes according to some scholars another level of analysis known as the means analysis. It involves two factors: the classroom culture and the management infrastructure culture. Dudley Evans and St John (1998:124) argue,

> Means analysis looks at […], the environment in which a project will take root, grow healthily and survive. […]. Means analysis is an acknowledgement that what works well in one situation may not work in another. While hotel staff around the world may share some similar language needs, how they learn the language, the conditions in which they are learning and where and how they apply the language are not the same. So the needs and how they are prioritized, ordered and then met will be different.

For Dudley-Evans & St John needs analysis as a whole covers different aspects as indicated in the diagram below.

Figure 1.2 What needs analysis establishes



Source: Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:125

In sum, the approach of needs analysis is an ongoing activity implying that teachers, sponsors and material writers should be aware of the learners' goals at all the stages of production. Therefore, a successful language teaching/learning depends upon the participants' co-operation in the interaction as to the goals of this interaction. Though not insofar, co-operation must be negotiated. That is, the approach to needs analysis enables the teachers to make the decisions on the types of activities necessary in the classroom (Joy Reid, 1995) with a consideration to the content teaching in terms of discourse and text based on meeting the context requirements since discourse and text analysis are considered as the centre of interest of ESP teaching.

1.2.2 Discourse and Text Analysis

We mentioned briefly at the beginning of the present chapter that ESP development has witnessed four stages before to turn the interest on the learner. At the level of the discourse analysis stage, it shifted interest from the study of language at the sentence level to the level above the sentence. On this line of thought Hutchinson and Waters (2006: 10) "Whereas in the first stage of its development, ESP had focused on language at the sentence level, the second phase of development shifted attention to the level above the sentence, as ESP became closely involved with the emerging field of discourse or rhetorical analysis". The leading figures of the discourse / rhetorical analysis movement were Henry Widdowson in Britain and Larry Selinker, Louis Trimble, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd-Trimble in the United States. With this movement, the concern of research was directed on understanding the way sentences were combined in discourse to produce meaning (Hutchinson and Waters, op cit: 11) in which the linguistic forms count as communication and how they express elements of discourse. As noted by Robinson (1991:24) "the focus was on the text rather than on the sentence, and on the writer's purpose rather than on the form".

Angela Chambers (2007: 35) notes that starting from the mid-twentieth century, discourse analysis, henceforth DA, has contributed to developments in language studies by shaping the current landscape in Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP). She states "Discourse analysis has become an increasingly influential area of research within a number of disciplines, including sociology, sociolinguistics, psychology, anthropology, and applied linguistics" (Chambers, op cit). Moreover, this contribution which occurred in parallel development with communicative approach to language learning and teaching, and technological advances guided ESP teachers in looking for specialized texts (spoken or written) that provide genuine examples of language use to be made available to language learners (Angela Chambers, op cit) and this concept coincides with the aim of ESP teaching, that is to provide learners with the kind of language they need in a particular domain, vocation or occupation. She states,

> This may appear to represent an ideal learning and teaching environment for those involved in specialised language use, with easy access to individual examples of specialised texts (used here to refer to both written and spoken language), readily and freely available corpora permitting the analysis of discourse patterns across texts, and publications on language learning and teaching as discourse analysis providing guidance to teachers who are not experienced discourse analysts. (2007: 35)

Accordingly, DA is one of the most important concepts and one of the absolute characteristics of ESP teaching besides needs analysis (Dudley-Evans 1997:61), for this reason it requires an appropriate definition. Widdowson (1979: 93) views that the label discourse analysis is used "to refer to the investigation into the way sentences are put to communicative use in the performing of social actions, discourse being roughly defined, therefore, as the use of sentences." (qtd in Ismail Erton 2000:204), for Penelope Brown and George Yule (1983: 1 qtd in Marianne Celce-Murcia and Elite Olshtain, 2000:2) "the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs.", and Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 4) add that "Discourse analysis is minimally the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries".

In general, DA involves the study of language in use which James Paul Gee and Michael Handford (2012: 1) describe as "the study of meanings we give to language and the actions we carry out when we use language in specific contexts". Moreover, it is sometimes defined as the study of language above a sentence level. Both scholars explain this definition as the study "of the ways sentences combine to create meaning, coherence, and accomplish purposes". However, Hugh Trappes-Lomax (2004: 134) provides a definition including all aspects of DA, so he states

> Discourse analysis may, broadly speaking, be defined as the study of language viewed communicatively and/or of communication viewed linguistically. Any more detailed spelling out of such a definition typically involves reference to concepts of language in use, language above or beyond the sentence, language as meaning in interaction, and language in situational and cultural context.

Practically, DA definitions involve that once the target needs have been identified, the teacher starts the procedure for the development of a syllabus and teaching materials. This procedure is fulfilled on the basis of the genre analysis of what has been identified. In other words, ESP teachers need to analyze written and spoken texts that are appropriate to learners needs and conduct genre analysis. The objective of this latter approach is to illuminate the relationship between the actual text and the conventions of the discourse community (Swales 1990 qtd in Dudley-Evans, 1997:62) in which a text is being written or spoken meeting the learners' need of learning how to use the language appropriately and effectively in different contexts of communication. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 3) consider that "it is imperative that we combine knowledge of the target language and the skills and strategies that enable us to use the language effectively and appropriately in various social and cultural contexts". Thus, language must be understood as a part of context.

As regards the relationship between meaning and context, Hutchinson and Waters believe that the meaning of a single sentence changes with different contexts (2006: 34) because of two factors: "the sociolinguistic context: who is speaking to whom and why" and "the discoursal meaning": "the relative positions of the utterances within the discourse". For them (op cit) "an utterance acquires meaning by virtue of what utterances it precedes or follows." So they illustrate with the sentence 'it's raining' by using it in three different dialogues to fulfill three different communicative purposes.

1) Can I go out to play?
   It's raining
2) Have you cut the grass yet?
   It's raining
3) I'll think I'll go out for a walk.
   It's raining

As both writers explain, the first example might be child/parent dialogue and the child is asking for permission, the second example might occur between husband and wife in which the function of 'it's raining' is a reason or an excuse, whereas the third dialogue might happen between friends to act as an advice or a mild warning. However, if we invert the sentences of dialogue 3) to have the example 4) , the underlying meaning will completely change and 'rain' will become a reason in favor of going out for a walk.

4) It's raining.
   I'll think I'll go out for a walk.

Several works contributed to the development of the ESP teaching approach and methodology to meet learners' needs by improving language teaching materials for specific purposes. EST had been one of the first areas of ESP to witness the publication of textbooks for teaching scientific English (i.e. academic discourse), such as the nine volumes of 'English in Focus' series edited by Widdowson with the co-operation of Patrick Allen. These series include 'Physical Science' (1974), 'Mechanical Engineering' (1973), 'Workshop Practice' (1975), 'Basic Medical Science' (1975), 'Education' (1977), 'Agriculture' (1977), 'Social Science' (1978), 'Biological Science' (1978), and 'Electrical Engineering and Electronics' (1980). Both scholars (1974 qtd in Swales, 1985: 74) believe that an English course should aim at developing students' abilities; one dealing with the "rhetorical coherence of discourse" and the other with "the grammatical cohesion of text", so they (op cit) explain "the first is the ability to recognize how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognize and manipulate the formal devices which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passages of prose." Less than two years after, another series of textbooks to teach EST named 'The Nucleus series' were edited by Martin Bates and Tony Dudley-Evans. They include 'General Science' (1976), 'Biology', 'Engineering', 'Geology', 'Nursing Science', Mathematics and Medicine' (from 1977- to 1980).

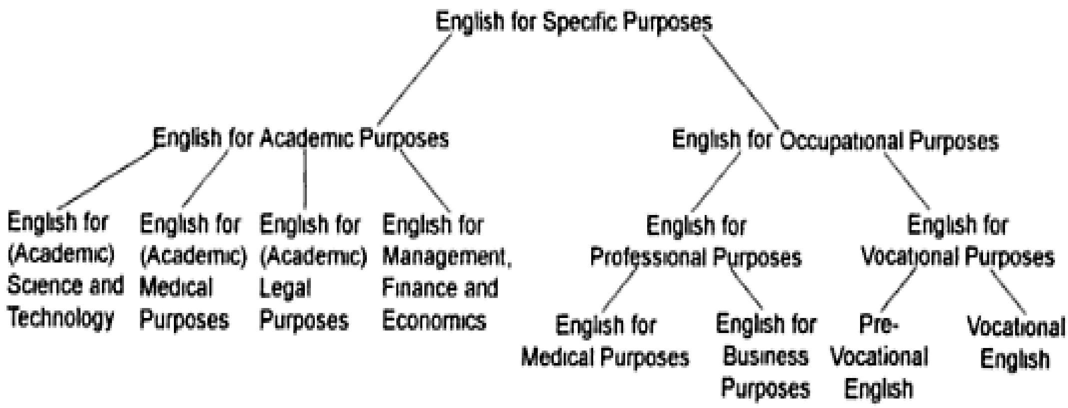
As regards the relationship between discourse and text analysis, the discourse analysis of a single sentence or utterance as described by Gee and Handford (2012: 1), extends from the structural study (grammatical study) to cover both 'pragmatics' (i.e. a study of contextually specific meanings of language in use) and 'text analysis' (i.e. a study of how sentences and utterances pattern together to create meaning across multiple sentences or utterances). Thus, discourse analysis involves "… studying how sentences in an oral or written "text" pattern together to create meaning and coherence and to define different genres (e.g. dialogues, narratives, reports, descriptions, explanations, and so forth)." (Gee and Handford, op cit: 1). On the other side, Trappes-Lomax (2004: 135), distinguishes three ways of analysis: (1) "the way the parts of the text relate to each other to constitute a unit of meaning", (2) "the relationships between the various factors in the event: the participants, their cultural backgrounds, their relationship to each other, the setting, what is going on, the various linguistic choices made, etc.", (3) "the dynamics of the process that makes the event happen (what has happened, who is the responsible", and (4) "how it is possible for the participants, individually and jointly, to enact and interpret their drama in the way they do". On the same context Hutchinson and Waters (2006: 11), "the concern of research, therefore, was to identify the organisational patterns in texts and to specify the linguistic means by which these patterns are signalled. These patterns would then form the syllabus of the ESP course".

In sum, needs analysis and discourse analysis are influenced by the type of learners, situation and context of learning. Moreover, the learners' objectives differ according to the context of language use. For instance, some learners may need English because it is a subject of studies while others may need it because it is used at work. Thus, we distinguish two different types of ESP: English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for occupational purposes (EOP).

1.3 Classification of ESP

Different models are used as a basis for ESP classification. For Robinson (1991) experience is used as a model while Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) rather focus on the professional features. However, both agree on the fact that ESP yields two areas EAP and EOP. The present work uses Dudley-Evans and St John model.

Figure 1.3 ESP Classification by Professional Area



Source: Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 6

1.3.1 EAP

EAP is a sub-branch of ESP which refers to teaching English for any study purpose. John Flowerdew and Matthew Peacock (2001: 8) define EAP as " the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research, or teach in that language." R.R Jordan (1997: xvii) argues that "EAP is needed not only for educational studies in countries where English is the mother tongue, but also in an increasing number of other countries for use in the higher education sector." Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) subdivide EAP into English for academic science and technology (EST), English for academic medical purposes (EMP), English for academic legal purposes (ELP) and English for management, Finance and Economics. The educational domain in general, such as university or similar academic institutions, are generally concerned with these sub-branches.

As far as the early sixties, EST is considered the dominant area of research. Ewer and Latorre (1967), John E. Lackstrom, Larry Selinker and Louis P. Trimble (1972) are considered the prominent descriptive EST pioneers. Nevertheless, the various changes that occurred in the world of science and technology in specific domains resulted in other specific needs of English as it is the case of medical sciences, law and business. As a result, ELT became also centered on learners' needs to enable them to use English effectively as required by the corresponding field of study or work.

Teaching EAP differs from one situation to another. The EAP teacher should be aware of what courses and materials are relevant to the learning situation, as claimed by Jordan (1997: 2) "EAP takes place in a variety of settings and circumstances. These range from an entirely English-speaking context (e.g. UK, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, etc) to the students' own countries." Dudley Evans and St John (1998:35) distinguish four types of situations:

1. "An English-speaking country, such as UK or USA",
2. "English as a Second Language (ESL) situation where English is the official language of education and is widely spoken…"
3. "A situation in which certain subjects, such as medicine, engineering or science are officially taught in English", while for other subjects… the national language is used, and "4. A situation where all subject courses are taught in the national language but English may be important for ancillary reasons".

For instance, English is considered as a foreign language (EFL) in Algeria while tertiary level subjects such as medical sciences and engineering are taught in French which is the second foreign language (L2). As regards English, it mostly enjoys an important place at the level of the university as a module included in almost all other disciplines. The ESP course is meant to be fitted to the students' specialty involving learning technical or specialized vocabulary to help them in their future research as post-graduates or in their professional life. For example, students of electrical engineering study English for electrical engineering. This means, the course content is related to electricity through authentic or generated materials as a self-developing material which depends on the teacher's domain background and on the availability of teaching material.

However, the problem that arises from teaching EAP in such situations is that the students' motivation may decrease because of the absence of the skills of listening and speaking. That is, the teaching concentrates mostly on reading and writing while listening and speaking are almost neglected. The students' needs in the former situation are known as immediate needs and in the latter are known as delayed needs. Quoting Dudley Evans and St John

> The motivation problem is in a sense similar to that in the third type of situation – it can be very difficult to decide what students' real needs are. In theory, students need to focus on the reading skill; in practice, the reading of English textbooks or articles may be little more than an optional extra and students may be more motivated by materials that focus on other skills, or on delayed needs rather than supposed immediate needs. By delayed needs we are referring to needs that arise either in the final year (for example project work) or to communication needs in the future work. (1998: 40)

1.3.2 EOP

EOP deals rather with work spheres. It refers to the English that is designed for people whose aim is to improve language skills for occupational purposes. It is divided into two branches: English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). EPP refers to the English that is needed by experienced people in areas such as medicine, administration, law and business. EVP refers to the English that is needed by non-experienced (Pre-Vocational English) or pre-experienced people.

For example in Algeria, multinational companies require the staff to have some language competence besides the professional domain. They even encourage their staff to take English classes to improve their English language background. These courses are intended to improve their language skills and provide them with vocabulary and grammar related to the English necessary to their field of work.

The development of EOP teaching approaches is characterized by two periods. The first period is between the late 1960 and the beginning of the 1980. EOP courses were mainly concerned with the written language. The emphasis was on teaching specialized vocabulary (words and expressions from the work field) through genuine texts. However, this approach was seen to be largely based on the teaching of the language rather than its use, although the students showed a good language manipulation. Later, attention shifted to the oral skill development: the language of greetings, agreeing and disagreeing through dialogues, role play activities and video based courses to provide language practice. However, these materials were argued not to satisfy learners' needs in the case of job experienced learners.

The second period which characterizes the development of EOP has started since the mid 1980 as a result of the requirements of the world of business. The EOP course materials needed to focus also on business communication situations such as socializing, practicing the language of presentations including understanding body language (Jeremy Comfort and Derek Utley, 1995), exchanging information, negotiating, and describing facts and figures. Hence, the attention shifted to satisfy the cross-cultural communication requirements and the students' needs to bridge cultural gaps to interact appropriately and effectively with people from different cultures.

It should be noted that literature concerning EOP identifies a subfield of English for specific purposes known as English for Business Purposes (EBP) or Business English (BE) which constitutes a prominent sub area within EOP. Because business activities are extending nowadays, business English is seen as a separate category involving general English teaching which consists of teaching general business-oriented vocabulary and the teaching of professional skills required in the business field, such as CV writing, interviewing, negotiating, chairing meetings and conferencing (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Consequently, research for adequate materials corresponding to learners' professional profile became a prerequisite in teaching ESP. Many books are considered as landmarks in the development of course materials since they provide simulations and offer practical experience of real professional situations taking into consideration learners' needs analysis and target situation needs analysis, thus, providing appropriate content which fits these needs.

1.4 Teaching Materials

ESP approach to language teaching emphasizes the need to develop materials for non-English language background learners who possess a basic level of proficiency in general English, but are required to employ English for special purposes (e.g. Engineers, Scientists, Doctors, and Company Managers). Accordingly, the ESP teacher should care to the choice of course contents and materials to motivate learners. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 170-71) identify four reasons related to the use of materials which seem significant in the ESP context: "as a source of language", "as a learning support", "for motivation and stimulation" and "for reference."

Materials availability is also another problem. Hutchinson and Waters (2006: 96) provide three possible solutions of turning a course design into actual teaching materials:

a) "select from existing materials: materials evaluation",
b) "write your own materials: materials development"
c) "modify existing materials: materials adaptation".

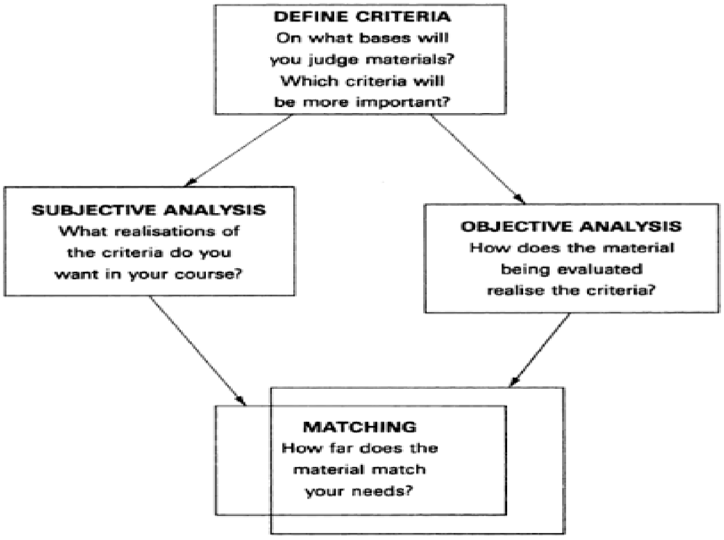
According to Brian Tomlinson (2011: xiv) materials adaptation requires "Making changes to materials in order to improve them or to make them more suitable for a particular type of learner. Adaptation can include reducing, adding, omitting, modifying, and supplementing. Most teachers adapt materials every time they use a textbook in order to maximize the value of the book for their particular learners."

Material is also subject to evaluation. In terms of Tomlinson (op cit), "evaluation can be pre-use and therefore focused on predictions of potential value. It can be whilst-use and therefore focused on awareness and description of what the learners are actually doing whilst the material are being used. And it can also be post-use and therefore focused on evaluation of what happened as a result of using the materials." For Hutchinson and Waters (2006: 98) evaluation is a systematic process which goes through different steps:

1. "Defining criteria",
2. "Subjective analysis",
3. "Objective analysis",
4. "Matching".

The steps allow the ESP practitioner to judge and analyze whether a given material is suitable for achieving a particular purpose or not through questioning and developing ideas in an ordered way and according to certain requirements (see fig 1.4).

Figure 1.4 The materials evaluation process



Source: Hutchinson and Waters 2006:98

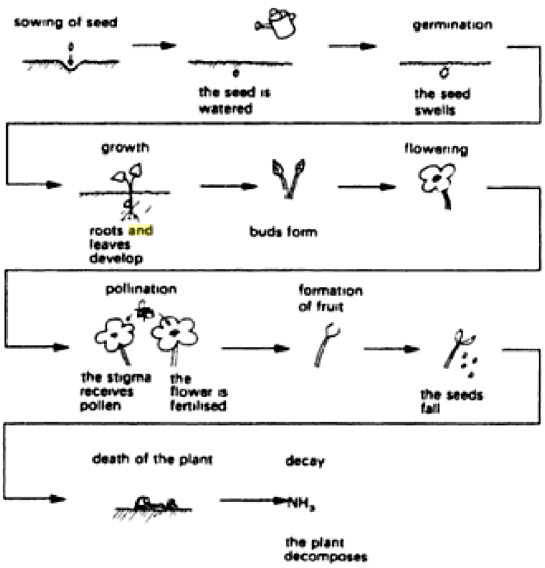
However, a textbook might sometimes provide the appropriate content and language description that satisfies the audience criteria, but does not provide the methodology required. Thus, content and methodology adaptation is a solution. ESP teachers, then, must be resourceful and material developers. Quoting Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:15) "The role of ESP teachers as 'providers of material' thus involves choosing suitable published material, adapting material when published material is not suitable, or even writing material where nothing suitable exists".

Materials selection is very important as it helps to realize some objectives which according to Hutchinson and Waters (2006:107-8) are:

1. To provide a stimulus to learn,
2. To help to organize the teaching –learning process,
3. to embody a view of the nature of language and learning,
4. to reflect the nature of the learning task,
5. to have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training,
6. and to provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

Given the importance of content as it constitutes a basic element for the teacher and plays an important role to motivate learners, Dudley Evans and St John (1998) introduce the notions of carrier content and real content in ESP teaching. The notions refer to the use of an authentic topic as a carrier content to meet certain objectives of the unit which are identified as the real content. They believe "the notions of 'carrier content' and 'real content' are essential to the understanding of ESP work and to an understanding of motivation in ESP" (op cit: 11). The following example related to carrier content illustrates the case of the life cycle of a plant serving as an authentic topic which may be used to teach the language of how things develop or work i.e. , process description (see figure 1.5).

Figure 1.5 The life cycle plant as a carrier content and real content example



Source: Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 12

Further to the importance of materials as regards development and evaluation, learners' language proficiency raises as a very important element to be considered. Learners' achievements depend widely on their language proficiency as ESP courses are meant for advanced foreign language learners.

1.5 Learners' Language Proficiency

Another not less important issue related to language learning in general, and which plays an important role, is the learners' competence within the context of the non-native learner of a language. If native language learners are concerned with 'competence', non- native learners are rather concerned with language proficiency issues. Robinson Peter (2013:521) observes that "Language proficiency is a term that scholars, theoretical linguists and educators have used for many years, and it can often be interchangeable with other terms such as competence and performance. Proficiency and competence are different terms, yet, they are related terms which merge into one another."

Linguists and applied linguists have not always agreed on the definition of the term proficiency since it is based on different views of language and knowledge of language (Alessandro Benatti, 2013: 520). Quoting Alessandro Benatti (2013:520) "The term proficiency refers overall to the ability for learners to master and use a second language in different contexts". Many scholars equated proficiency with other terms such as ability, skill and capability. For instance, Widdowson (1983:8) believes that the term proficiency is associated with "the ability to produce and understand utterances by using the resources of the grammar in association with features of context to make meaning" (qtd in Alessandro Benatti, 2013: 521). David Stern (1992), on his turn argues that "the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) remain a useful expression of proficiency in modern language education" (qtd in Alessandro Benatti, 2013: 520).

Karlfried Knapp, Barbara Seidlhofer, H. G. Widdowson (2009: 642) reveal that "Many definitions share the idea that proficiency is something more than or something different from 'competence' in the Chomskyan sense i.e., something more than being in a state of knowing a language. Rather, the idea of putting language to use seems to be crucial to the concept of 'proficiency'." D. Taylor (1988:166 qtd in Peter Robinson, 2013: 521) views competence as "a static concept having to do with structure, state or form whereas proficiency is essentially a dynamic process, having to do with process and function." Taylor's definition of proficiency as "the ability to make use of competence and performance as "what is done when proficiency is put to use" (Taylor op cit), led Brian North (2000) to argue that proficiency is between competence and performance.

As to competence, early models to describe competence were based on language only taking into account mainly the language skills. Chomskyian's view of competence (1965) is restricted to linguistic competence having to do with innateness as it leads to internalization of the rules of the language. However, scholars versed in this field reacted to this narrow view and proposed broader notions of competence including different factors that intervene in language use and learning.

Consequently, the assessment of language proficiency depends on the students' ability to use language. Other scholars consider language proficiency being a part of communicative competence (Alan Davies, 1989 qtd in Benatti, 2013: 521) and that the aim of modern language teaching is to develop learners' grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse competencies in the target language to achieve their communicative purposes. Quoting Brigit Harley, Jim Cummins, Merill Swain and Patrick Allen (1990: 7-8)

> The recent movement toward communicative language teaching has been associated with a broader view of language that includes not just its grammatical aspects, but also the ability to organize one's thoughts through language. That is to say, the recent emphasis on communication in language teaching is expressed in attempts to develop students' sociolinguistic and discourse competencies in addition to their grammatical competence.

1.6 Learners' Competence

The term competence has been one of the most important issues in linguistics. It was first coined by Noam Chomsky in the early 1960s (1965). He considers that,

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-hearer, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (1965:3)

He further made a fundamental distinction between competence and performance "competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language) and performance, the actual use of language in concrete situations" (Chomsky, 1965:4).

Focusing on the ability to use knowledge of the language for communication purpose, the concept of communicative competence was developed by Dell Hymes (1971) to match the acquisition of knowledge to the ability of using it in different contexts.

1.6.1 Communicative Competence

The concept of CC appeared in the 1960's as a counter- movement against the Chomskyan linguistic competence and his linguistic theory based on the idea of an idealized speaker-hearer and an idealized speech situation with perfect linguistic knowledge unaffected by cognitive and situational factors during actual linguistic performance (Gert Rickheit, Hans Strohner and Walter de Gruyter, 2008: 17). The concept of CC, then, is related to the basic concept of communication based on the criteria of efficiency and appropriateness. This means as Gert Rickheit, Hans Strohner and Walter de Gruyter, (2008: 15) write "The ability of people to reach their goals in social life depends on a large extent to their communicative competence".

Within the scope of language teaching for specific communication purposes being the aim of the present study, Sandra Savignon (1978:12) cited in Chrisitina Bratt Paulston (1992: 98) defines CC as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting; that is, in a spontaneous transaction involving one or more other persons." In other words, CC refers to simply a linguistic interaction in the target language (Wilga .M Rivers, 1972 qtd in Bratt Paulston, 1992). On the other side, other scholars tend to include the linguistic forms of the language with its social rules, the knowledge of when, how, and to whom it is appropriate to use these forms. Thus, the objectives of language teaching, as Bratt Paulston (1992: 115) defines, include the sociocultural rules for language use as an integral part of the language taught.

On the basis of this definition, this section starts to overview the historical background of CC as coined by Dell Hymes in the 1960's. Then, it extends to other scholars' contribution to the elaboration of this concept to discuss its construct and implication in describing second or foreign language teaching (e.g. Michael Canale and Merill Swain, 1980 and Michael Canale 1983; Lyle Bachman, 1990 and Marianne Celce- Murcia, Zoltán Dörnyei, and Sarah Thurell, 1995).

1.6.1.1 Dell Hymes (1972)

Dell Hymes coined the notion of CC in the 1960's (1962, 1964, 1972) to argue Chomsky's linguistic competence that he believes could not serve as a relevant component in a theory of real-life communication. Hymes emphasizes that, as Gert

Rickheit, Hans Strohner, and Constanze Vorwerg (2008:15) note "knowledge of grammatical rules is not sufficient for speaking a language and for communicating. There is a shared belief in many societies that good communication has many constraints and that one of the most important constraints is the underlying ability of the interlocutors." That is, CC is not only concerned with knowledge of grammatical rules to form correct sentences but also with knowledge of the psychological, social and cultural rules that govern the exchanges of language in the social surroundings of a given society. In line with this, Steven Wilson and Christina Sabee (2003: 3-4) put forward

> Why have so many scholars, from so many fields, studied communicative competence within so many relational, institutional, and cultural contexts? Our hunch is that scholars, as well as the contemporary Western societies in which most live and work, widely accept the following tacit beliefs: (a) within any situation, not all things that can be said and done are equally competent; (b) success in personal and professional relationships depends, in no small part, on communicative competence; and (c) most people display incompetence in at least a few situations, and a smaller number are judged incompetent across many situations. (qtd in Gert Rickheit, Hans Strohner, and Constanze Vorwerg, 2008:15)

Hymes, then, provides a broader definition of competence being knowledge of linguistic forms in addition to the pragmatic dimensions of the ability to use these forms appropriately in context. In other words, Reinhold Peterwagner (2005:11) cites Hymes (1972:283) who uses the term competence to refer to the capabilities of a person which depend on tacit knowledge and ability for use including noncognitive factors such as attitude, values, and motivation. Hymes also puts emphasis on cognitive factors which are inseparable from affective and volitive factors. On the other side, language performance refers to actual use and actual events (Gillian Brown, Kirsten Malmkjaer and John Williams, 1996: 115). Quoting Hymes

> We have then to account for the fact a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as when to speak, when not, and as what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitudes toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communicative conduct. (1991: 15)

For developing an adequate theory of language users and language use, Hymes (1991: 18-19) suggests four sectors of communicative competence. He (opcit: 19) lists them in four questions:

1. "Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible";
2. "Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available";
3. "Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated";
4. "Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails." (opcit)

Consequently, Hymes introduces the ingredients of communication which are: non-verbal communication, the medium and the channel of communication, role relationships between the participants, the topic, and the purpose of communication (Hutchinson and Waters, 2006: 28-29).

In this connection, Muriel Saville–Troike (2003) considers communicative competence as basically constructed of three types of knowledge, namely, "(1) linguistic (i.e. knowledge of the linguistic codes such as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, etc)", "(2) interactional skills (i.e. knowledge of social norms and conventions in a given communicative setting)", and "(3) cultural knowledge (i.e. the social structure of the speech community and the values and attitudes attached to language use, such as identifying ways of speaking that are appropriate to each type of people)" (2003: 18~20).

Saville-Troike (op cit) believes that learners need to know how to talk appropriately in a given communicative setting. For this reason, they need to acquire interaction patterns in the classroom because they constitute an important part beside the acquisition of the linguistic codes to develop their CC. For Saville-Troike

> Communicative competence extends to both knowledge and expectation of who may or may not speak in certain settings, when to speak and when to remain silent, to whom one may speak, how one may talk to persons of different statuses and roles, what nonverbal bahaviours are appropriate in various contexts, what the routines for turn-taking are in conversation, how to ask for and give information, how to request, how to offer or decline assistance or cooperation, how to give commands, how to enforce discipline, and the like- in short, everything involving the use of language and other communicative modalities in particular social settings. (2003: 18)

As regards Hymes' CC, John Lyons (1996) views that the product of a speaker or a writer of a language is expected to be grammatically acceptable and contextually appropriate. That is, if an utterance does not fill this condition, it will be considered to be linguistically odd or deviant or uninterpretable. He (1996: 24) considers that the term communicative competence "was employed by Dell Hymes to label the ability to produce situationally acceptable, and more especially socially acceptable, utterances, which, in his view, would normally be held to be part of a native speaker's competence in a particular language".

By the notion of CC, the theoretical goal involves how the interaction between people is best illustrated. Hymes and John Gumperz (1972: vii qtd in Bratt Paulston, 1992: 97) describe the goal of CC as "What a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings." However, other scholars criticize Dell Hymes' model of CC and believe it needs redefinition since it includes native speakers as an appropriate model of linguistic competence.

1.6.1.2 Philip Riley (1996)

Philip Riley (1996) has a different view of the concept of CC. He believes that when people communicate, they establish a shared meaning (common ground) and 'a reciprocity of perspectives' (Aaron Cicourel, 1973, qtd in Riley, 1996:118). In this case, the communication becomes possible and the participants will be able to decide on what and what not to say on the basis of their apprehension, expectation, presupposition and inference of the situation. For him (1996:119) communication is "a collaborative process whereby information and acts are attributed mutually agreed meanings and interpretations. Communication is not self-directed, subjective: it is other-directed and intersubjective. 'People talk to each other', not to themselves."

Riley (op cit:119) criticizes Hymes' notion and finds that it needs a radical modification because it is "(i) neither dyadic nor intersubjective, (ii) intentional rather than hermeneutic, (iii) idealized, not theorized, (iv) based on a 'situational determinism' which leaves no room for rhetoric, or for interactants' changeable perceptions of the situation." He (op cit) believes that participants should be able to negotiate meaning in order to solve any communicative problem. Moreover, they have to be able to interpret the meaning of an utterance (utterances) depending on the context or on the background knowledge which can be limited to a very small number of people (two interlocutors) or to all members of a speech community on the basis of a generally accepted shared communicative competence. Thus, there is no cognitive storage of situations on the basis of inclusive and exclusive criteria and there is no appropriate linguistic model for communication.

However, Hymes' notion of communicative competence concerns native speakers while the present study deals with teaching English for non native speakers. Thus, the notion of communicative competence will be discussed from the point of view of other scholars who developed the concept in relation to second and foreign language acquisition.

1.6.2 The Components of Communicative Competence

CC is a dynamic concept which is based on the negotiation of meaning between interlocutors. Hence, as revealed by Maria Pilar Safont Jordá (2005: 51), the construct of CC is concerned with the interplay of several variables such as the relationship between interlocutors, intention in producing message, and hearer's interpretation. This construct has influenced the field of second language acquisition because of its concern with the communicative approach to language teaching. Besides, one of the basic concerns of communicative language teaching (CLT) is the integration of the four skills in the language course content in order to develop learners' language competence. However, these learners need to acquire knowledge that enables them to communicate functionally and interactively in order to become knowledgeable, able, strategic and professional users of English to realize their objectives. In this connection, Jordá (2005:51)

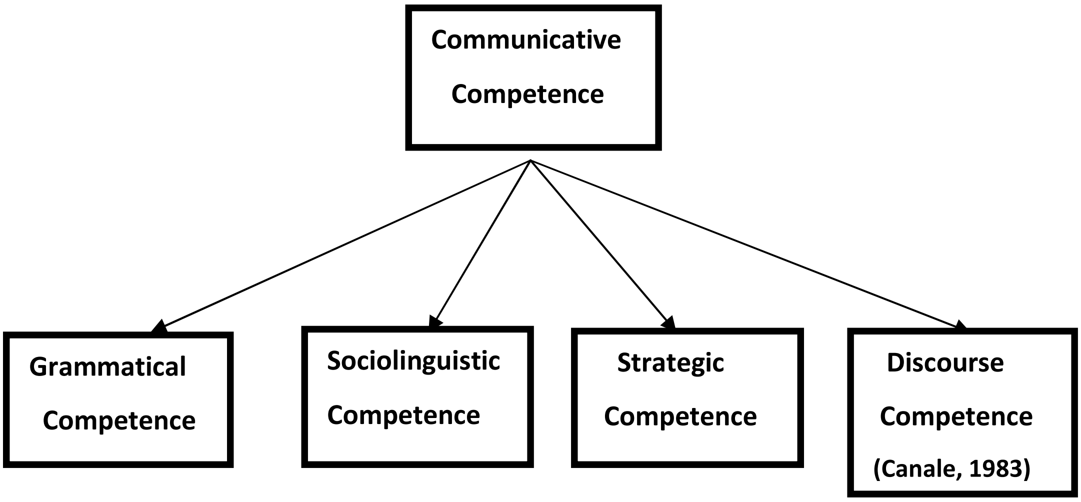
> The construct of communicative competence has been particularly influential in the field of second language acquisition, as it has a direct relationship with the communicative language teaching. For this reason, some scholars in the field of second language acquisition have attempted to describe the construct by identifying its various components. The most representative and significant models that have arisen within the field of second language acquisition are those of Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1990) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1995).

In line with the purpose of the present study, the discussion of existing models of CC (Michael Canale and Merill Swain, 1980 and Michael Canale 1983, Lyle Bachman, 1990 and Marianne Celce-Murcia, Zoltán Dörneyei and Sarah Thurell, 1995) is necessary since communicative language teaching syllabus should be based on its construct. For this reason, ESP practitioners need to manage materials and course contents appropriately and effectively in terms of their learners' needs. On the other side, learners are required to have an English background as a basis to learn ESP. That is previous knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, sentence construction, and pronunciation is fundamental in order to take ESP courses. Hence, it will facilitate the acquisition of other types of knowledge and, thus, the development of the other competence types.

1.6.2.1 Michael Canale and Merill Swain (1980) and Canale's Model (1983)

Michael Canale and Merill Swain (1980) who developed Hyme's concept of CC, define it as "the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication" (Canale, 1983: 5). As noted by Paulston (1992: 99), they (1979, 1980) suggest three subcomponents: grammatical, strategic, and sociolinguistic competence. Later, Canale (1983) adds the fourth subcomponent which is discourse competence (see figure 1.6). On this vein, Douglas Brown (2000: 246) states, "In Canale and Swain's and later in Canale's (1983) definition, four different components, or subcategories, make up the construct of communicative competence. The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself; the last two define the functional aspects of communication."

Figure 1.6 Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale's (1983) model of CC



Source: Maria Pilar Safont Jordá, 2005: 52

For Canale and Swain (1980:29 qtd in Douglas H. Brown, 2000: 247), grammatical competence involves "knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology". This type of competence is similar to Hymes' linguistic competence that is associated with mastering the linguistic code of language (Brown, 2000:247). According to Andrea E. Tyler (2005:68), "grammatical competence is the most research area of development in second language acquisition."

Concerning discourse competence, Canale and Swain (1983:5 qtd in Paulston, 1992: 98) define it as "the ability to produce and recognize coherent and cohesive text." In other sense, Brown (2000: 247) refers to "the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances". Thus, discourse competence involves the knowledge required to distinguish among types of text (written or spoken discourse) (Tyler, 2005: 68).

As regards sociolinguistic competence, Savignon (1983:37 qtd in Brown, op cit) believes that it "requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction". This means that sociolinguistic competence by Canale and Swain (op cit: 9 qtd in Paulston, op cit: 98) "is defined as the ability to produce and recognize socially appropriate language within a given socio-cultural context." According to Paulston (op cit), this definition refers to Hymes' social rules of language use. In line with this, Tyler (2005: 68) "it addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts, depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction."

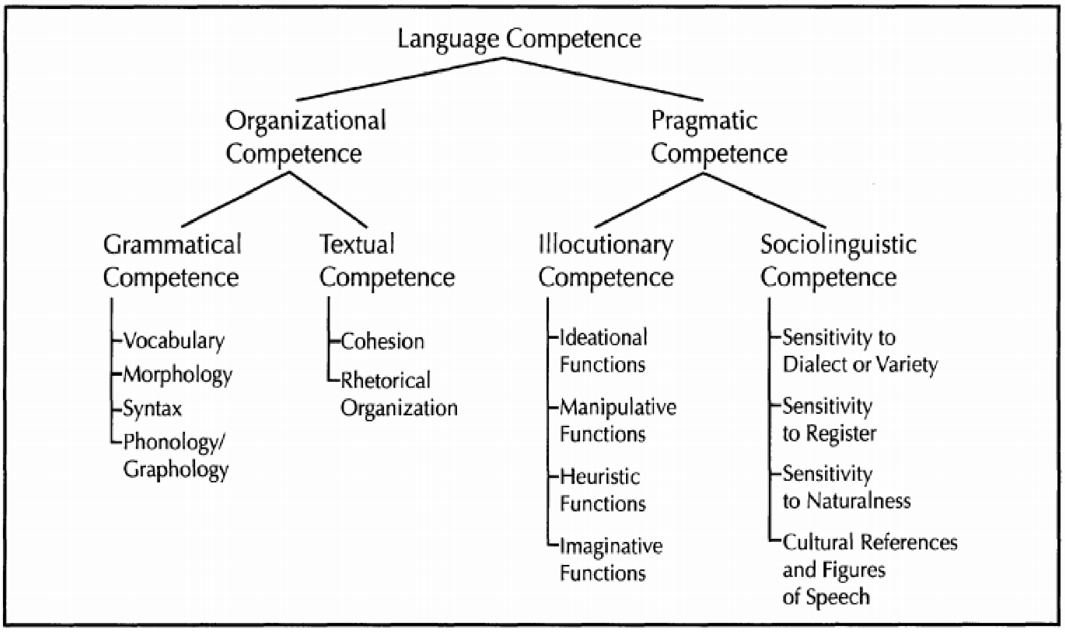
Strategic competence, however, involves knowledge of verbal and non verbal communication strategies use such as paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, guessing, and register and style shifting in order to sustain a conversation and avoid communication breakdown (Savignon, 1983 qtd in Brown, 2000: 247). Brown (op cit) cites Canale and Swain (1980:30) who describe strategic competence as, "The verbal and the non verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence".

Although Canale and Swain's model of CC intends to serve both instructional and assessment purposes in terms of second language use, it has been a subject to certain criticisms. For instance, Jacquelyn Schachter (1990 qtd in Celce-Murcia et al., 1995:8) argues that it does not provide a sufficient definition of the major components which result an ambiguous operationalization of the theoretical construct for assessment purposes. Jasone Cenoz (1996 qtd in Jordá, 2005: 52), on the other side, comments that it lacks a description of those mechanisms operating in strategic competence. Besides, Eva Alcón (2000b) and Jordá (qtd in Jordá op cit) agree on the fact that the model does not show an explicit connection amongst its components and this necessitates a further development and a more detailed description of each component in order to "fully develop what the notion of communicative competence actually involves."

1.6.2.2 Lyle Bachman's Model (1990)

Lyle Bachman (1990) believes that to be communicatively competent, language users need to have a global language proficiency. Peterwagner (2005: 15) cites Bachman and Andrew D. Cohen (1998:6) who argue Canale and Swain's framework of CC as being "essentially static, paying little attention to how its components interact with each other or how language users manage to cope with various kinds of contextual conditions." Yet, Bachman's model consists of Canale and Swain's components with an expansion of the role of strategic competence and the addition of the new subcomponent of pragmatic competence. Hence, he (1990) develops a framework called Communicative Language Ability (CLA) which according to him "involves both **language competence**, i.e. knowledge of language, and **strategic competence**" (Bachman, 1990: 84ff qtd in Peterwagner, 2005:15). Bachman (1990: 66 qtd in Geoff Jordan, 2004:7) defines language competence as "a set of specific knowledge components that are utilised in communication via language". These specific knowledge components include: organizational and pragmatic competence (see figure 1.7).

Figure 1.7 Components of Language Competence (Bachman, 1990:87)



Source: H. Douglas Brown, 2000: 249

The organizational competence involves grammatical and textual competence. The former is similar to that of Canale and Swains' and the latter is about how utterances or sentences are organized to form texts (i.e. discourse competence). However, pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. The illocutionary competence as M.V Rodriques (2000: 150) reveals "means the speaker's knowledge of how to perform the language functions." By language functions, the scholar (op cit) refers to John. R. Searle (1969) and M.A.K Halliday's (1973, 1976) distinction into "Ideational" (i.e. the use of language to express meaning of one's experience on the real world), "Manipulative" (i.e. the use of language primarily to affect the world around oneself), "Heuristic" (i.e. is used to extend one's knowledge of the world) and "Imaginative" (i.e. the use of language to create an environment through creative language use). On the other side, sociolinguistic competence in Bachman's model refers to how utterances or sentences are related to features of the language use context. In this vein of thoughts, Rodriques (op cit), "socio-linguistic competence refers to the speaker's ability to use the language appropriately in a given community and in-varying socio-cultural contexts or situations."

In contrast to Canale and Swain, Bachman characterizes strategic competence as a mechanism that controls cognitive processes in achieving a communicative goal (James. E. Purpura, 1999: 20). Citing Bachman (1990: 106 qtd in Purpura, op cit)

> Rather than considering strategic competence solely an aspect of language competence, I consider it more as a general ability, which enables an individual to make the most effective use of available abilities in carrying out a given task, whether that task be related to communicative language use or to non-verbal tasks such as creating a musical composition, painting or solving mathematical equations.

For him, strategic competence functions as an entirely separate element of communicative ability and involves "the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualised communicative language use" (Bachman, 1990: 67 qtd in Geoff Jordan, 2004: 7). The components are: assessment, planning and execution that Jordan (op cit: 9) explains,

a. Assessment component: enables us to identify the information needed for a communicative goal, decide what resources to use, evaluate our interlocutor, and evaluate the outcome.
b. Planning component: enables us to marshal the necessary items from language competence.
c. Execution component draws on the relevant psychophysiological mechanisms to implement the plan.

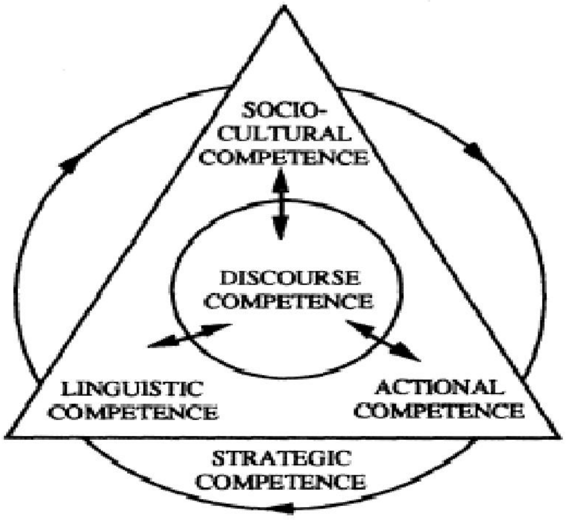
In sum, Bachman's objective behind the CLA is to provide an adequate construction in testing second language proficiency through reorganizing and redefining previous scholars' frameworks (Hymes, 1972 and Canale and Swain, 1980 and Canale, 1983). However, Jordan (2004: 9) raises certain problems related to Bachman's framework. He points out "…, measures of performance do not necessarily reflect well-defined competencies. A related issue is the difference between attempts to describe a given type of knowledge, and attempts to explain the process of learning or acquiring that knowledge". Yet, his framework is an inspiration for further research and development of other models to serve the needs of second or foreign language pedagogy.

1.6.2.3 Marianne Celce-Murcia et al.'s Model (1995)

Marianne Celce-Murcia, Zoltán Dörnyei and Sarah Thurell's model (1995) of CC has been developed to consider second language teaching and learning perspectives. It is a pedagogically motivated model for the preparation of language education programmes. They believe (op cit, 6) "our current effort has been motivated by our belief in the potential of a direct, explicit approach to the teaching of communicative skills, which would require a detailed description of what communicative competence entails in order to use the sub-components as a content base in syllabus design".

As regards the preceding models, they propose a more encompassing one which constitutes a pyramid enclosing a circle (figure 1.8). The circle is discourse competence while the three points of the triangle are sociocultural competence, linguistic competence and actional competence (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995:9). Citing Celce-Murcia et al. (1995:9) "our construct places the discourse component in a position where the lexico-grammatical building blocks, the actional organizing skills of communicative intent, and the sociocultural context come together and shape the discourse, which, in turn, also shapes each of the other three components".

Figure 1.8 Schematic representation of Communicative Competence



Source: Celce-Murcia et al. 1995:1

In their model, discourse competence involves the ability to select and arrange lexical items and syntactic structures in order to achieve well-performed spoken or written texts. The actional competence, however, refers to mastery of language functions such as greeting, introducing, expressing gratitude, complimenting or congratulating, accepting or declining invitations, asking and giving information, explaining and discussing information, complaining and criticising, and many others.

The sociocultural competence, on the other side, involves the ability to produce utterances which are appropriate to the sociocultural context of the communication by taking into account three types of factors: social contextual factors (e.g. participants, age, gender, distance, etc), stylistic factors (e.g. politeness conventions and strategies, degrees of formality) and cultural factors (e.g. differences and similarities in terms of usage in communicative strategies between L1 and L2).

Furthermore, the circle surrounding the pyramid constitutes strategic competence. This latter involves knowledge of communication strategies and the way they are used (e.g. avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, stalling or time-gaining strategies, self-monitoring strategies, interactional or negotiation strategies). For these scholars (1995:9) strategic competence is "an ever-present, potentially usable inventory of skills that allows a strategically competent speaker to negotiate messages and resolve problems or to compensate for deficiencies in any of the other underlying competencies".

As the preceding models of CC, the one of Celce-Murcia et al. is criticized as presenting some shortcomings. Esther Usó Juan and Alicia Martínez Flor (2006: 15) argue that their model does not give an explicit function to the four skills. Moreover, they consider strategic competence as a component having a different degree of importance to the rest of components. Nevertheless, the three presented models in this study constitute the basis of a theory of communicative competence which gives opportunity to further frameworks and development of new components with focus on developing learners CC in the language learning process.

Similarly, the present study emphasizes the fact that ESP learners expect from their teachers assistance to become professionals in the ever-increasing competitive world of international business. In this case, they need to be equipped with the necessary linguistic resources to adapt their acts and behaviour to a diversity of situations. That is knowledge of using English in the business world in an effective and an appropriate way is their target. However, this knowledge is not limited to mastery of linguistic codes of language but also to other skills and abilities. Thus, teachers must be aware of all aspects such as methodology, content and materials so as to build and assist their learners' in order to develop their pragmatic knowledge and knowledge of how to use communication strategies.

1.6.3 Learners' Acquisition of Pragmatic Knowledge

Learners must be aware of the fact that the acquisition of linguistic knowledge does not systematically match with a mastery of how to use language appropriately in a given context. Hence, they need a course that enables them to develop pragmatic competence to be effective users of the target language and avoid any pragmatic failures. Moreover, they need to be aware of how to use accurate resources to serve different speech acts in relevance to the appropriate sociocultural context. For instance, the function of apologizing can be performed through the use of different expressions, such as, 'sorry', 'excuse me', or 'it was my fault'. This means that the speaker selects the expression that fits the social context of interaction but each expression indicates different attitudes and social relationships between the participants (Bruce Fraser, 1981; Juliane House and Gabriele Kasper, 1981a; Penelope Brown & Peter Levinson, 1987;

Shoshana Blum-Kulka, House, & Gabriele Kasper, 1989, qtd in Gabriele Kasper and Kenneth R. Rose, 2001:2).

To consider the study of how people achieve their purposes and attend to interpersonal relationship through the use of the target language, Geoffrey Leech (1983) and Jenny Thomas (1981, 1983) divide pragmatics into two components: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. According to Leech (1983:10-11, qtd in Andreas H. Jucker and Irma Taavitsainen, 2010: 71) sociopragmatics refers to "more specific local conditions on language use" and pragmalinguistics "the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions". Quoting Kasper and Rose (2001: 2), "Pragmalinguistics refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. Such resources include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts". Sociopragmatics, however, involves knowledge of the use of these forms and strategies in an appropriate context such as: social power, social distance and the degree of imposition. Leech (1983:10 qtd in Jucker and Taavitsainen, op cit: 71) considers sociopragmatics as "the sociological interface of pragmatics" whereas Kasper and Rose (2001:2) "the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action." Thus, pragmalinguistics is related to grammar whereas sociopragmatics to sociology.

On the same line of thought, Canale and Swain (1980) consider pragmatic competence as a part of sociolinguistic competence that they describe as sociocultural rules of use. This means that the users of the target language should be aware of the cultural values, norms and sociocultural conventions in the social context because different situations imply different types of expressions, different beliefs, views, values, and attitudes (Yasukata Yano, 2003). Accordingly, pragmatic knowledge enables speakers to use language in different and real situations and in varying contexts to achieve specific purposes. For this reason Thomas (1983:92 qtd in Derk Köhler, 2006: 245) defines pragmatic competence as "the ability to use language effectively [and appropriately] in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context". For Celce Murcia and Elite Olshtain (2000: 20), it "is a set of internalized rules of how to use language in socioculturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in a communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction takes place."

Similarly, Bachman (1990 qtd in Maria Pilar Safont Jordá, 2003: 211) considers pragmatic competence as a main component of the global construct of CC. In his model, language knowledge (language ability) subsumes pragmatic knowledge (pragmatic competence) which defined in Bachman and Adrian Palmer words (1996:68 qtd in Scott Tornbury and Diana Slade, 2006: 187) "Pragmatic knowledge enables us to create and interpret discourse by relating utterances or sentences and texts to their meanings, to the intentions of language users, and to relevant characteristics of the language use setting".

A recent research conducted by Ionel Simona (2011) on her Romanian students of Business English at high school revealed that the students did not remember much of the topics they studied in class nor become more skilled in business communication. She realized that both students of low and high level of language proficiency were not aware of the importance of the speech acts and were not able to adapt appropriate linguistic resources to a diversity of situations. This is because the students lack pragmatic competence and its related components: pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competences.

Learners, therefore, need to be aware of the pragmatic misunderstandings (i.e. pragmatic failures) which are not judged the same way as the lexical and grammatical mistakes. Leech (2014: 262) cites Thomas (1983: 94) who views that it is reasonable "to speak of grammatical error, since grammaticality can be judged according to perspective rules (perspective for language-teaching purposes, at least), whereas pragmatic competence entails probable rather than categorical rules." Therefore, when a NNS achieves a deficit in the performance of a speech act, this refers to pragmatic failure (Leech, op cit). Citing Thomas defining pragmatic failure (1983: 91 qtd in Gila Schauer, 2009: 18) "the inability to understand 'what is meant by what is said."

On the same context, Ismail Erton (2007: 65-8) provides three aspects to shape a good pragmatic competence for the language learner. He believes that the language teacher and the learner should pay attention to design communicative activities which would help in the development of communicative competence. Moreover, the language teacher should design the course material to engage the learners in the pragmatic, coherent and functional uses of language for communicative purposes (i.e. the language course should be designed to provide learners the opportunity to learn and practice different functions of language).

Given the importance to the acquisition of pragmatic knolwdge for second and foreign language learners, a wide number of scholars have conducted studies to examine the use of particular pragmatic aspects. The findings reveal that the proficiency level is essential in the production and development of the learners' pragmatic competence (Anna Trosborg, 1987, Rod Ellis, 1992 qtd in Jordá, 2003: 112). Moreover, research in this field provides the evidence that as Jordá (op cit) citing K. Bardovi-Harling and B.S. Hartford (1990) points out "linguistic competence may not be a sufficient condition for the acquisition of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic items of the target language". This means that there is an imbalance (mismatch) between the learners' grammatical and pragmatic competence (Kasper and Richard Schmidt, 1996, Eiko Takahashi, 1996 qtd in Jordá, op cit) which results a lack of pragmatic competence at high proficiency level (Ellen Bialystok, 1993 qtd in Jordá, op cit).

In line with this, Bialystok (1993) explains this problem by suggesting a model that intends to explain the reason adult language learners may fail to produce appropriate utterances even at advanced proficiency levels. Bialystok as revealed by Jordá (op cit) argues that "adult learners may possess pragmatic knowledge but they still need to acquire how to use that knowledge and automatice it." Moreover, Kasper (1997) proposes two key conditions for pragmatic development. They are "(i) immersion in the target language culture and (ii) instruction in particular pragmatic aspects of the target language" (qtd in Jordá, 2003: 112). Thus, raising learners' awareness on developing their pragmatic knowledge may be achieved only through instruction.

In line with the intent of the present study, ESP teaching should not be limited at providing learners with the linguistic knowledge of the professional or occupational field but at giving them the opportunity to experience the language in different social contexts. It aims at developing their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competences which will enable them to be effective, fluent and successful users of English through the performance of appropriate communicative acts. Thus, ESP learners need to enlarge their knowledge of language, shape their views of the business world and avoid any pragmatic failures or communication breakdowns.

1.6.4 Learners' Use of Communication Strategies

NNSs frequently encounter problems to sustain a conversation in the target language. The source of these problems may arise from a lack of linguistic or sociolinguistic rules (Elaine Tarone, 1983) or from executing speech production plans to achieve referential, illocutionary, or relational goals (Kasper, 1997). Therefore, they use devices to overcome these problems and keep the channel open. They are known as communication strategies, *hereafter,* CS.

For instance, Pit Corder (1978, 1981) considers CS as a technique that speakers use in order to transfer meaning in case there is a difficulty in commanding the interaction. Quoting Corder (1978, 1981: 103-104 qtd in Ben Rampton, 1997:288) "A working definition of communication strategies is that they are a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty. Difficulty in this definition is taken to refer uniquely to the speakers' inadequate command of the language used in the interaction".

Canale and Swain (1980) identify CS as learners' strategic competence which contributes to the development of a complete communicative competence. On the same context, Kasper (1997: 345) believes "the ability to solve receptive and productive problems due to lack of knowledge or accessibility remains an aspect of strategic competence, it is now more generally thought of as the ability to use linguistic knowledge efficiently".

According to Rod Ellis (1997), CS are psycholinguistic plans for speech production since learners are conscious about their choice and use in case they have difficulties in executing these plans. For instance, they may avoid or substitute items or borrow a word from their L1 or from another target language that is approximate in meaning. They may also paraphrase its meaning or construct an entirely new one. Quoting Ellis

> Communication strategies are seen as a part of the planning phase. They are called upon when learners experience some kind of problem with an initial plan which prevents them from executing it. They can either abandon the initial plan and develop an entirely different one by means of a reduction strategy (such as switching to a different topic) or try to maintain their original communicative goal by adopting some kind of achievement strategy (such as borrowing). (1997: 60-61)

Similarly, Elaine Tarone and George Yule (1989:104) believe that speakers use communication strategies to solve problems encountered in the transmission of information. They list three conditions in which speakers use CS

> 1. A speaker desires to communicate a meaning *x* to a listener, and 2. the speaker believes the language form he or she wants to use to communicate meaning *x* cannot be produced, and 3. the speaker chooses to: (a) avoid (not attempt to communicate meaning x), or (b) attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x such as mime, word coinage, circumlocution, etc. (the speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems to him or her that there is shared meaning).

Consequently, three categories of CS can be distinguished, namely 1) avoidance, 2) paraphrase and 3) conscious-transfer or borrowing strategies (Tarone, 1983). Avoidance strategies include the techniques that the speaker uses in order not to refer to the target language items to convey the originally intended message. This category is subdivided into topic avoidance and message abandonment. The former is used when the speaker lacks the necessary vocabulary to refer to an object, action, or idea. The latter means that the speaker starts to talk about an idea, but stops before reaching the communicative goal, because s/he feels unable to continue.

The speaker, however, uses paraphrase strategies by developing an alternative means to convey the original message and by exploiting his or her resources in the target language. For instance the speaker can use approximation or circumlocution strategies. For Tarone and Yule (1989:111) approximation strategy means "the speaker uses a term which shares a number of semantic features with the target lexical item or structure" and circumlocution is the strategy "in which the speaker describes the properties of the target object or action (i.e. its color, size, shape, function, etc.)".

On the other side, conscious transfer or borrowing strategies involve the transfer of items from L1 to the target language to communicate the intended meaning. It can be used in two different ways: literal translation or foreignising and language switch. The former includes the use of an L1 item or structure modified in accordance with the features of the target language. The latter involves the use of the L1 item but without any modification.

In this connection, Penelope Brown and Steven C. Levinson (1987) introduce with their politeness theory another type of strategies, namely redressive strategies. They involve a set of acts which are indirectness, mitigation of face threatening acts, or aggravation of face supportive acts (Kasper, 1997). Since the speaker's purpose is to exert an influence over the hearer in order to obtain his/her intentions, the speech act of requesting has been considered as one of the most face-threatening speech acts according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. Quoting Kasper (1997: 347) "the best known theory to account for participants' solutions to multiply conflicting goals is Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987), wherein the fundamental conflict is one between efficiency (reaching actional goals at low cost and with maximal benefit) and face wants (need for social acceptance and self-determination)".

Focusing on the context of NNS' use of CS, Tarone and Yule (1987) conducted a study on strategic competence of twenty-four learners of English as a second language and nine NSs. Their study is based on the principles of task-based methodology which they believe (1989:104) "the aim of the task-based procedure is to provide a speaker with some information to convey, a listener who requires that information, and an awareness that an information gap exists". In Tarone and Yule's study, the tasks involve tape recording students while (1) describing four objects which appear one after the other, (2) giving instructions for the assembly of an apparatus, and (3) narrating a story by reporting actions taking place in a classroom scene (Tarone and Yule, 1989:105). In the performance of these tasks, the researchers witnessed a great deal of variability in the linguistic means used by both NNSs and NSs to realize the act of reference. Moreover, the learners (native and non natives) sometimes used the same range of referring expressions and other times each group employed different ranges.

As regards the performance of the tasks, learners succeeded to communicate the intended message even if they did not use accurate linguistic forms. This means they have been strategically able "to select an effective means of performing communicative act, as in referring to an entity" (Tarone and Yule, 1989:105). Quoting the scholars (op cit: 105) "Clearly, individuals may be able to successfully to communicate their intended meanings without necessarily demonstrating accuracy in the linguistic form of the target language". The scholars also observed that non native speakers tend to use "the strategy of over-elaboration" (1989:107) which includes giving more detail about the referent in order to be sure that the message is well received (speaker 10 in *annex 1* p136). The Figure in annex 1 contains an example of a task on the description of an armchair in which learners provided variable answers and employed over-elaboration strategy.

In line with Tarone and Yule's study, Blum Kulka and Olshtain (1986) describe the phenomenon of over-elaboration as "over-informativeness". They consider it as a sign of learners' general lack of confidence in their communicative competence. They believe (op cit: 176 qtd in Tarone and Yule, 1989:107) "the less confident you are that you can get the meaning across, the more words and contextual information you use".

Regarding the purpose of the present study, the ESP teacher's objective is to provide learners' with the linguistic resources they need to use communication strategies in order to be effective in performing communicative tasks (Tarone and Yule, 1989:110). For Eric Kellerman (1991: 158) "teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves" (qtd in Rampton, 1997:280). Quoting Tarone and Yule

> The pedagogical goal must therefore be to teach students not only those simple nominal expressions which they are likely to need in referring to entities in particular areas of knowledge (for example, the terms for items of equipment in a university physics laboratory to students who are engineering majors) but also to equip them with the linguistic resources they need to use communication strategies-for example, to construct more complex nominals when they do not

> know the desired simpler expression. We would hope to provide students with enough of these linguistic resources so that they can perform communicative tasks with the same degree of success as reasonably competent native speakers. (1989:110)

Finally, the widespread debate about the constitutive parts of CC has, on the one hand, contributed to the improvement of syllabus design procedures or language assessment approaches. On the other hand, it has structured and raised the ESP teachers' awareness to think of the choices and decisions about the teaching methodology, materials and in-class activities that can help their learners develop pragmatic and strategic competences in the target language. Learners, therefore, need to acquire ability on adapting their acts and behavior to a diversity of situations. Moreover, they need to acquire language proficiency in order to become skillful and professional users of the target language.

1.7 Conclusion

Because learners need to be professional users and successful communicators in their field of work, the aim of the ESP teaching focuses on the needs of learners to provide them with the required content so as to develop the necessary language competence skills (Bachman, 1990). Hence, the ESP course must be designed on the basis of the analysis of the target and present situation needs and the evaluation of the teaching materials as to its adequacy to the learners' specialty. The principle of adopting pragmatic perspectives for developing learners' competence in ESP is a fundamental aspect to enlarge their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of the target language use.

Given the different fields of learners' specialty, subfields of ESP developed among which business English which itself differs from one group of learners to the other on the basis of their needs, wants and lacks. And, thus some require developing the language of presentations, others the language of persuasion and stills others the language of negotiations. So to speak, learners need specific business communication skills corresponding to the activities within their occupation domain. It is for this very reason that the next chapter is concerned with business English with an emphasis on the business negotiations.

Chapter two
Business English and Business Negotiation

2.1 Introduction

Further to the professional requirements of employees, multinational companies ponder the English language competence within the domain of business English a very important asset necessary to conduct their business activities satisfactorily. The objective behind the English skills with particular emphasis on English for specific business purposes is to conduct successful and effective international business communication. It is for this very reason that non native speakers at different job hierarchies became aware of the necessity to master English as a medium of business communication, particularly the language of negotiations, to stand for a better chance in their job carrier.

This chapter, then, is concerned with English for specific business purposes and the need of NNSs job-experienced learners of Business English, *hereafter* BE, to develop language competence in order to be effective negotiators.

2.2 Business English

The term BE is difficult to define within a linguistic perspective. However, most definitions of BE consider it as a variety of ESP and an umbrella branch of English for occupational purposes (EOP) (Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson, 1994; Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie. Jo St John, 1998). Ellis and Johnson, (1994:3) view that "BE must be seen in the overall context of ESP, as it shares the important elements of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design and materials selection and development". They add (op cit) that "Business English implies the definition of a specific language corpus and emphasis on particular kinds of communication in a specific context."

In this line, Dudley-Evans and St John (1996: 1) see BE as a branch of ESP requiring "the careful research and design of pedagogical materials and activities for an identifiable group of adult learners within a specific learning context." Elena Bosh Abarca (2010: 101) cites St John (1996) who considers BE as the growth area in ESP and more specifically EOP (English for occupational purposes) covering courses for pre-experience learners and job-experienced ones. Moreover, BE is an approach to teaching English to NNSs that Marlene Ringler (1997:1 qtd in Bosch Abarca, 2010:104) defines as people "who wish to improve their level of fluency or purposes of greater language functionality in specific areas of business life including technology, marketing, manufacturing, management, finance and business services". Hence, a BE curriculum may include topics dealing with areas such as negotiations, meetings, presentations, socializing and writing discourse. In general, BE is concerned with adult learners working or preparing to work in a business context and who need English for professional purposes (EPP) (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1996). On this line of thought Sylvie Donna (2000: 2)

> Teaching Business English involves teaching English to adults working in businesses of one kind or another, or preparing to work in the field of business. The businesses could be large multinationals (such as Procter & Gamble), small private companies or even state-run concerns involved with providing products or services. Classes may be taught in-company or in a language school or other rented premises.

BE is characterized by its context, content as well as learners. According to Ellis and Johnson (1994: 3), "Business English differs from other varieties of ESP in that it is often a mix of specific content (relating to a particular job area or industry), and general content (relating to general ability to communicate more effectively), albeit in business situations." It is a mixture of general everyday English, general business English, and ESP. Citing Bosch Abarca (2010:100) "The term [BE] can be used to describe courses that range from an essentially English for General English business course that includes the teaching of some business lexis, to very specific courses, either in particular skills such as participating in or chairing, or report writing, or in particular disciplines such as finance or marketing." In other words, some BE courses emphasize the teaching of the vocabulary related to fields such as commerce, trade, finance and economy, some of them focus on the language needed for workplace communication skills such as meetings, negotiations, presentations or written correspondence, and others on communication topics such as marketing, corporate communication, interpersonal communication, and many others. In line with this, Maggie Jo St John (1996:4)

> There is further proliferation of terms within Business English; some focus on people, some on purpose and some on jobs. So you may hear of English for Professionals, English for Professional Purposes, English for Secretaries or Secretarial English. More interesting is the choice between using the terms commerce, business, management, professional or executive.

Generally, BE involves work-related English language courses which are designed and tailored to meet the specific learners' needs and context requirements. For this reason, BE teachers' basic concern is to design an efficient, effective and relevant course that is tailor-made to meet learners' professional needs. A tailor-made course will bring positive outcome in terms of learners' involvement in the course, their motivation, learner / teacher partnership for content resources, and achievement of teaching / learning objectives. Nigel Reeves and Collin Wright (1996: 5) list some benefits of tailor-made courses:

- The language is immediately useful and so the effort has an immediate reward and motivation can remain high.
- The teacher and the taught are able to work together as professionals to provide the skills element and the content element of the course in partnership, with the result that the feelings of inadequacy on the part of the learner (so painful for professionals!) are lessened and the language teacher's sense of ignorance about the learner's area of expertise is reduced.
- Setting limited objectives which are realistic (but challenging) means that they will be achieved and that the learner can progress step by step.

Thus, a BE course which aims at developing generalized or specific business skills, relates to learners' expectations or to their sponsors' (Sylvie Donna, 2000: 2). For this reason a needs analysis process is a prerequisite for the BE course design that meets learners language needs. As Donna (op cit) notes "investigating, analysing and fulfilling Business English students' needs is, in fact, so important for the success of any Business English course…"

2.2.1 Needs Analysis: The Case of Business English

BE relates to students' or sponsors' occupational and professional language needs. In similar ways as ESP, the BE course is preceded by the needs analysis process. This latter is a large scale needs analysis known as language audit, *henceforth* LA, which is fulfilled at the level of companies. Given a great importance before the BE course design, language audits according to Evan Frendo (2005: 15) "can be designed to look at an organization and work out its strength is and weaknesses in terms of communication in English." On the other side, Marjatta Huhta, Karin Vogt and Heikki Tulkki (2013: 22) note that "language audits represent a special type of needs analysis because they are typically carried out within a particular company or organisation and therefore focus on features that are institutionally specific." On the primary objective of language audits, Reeves and Wright point out

> The primary objective of a language or 'linguistic' audit is to help the management of a firm identify the strengths and weaknesses of their organisation in terms of communication in foreign languages. It will map the current capability of departments, functions and people against the identified need. It will establish that need at the strategic level, at the process (or operational/ departmental) level and at that of the individual postholders. (1996:5)

Language Audits are concerned with collecting and examining critically information about the learners' target situation and present situation. Six stages of language auditing are distinguished : a)"initiating the audit", b) " integrating the audit in the planning process", c) "understanding how the organisation works", d) "analysing postholders' foreign language use and needs", e) "assessing postholders' foreign language skills" , and f) "reporting back". (Reeve and Wright op cit: 5-6). In this line, Adrian Pilbeam (1979) as cited by Dudley-Evans and St John (1996:2) suggests that language audit should be concerned with the establishment of two profiles: "a target profile of language skills" and "a profile of personal ability". As both scholars explain (op cit), the former is a profile of the actual activities that have to be performed by the participants, and the latter involves an evaluation of the participants' proficiency in performing those activities. Thus, the LA enables the BE teacher to manage the language course time to assure a connectivity and balance between both profiles by making a clear distinction between the types of needs.

To obtain reliable data, questionnaires, interviews and observations are the most useful means for needs analysis and language audits. For instance, in one-to-one situation, the auditor (EBP teacher or trainer) can obtain data through interviews and discussions with the learners. However, in group situation, he or she might gather data through the completion of short forms and provided documents from the company or the organization. Another alternative is that the teacher can determine the needs by providing activities in which the learners may interview each other about their job tasks and language needs (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). In this case, the auditor will have a deep insight on the language use and needs of the company employees in order to be able to establish a training syllabus on the basis of the obtained results.

Bosch Abarca (2010: 102) reveals that some surveys conducted by Scholars (B. Holden, 1993; Yin. K.M & Wong, I.A 1990) as well as a Malaysian Polytechnic Survey believe that business communication skills are highly required in professional settings. Holden lists the following language areas: "presentations, negotiations, telephoning, writing reports, writing business letters, taking part in meetings, trade shows and overseas training, making sales calls, entertaining clients or colleagues, explaining technical processes, and conducting tours of facilities." The list reveals how important the speaking skill is. However the survey conducted by Yin and Wong (1990) with practising accountants and lecturers in accounting shows a balance between the written and oral skills (see table below).

Table 2.1 Yin and Wong's list of tasks and skills for accountants

Tasks and Skills for Accountants	
Business meetings	Chairing and participating in meetings, writing agendas and minutes
Face-to-face interaction	Disciplining, appraising, getting information, counselling
Business reports	Investigating problems, evaluating alternatives, proposing solutions
Research techniques	Information gathering, drawing up surveys and questionnaires
Graphic aids	Selecting/designing forms to best represent quantitative data
Business memos/letters	Inquiring, informing, selling
Oral presentations	Short individual speeches, team presentations, selling ideas/services

Source: Dudley-Evans and St John, 1996: 3

The survey carried out on polytechnic students, employers and polytechnic graduates lists the four skills activities which are necessary to develop (see table 2.2 in *annex 2* p137). As far as this survey is concerned, Dudley-Evans & St John (1996:3) argues "this survey is the closest in its aims to the ideas of the Language Audit …, as well as listing the tasks required, it assesses the students' actual ability to carry out the tasks."

In general, BE is characterized by the emphasis on training learners to become effective users of English in relation to the job tasks they are required to perform in their workplace. Thus, BE learners need to focus on developing their language competence and on acquiring the necessary tools in terms of business vocabulary, concepts and terms in order to improve their communicative fluency.

2.2.2 Business English Learners

Many scholars identify different categories of learners in terms of the variable aspects of BE related to different students' needs. For instance, Pauline Robinson (1991: 3-4 qtd in Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:6) distinguishes between three categories of learners under the branch of EOP, namely 'pre-experience', 'simultaneous or in service' and 'post-experience learners'. Ellis and Johnson (1994) identify two varieties of BE learners: 'pre-experience' or 'low-experience' and 'job-experienced learners'. However, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 55) suggest a division of BE into 'English for General Business Purposes', (*hereafter;* EGBP), and 'English for Specific Business Purposes', (*hereafter;* ESBP). Consequently, EGBP courses are designed for pre-experience or low-experience learners whereas ESBP courses are run for job-experienced learners.

Since the present study emphasizes the needs of job experienced learners and their needs concerning the language of negotiation, it will be useful to understand the profile of this category.

Opened to the world market due to globalization, Algeria has always targeted foreign partnerships in the different fields of commerce and industry aiming at promoting long term business relationships. In order to achieve this objective, company staff at all levels of management (top management, senior management and crew leaders) need to fill the necessary linguistic and professional criteria to be at the advance of the company requirements. This necessitates training on the use of English in specific business communication skills such as negotiations, meetings, and presentations in terms of discourse and communication strategies manipulation. This staff which are university graduates with different specialties (management, engineering, finance, economy) are experts of the work field as well as business communication. As to the intent of the present study, the BE teacher has to take into consideration the immediate needs of this category of learners in order to design a training course that fits their expectations.

ESBP courses destined to job experienced learners are frequently of an intensive case organized for small groups either in language schools or in company. In case of in-company training, the courses are ensured by trainers or part time hired teachers. The objectives of ESBP courses are determined in collaboration including everyone involved in the learning / teaching process (teacher, learner and sponsors or company). They must be based on presentation and practice in accuracy and fluency with materials in which "settings and carrier content are mainly taken from the learners' own business contexts" (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 56).

For Ellis and Johnson, though job–experienced learners have a single set of needs relating to their job, they may need English for a new job or a situation which they haven't yet experienced in the case of moving job or yet. Quoting them

> …, one overriding characteristic of Business English for job-experienced learners will still apply: the need to be pragmatic. The practical *use* of the language will be more important than theoretical knowledge *about* the language. The employee who has been selected for a new job or a new project will have to be able to manage in spite of his or her incomplete knowledge or inadequate skills, and providing strategies for coping will be an essential feature of a language course for such a person. (1994:6)

2.2.3 Teaching Materials

To the light of the ESBP teaching materials, in the late 1980's and with the ongoing changes that the world of business has always witnessed, companies started to provide training programmes to its employees in presentation techniques, negotiating, and effective meeting skills. Hence, BE witnessed the publication of many textbooks which emphasized the need to develop these business skills in order to be proficient in using them in real situations, such as The Longman Business English Series, ed. Pilbeam, York associates, Utley, and The Prentice Hall Business Management Series, Brieger and Comfort.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1996:24) consider that these textbooks seem to represent an accepted current practice which is specific to business English. For them (op cit) "The materials stem directly from the teaching needs and experiences of these practitioners with a range of clients, and seem to represent an accepted current practice more than a particular theoretical construct specific only to business English".

According to Ellis and Johnson (1994:115), the choice of materials should be made on the basis of three criteria: (1) the language (vocabulary, structures and functions) must fit in with the learners' needs, existing knowledge, and capacity for learning, (2) the choice of the materials has implications for the methods and techniques by which the learners will learn, and (3) the subject or content of the materials must be relevant to the learners' context in order to be a source of motivation. However, with the variety of published BE textbooks that are available on the market, the BE trainer needs to bear in mind the appropriateness of methodology and content to the learners' needs because certain materials which are suitable in one situation (i.e. Non-specific needs) may not in another (i.e. Specific needs). Citing Ellis and Johnson (op cit)

> It must be borne in mind, though, that publishers aim to reach the widest possible market. Trying to meet the needs of the majority usually means that only some of the needs of an individual are satisfied: specific needs cannot be addressed. In situations where a group of learners is relatively heterogeneous and the objectives for learning are non-specific, then a published Business English coursebook may well provide an effective core of material for a course, provided that its level and methodology are appropriate. An individual, or a homogeneous group with specific needs, will also require supplementary materials which trainers may wish to develop and tailor to learners' needs themselves.

As regards the published materials that are available to the business English trainer, Ellis and Johnson (op cit, 117) distinguish two categories, namely (1) Business English materials and (2) business skills training materials. The first category consists of materials that can be based on structural, functional or situational syllabus aiming at the teaching of English in a business context. It includes 'general business coursebook packages', 'supplementary materials', 'job-specific materials', and 'self-access materials'. The second category of materials aims at the business skills training and is not specifically designed for the teaching of language. As noted by Ellis and Johnson (op cit: 122) “these materials are created and designed by people with a lot of business and business training experience. The target skills and practices have been carefully researched and the contexts in which the training points are presented have a high credibility.” Thus, the factor on which a book is selected should relate to the role it is required to fulfill, as a coursebook, a supplementary material, a job-specific material or other.

One important thing to consider is that the fast moving global marketplace puts emphasis on learning appropriate business skills and language for successful business communication. Developing the negotiation skills is becoming one of the most important worries of job-experienced learners and an important component within the business English course.

2.3 Business Negotiation: Definition and Characteristics

As to the effect of globalization on the world countries and the expansion of English as a lingua franca, the last 20 years has witnessed a growing interest in the language used to conduct business negotiations. This interest has increased the importance of language study by the emergence of business discourse as an identifiable field of study. Quoting Sandra Harris and Francesca Bargiela-Chiappini (1997:1)

> Practitioners as well as academics have clearly begun to recognise that ‘talk’ in its broadest sense is central to the conduct of business at all levels and that there are in existence a number of definable sub-generic types of business discourse, e.g. negotiations, meetings, service encounters, some of which have been studied much more frequently and intensively than others (negotiations) and from different perspectives.

In this connection, Johannes Wagner and Konrad Ehlich (1995: 1) believe that this growing interest in business negotiation originates from at least three interrelated perspectives: “the practitioners”, “the novices” and “the researchers”. For the practitioners, the interest is in getting feedback for the evaluation of their professional communication skills, while the novices are interested in getting support for their training in becoming effective negotiators. The researchers, however, consider the field of business negotiation an interesting example of verbal interaction from theoretical and practical point of view. Yet, few studies of business negotiation analyses as a specific type of discourse have been published because researchers are committed to the use of real language data as the basis for research (Harris and Bargiela-Chiappini, 1997:3). Nonetheless, certain studies approach the business negotiations through the analyses of the verbal activities of negotiators either from real-life situations or training contexts (Wagner and Ehlich, 1995).

Given an importance to business negotiation, an insight to some scholars' definitions needs some consideration. Many scholars defined negotiation and carried out linguistic research to analyze native and non native cross-cultural business negotiations so that to use the results as resources for pedagogical practice. For instance, Johannes Wagner (1995) defines negotiation in terms of interrelated and mutual goal and control leading the participants to cooperate to reach an agreement. According to Wagner (op cit: 11) the accepted definitional core which describes most of negotiation settings consists of three elements

a. A negotiation is the interaction of two (or more) parties, which optimises their mutual goals. Each party wants to realise its own goals in the best possible way. Neither of the two parties is able to reach its goals alone, because the goals are to some extent controlled by the other side. This means that both parties need to cooperate.
b. During the negotiation, each party modifies its own goals and coordinates them with the modified goals of the other party. In this sense, a negotiation is a strategic interaction.
c. Both parties know that the other party has goals to reach. In this sense, negotiations are exchange relations. Both parties exchange the possibility of realising their own goals. The negotiation defines the conditions for exchange.

Other scholars consider negotiation as a genre of discussion and as a process which involves the use of strategies that targets interests, objectives, agreement, dependence, and benefits of the participants (Jan Ulijn, 1995). Quoting Jan Ulijn and Judith B. Strother (1995 qtd in Jan. M. Ulijn and Maurits. J. Verweij, 2000: 222) "Negotiation has been defined as a process of mutual dependence in which two or more entities discuss common and (apparently) different interests and objectives in order to reach an agreement or a compromise (contract), because they see benefits in doing so". Similarly, Anne Laws (2000) views negotiating as a process of communicating to reach a consensus about something. Citing Laws (opcit: 1) "Negotiating involves two or more individuals or groups of people communicating with each other, hoping to reach an agreement about something". The process of negotiating, therefore, is usually related to the fields of business and commerce. Consequently, many aspects of work and business communication involve negotiating in which the interactants try to reach a mutually satisfactory agreement whether they have some differing or shared interests and goals (Almut Koester, 2004: 57). On the same context, Evan Frendo (2005) views that negotiating is concerned with people meeting for bargaining in order to obtain a compromise about something, find a conflict resolution, or get mutual interests. This skill requires a language use which must fit the context of interaction and is the same used for the business communication skills: socializing and meeting. Quoting Frendo (opcit: 76)

> Negotiation is about bargaining with another party to get something we want. Sometimes compromise will be necessary. Sometimes one side has all the power and can call the shots. Sometimes there will be conflict, and sometimes clear mutual interests. Negotiations are, in effect, nothing more than a special form of meeting, and so much of the language used in similar to that discussed in the previous section [socializing].

Xiangling Li (1999: 18) cites Linda. L Putnam and Tricia Jones (1982b) who view that negotiation can be defined as a process of a give-and-take interaction to reach a mutually acceptable solution. This means that parties "must cooperate to reach individual goals while they simultaneously compete with one another of [perceived] divergent interest" (Putnam, 1989: 176 qtd in Xiangling Li op cit). Paul Steele and Tom Beasor (1999: 3), on the other hand, see negotiation as "a process through which parties move from their initially divergent positions to a point where agreement may be reached." Thus, negotiation is a social interaction which implies that parties communicate a given message to reach a specific purpose. This communicative event involves as Claude Cellich and Subhash Jain (2012: 3) note "*parties* (i.e., persons with a common interest to deal with one another), *issues* (i.e., one or more matters to be resolved), *alternatives* (i.e., choices available to negotiators for each issue to be resolved), *positions* (i.e., defined response of the negotiator on a particular issue: what you want and why you want it) and *interest* (i.e., a negotiator's underlying needs)."

Dudley-Evans and St John (1996) view negotiation as a speaking communicative genre because its purpose is communicating to convey a specific and a clear message. For them (op cit: 8) "Negotiation does, however, have a clear communicative purpose and can be considered a genre on its own right". They (op cit: 9) believe that business negotiation as a speaking communicative genre "has become the focus of extensive research, both from the point of view of language and discourse and also from the perspective of business management strategies". On the same context, Mirjaliisa Charles' work (1994) is considered to be the most interesting work in the genre analysis of negotiation (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1996: 9). Charles' investigation involves NS-NS negotiation in the native language in Britain and Finland in which linguistic and business relationship analyses were carried out about sales negotiations. Charles finds that business relationship affects the discourse of negotiations (i.e. new relationship negotiations (NRNs) and old relationship negotiations ORNs). That is it becomes meaningful through the business relationship within which it is produced (qtd in Dudley-Evans and St John, 1996:10).

In fact, effective negotiation requires clear thinking and a constructive approach because it is an interaction which involves an exchange of information about each party's interests, goals, expectations, strengths and weaknesses. An effective and a strategic negotiator implies knowledge of all negotiation styles in order to make the choice of approach. Thus, it is important to understand other aspects of the negotiation such as the phases, skills, language and strategies used in the whole process.

2.3.1 Styles

The process of negotiating involves five styles or so-called approaches, namely the competing, the accommodating, the collaborating, the avoiding and the compromising (Volkema. J. Roger, 1999: 60-64). The competing style or the win-lose approach is based on getting fast outcomes rather than building relationship. The accommodating style or the win-lose approach, however, is based on preserving harmonic relationships between parties. The collaborating style or the win-win approach is based on trust and collaborative effort for achieving mutual goals that satisfy both parties. The avoiding style or the lose-lose approach is applied as a defense against the competing style to avoid conflict between both parties. Finally, the compromising style or the partial win- partial lose approach refers to bargaining between parties which know and trust each other. For Richard Daft

> *The avoiding* style, … , is appropriate when an issue is trivial, when there is no chance of winning, when a delay to gather more information is needed, or when a disruption would be costly. *The compromising* style is appropriate when the goals on both sides want to split the difference, or when people need to arrive at temporary or expedient solutions under time pressure. *The accommodating* style reflects a high degree of cooperativeness, which works best when people realize that they are wrong, when an issue is more important to others than to oneself, when building social credits for use in later discussions, or when maintaining cohesiveness is especially important. *The collaborating* style enables both parties to win, although it may require substantial dialogue and negotiation. (2008: 315)

Two types of negotiation are distinguished: distributive and integrative. They differ in the kind of negotiators' relationships and the strategies that are used to reach agreement. The distributive negotiation or also called the win-lose negotiation is based on the competing style (e.g. a contractual dispute) whereas the integrative type or also called the win-win negotiation or the agreement-based negotiation involves making proposals and counterproposals which are discussed until agreement is reached (Simon Sweeney, 1997: 105).

2.3.2 Phases

As regards the negotiation structure, six phases are distinguished, namely "preparation, establishing rapport, discussion, proposals, bargaining, and settlement" (Laws, 2000: 5). Each phase is characterized by the application of different skills and the use of different aspects of language (Laws, opcit: 5). Citing Laws (op cit). "Language is a very important aspect of negotiation and many business people of all nationalities have to negotiate in English. It is useful to think about the language that you will need for each phase of a negotiation". Thus, the application of these stages requires from the negotiator a good level in English (intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced) with a good mastery of all linguistic and business skills.

The preparation phase or pre-negotiation phase (Cellich and Jain, 2012: 68) includes the following sequential procedure: (1) Defining the issues (i.e., price, commission, duration of agreement, one's tangible and intangible goals), (2) Knowing the other party's position (i.e., information gathering about negotiators, company, department, cultural background, personal characteristics, country and the interests from the negotiation), (3) Knowing the competition (i.e., identifying the relevant strengths and weaknesses of the third party), (4) Knowing the negotiations limits (i.e., determining the Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement, the bottom line) (5) Developing strategies and tactics (i.e., selecting the negotiation approach), and (6) Planning the negotiation meeting (i.e., planning the agenda, choosing the meeting site, setting the schedule and deciding the order of formal introductions) (Cellich and Jain, op cit: 68-86).

The establishing rapport or the relationship building phase involves (a) welcoming visitors or responding to a welcome, (b) introducing each other, and (c) having a small talk (Laws, 2000: 28). This phase requires knowledge of the socializing or relationship building skill (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) which involves the use of general everyday English. The discussion phase, however, is based on discussing and understanding the purpose of the meeting and each party's interests with an agreement on the negotiation agenda. This stage requires mastery of listening and speaking skills because it is important to listen carefully and understand the other party's interests and objectives in order to take part in the discussion.

The proposals phase is concerned with finding ways to overcome the obstacles by putting forward a proposal and / or a counter proposal until an agreement is reached, and making concessions. In this phase negotiators need to use diplomatic language and avoid blunt language in order to prevent misunderstanding and negotiation breakdown. This phase also requires mastery of the listening skill because the other side may use a verbal sign to show a willingness to make a concession, such as 'We don't normally enter joint ventures', the word 'normally' is a verbal sign which means that this is not their normal practice and they might make an exception in this case. Thus, careful listening is required to identify the other party's signals and to be able to react to them positively (Laws, 2000: 55).

The bargaining or the trading phase involves making offers and conditions, and questioning. This stage requires flexibility and firmness concerning position and basic interests. Therefore, two approaches are used: linking offers to conditions and asking hypothetical questions (Laws, op cit: 58). The former involves the use of conditional language before the offer, such as, 'If you were prepared to increase the offer to three million, we could go along with that'. The latter, however, includes asking hypothetical questions to invite the other party to make a concession in return, such as, 'What if I were to / What would you say if I were to offer you more money to finish the project quickly?'

Finally, the settlement phase involves (a) recognizing and saying that an agreement has been reached, (b) checking that all points have been included, and (c) understanding and summarizing all the details of the agreement. This final stage includes mastery of both speaking and listening skills because one party will summarize and paraphrase everything that has been agreed on during the meeting. For example, the following utterances may feature a negotiation process,

"Let's just summarize our agreement".
"You have agreed to meet all the development costs for the new project",
"We will be responsible for the day to day expenses of the staff involved",
"I'd like to thank you all for coming",
"I think it's been a really useful meeting"
"We'll send a written summary of our agreement within a few days",
"So, we'll look forward to seeing you",
"Thank you for coming. Goodbye",
or simply "Thank you very much,
or "I hope you'll have a good journey back" (Laws, 2004:77-8).

2.3.3 Skills and Language

As regards the language of negotiation, a good performance requires knowledge and ability to put it into practice appropriately and effectively. That is for competitive or cooperative reasons, job-experienced learners need to improve their negotiation skills and their language ability in order to become proficient users of English at work. A negotiation, therefore, is a kind of situation where speaking and listening skills are required within the real time of the communicative event since participants have to perform the roles of listeners and speakers (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:105). According to Dudley-Evans and St John (op cit), this situation refers to "spoken interaction" for which three aspects are considered, namely 1) active listening, 2) questioning and 3) turn taking. Quoting both scholars "We shall use the term 'spoken interaction' to cover situations where both these skills [speaking and listening] are employed, where to say the right thing in an appropriate way require good listening skills as well as speaking skills" (opcit: 105-06).

Besides, the language plays an important role in the negotiating process. For instance, the use of diplomatic language or the way to ask questions is an important vehicle for a good ongoing of the negotiation. This means that an effective negotiator should know how to express ideas and opinions positively in order to satisfy the interests of both parties, thus, "a skillful negotiator uses diplomatic language" (Laws, 204: 118). On the same line of thought, Julio Giménez (2006: 295) suggests that "it is advisable to avoid obscure (culture-bound and experience-laden) meanings and concentrate on plain language that emphasises a positive approach and a co-operative attitude."

2.3.3.1 Active Listening

Good listening or active listening is so imperative in business communication that scholars consider as both a skill and an art (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:106). However, it is a neglected area in BE since so much effort is concentrated on making BE learners able to communicate either in speaking or writing. J. Giménez argues

> Many communication trainers and courses have conventionally focused on improving learners' ability to transmit information more effectively. The emphasis on what is normally called "productive skills" has overridden the importance of other skills like listening. This has been reinforced by the name "receptive" or "passive" skills other than speaking and writing have traditionally been given. (2006: 295)

Active listening involves paraphrasing and summarizing the message heard, and understanding body language. Therefore, it includes the mastery of the speaking skill because it is required from the speaker to listen and understand the message in order to interact appropriately with the listener. According to Roger Fisher and William Ury (1991:21), "active listening improves not only what you hear, but also what they say". For this reason a skillful negotiator must pay attention and occasionally interrupt the other side to say, "Did I understand correctly that you are saying that...?" (Fisher and Ury, op cit) As a result, the other party will feel the satisfaction of being heard and understood. Citing both scholars (op cit), "It has been said that the cheapest concession you can make to the other side is to let them know they have been heard".

In general, Fisher and Ury (op cit) suggest standard techniques of good listening which are "to pay close attention to what is said, to ask the other party to spell out carefully and clearly exactly what they mean, and to request that ideas be repeated if there is any ambiguity and uncertainty." Thus, it is important to show the other party that you understand them, e.g., "Let me see whether I follow what you are telling me. From your point of view, the situation looks like this...." (op cit).

Another important criterion to characterize good listening is understanding body language. In all cultures people interpret body movements, gestures and eye contacts differently from others. For example, in western cultures, when the other person looks down and does not look at you, this might mean that s/he is not interested in what you are saying, whilst, in some eastern cultures this is a sign of respect. By way of illustrating, the significance of the aspects of positive and negative body language, gesturing and mirroring in cross-cultural negotiation is provided.

For example in western cultures, leaning forward and sitting upright when listening to the other party might mean being confident and interested in the discussion, but folding arms across the chest and sitting upright or leaning backwards might mean the person is defensive and may not like the discussion. In some eastern cultures nodding the head means disagreement and shaking it means agreement but in other cultures this means the opposite. A smile, for example, might be a sign of satisfaction in western cultures but in Asian cultures, a smile is a sign of potential problem (Ron Scollon and Suzanne Scollon, 1995 qtd in Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:106). Quoting Laws (2000:100), "If you are going to negotiate with people from a completely different culture, it is sensible to find out about any potential differences in body language".

As regards the aspect of gesturing, negotiators may exaggerate in their gestures, for instance, they might wave arms in the air, point at something with a finger, or even hit the table with the fist. These exaggerated gestures should be avoided because they can be alarming and may be offensive in the culture of the other party. However, a person may copy another one's body movement or position. This behavior which is called mirroring might mean that the person would like to be a friend and have a positive negotiating environment (Laws, 2000: 98). Consequently, an effective and strategic negotiator should be sensible on the aspect of body movements and its relationship with culture so that the message might be understood correctly by both parts.

2.3.3.2 Questioning

Focusing on the purpose of teaching and learning the language of negotiations, questioning is the other skill and art which characterizes the effectiveness of a spoken interaction. As it has been seen in the negotiation phases, asking and responding questions are a powerful means to control a negotiation. This implies the use of a variety of language structures in order to help the discussion to progress, and the negotiators to receive more clarification or information to understand the other.

Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) view that ESP teaching does not emphasize the questions format but the response to these questions. Consequently, four categories of response-questions are distinguished, namely "closed, limited, open" and "probing response-questions". Table 2.3 contains the four categories with examples for each one.

Table 2.3 Response-Question Categories

Category	**Structure**	**Example**
Closed	Yes/ No	Q: *Do* you intend to increase your production rate? R: Yes / No / I don't know.
Open	Wh + Aux. + inversion+ V of emotion /expansion	Q: *How do you think* we can deal with that problem? *Requires providing detailed information.*
Limited	Wh + Aux. + inversion	Q: *When* can we expect our first delivery? *Requires giving specific information*.
Probing	*Could you tell me…?* *What do you mean when you say that …?*	*What do you mean when you say* our service has been unreliable? *Requires finding out more about the other's party's views and opinions.*

Adapted from Anne Laws, 2000

2.3.3.3 Turn Taking

Turn taking and controlling are one of the most important issues of discussion in business negotiation because non native speakers often complain from the fact that they do not know when to enter and take turn in formal discussions in meetings (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). For this reason, it is significant to consider the aspect of turn taking since effective negotiators need to be aware and develop turn taking skills in multi-person spoken interactions in order to learn the language of negotiation.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 110) view turn taking as a matter of being able to: (1) recognize the speaker's signal when ready to finish the turn and handover the floor to another speaker in case there were not any nominations. For this reason, a good listening to some clues is required, such as "syntactic clues" (i.e., utterances that mean he is ending his speech), "phonological clues" (i.e., a drop in pitch), or "non-verbal clues" (i.e., movement or eye-contact). (2) Anticipate the speaker's conclusion and gain entry by completing it through the use of gambits such as "can I make a point here?" or "Madam chair", and, (3) handle the turn effectively by controlling the speaking time and preventing any interruptions except the contributions which provide supportive ideas. These constitute the skills to be developed for an effective business communication in business English.

2.3.3.4 Diplomatic Language

When a negotiator uses diplomatic language, this means s/he looks for reaching an agreement that satisfies both parties at the end of the meeting. Hence, it is important to: (a) Use positive language in order to encourage the other party to accept your suggestions or make suggestions to reach an agreement at the end, such as "That would be very difficult for us to accept. Let me make an alternative suggestion" rather than "Your suggestion is totally out of the question. I cannot accept that". (b) Avoid blunt language because it refers to rudeness and unfriendliness, such as "Could you explain that a little more fully, please?" instead of "I think you should explain". (c) Avoid making accusations even if you have the feeling of being confused or worried by what the other party is saying, for example "I'm a bit confused about this" instead of "This is very confusing", and (d) help the other party to imagine an outcome by making suggestions or asking for opinions, such as "What would happen if we were to extend the deadline?" (The examples are qtd in Laws, 2000:119-25).

In fact, a proficient language use [negotiating] implies the mastery of the negotiation language and the language skills involving active listening and speaking, questioning, and turn taking which have an influence on the business outcome. For this reason, the acquisition of these requires preparation and research from the BE practitioner. Moreover, an awareness of people's attitudes and cultural values such as understanding their body language to avoid any misunderstanding or offense is a prerequisite in teaching the language of negotiation, thus, developing learners' intercultural competence and their ability to use communication strategies in negotiation.

2.4 Effective Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation is a strategic interaction for which different strategies can be distinguished because it involves different types and approaches. For example, in the win-lose negotiation, the interactants are competitive, confrontational, defensive and self-interested, so it involves hard bargaining and applying pressure to gain control and win the deal. However, in the win-win negotiation, the interactants are collaborative because they look for a long term sensitive relationship and future collaboration. Thus, "One of the key skills of any negotiator is the ability to recognize potential for moving away from a win-lose situation to win-win" (Evan Frendo, 2005: 77).

2.5 Non Native Speakers and Cross-Cultural Negotiation

Given importance to the issue of cross-cultural business communication within the present study, negotiation as a process of communication includes people from different cultures and with different views who communicate and exchange thoughts and opinions. Moreover, they look for mutual benefits that fit their needs and perspectives before they can reach an agreement. Hence, their success or failure is determined by the understanding and the interpretation of each others' behavior and language which varies with their cultural backgrounds. Giménez points out

> The fact that language is a critical component of international business communication has received increasing acknowledgement in several disciplines. It is also now more widely recognised that language that tends to be more colourful and metaphorical is more likely to lead to misinterpretations and misunderstandings. Although communicators may share the basic meanings of any words, there are shades which are completely dependent on cultural and personal perceptions. (2006: 295)

Since culture differs from one person to another, factors such as attitude, behavior, language, and body language may have an impact on the course of negotiations in cross-cultural settings. For this reason, BE teachers and NNS learners must consider and understand the cultural variables that influence cross-cultural negotiations because any cultural ignorance or carelessness on the part of the negotiator might lead to communication blunder and negotiation failure. Thus,

> Many business deals have gone wrong and a great deal of money has been wasted as a result of a lack of cultural awareness in international negotiations. Through ignorance of cultural differences, you may:
>
> - fail to win the respect of the people you are negotiating with
> - misinterpret their behaviour
> - cause unintentional offence by doing something that is offensive to people from another culture.
>
> This may cause a breakdown in the negotiation. (Anne Laws, 2000:107).

By way of illustrating, the present study provides a report of a cross-cultural comparative study published in *The International Journal of Economics and Finance*, (Vol. 2, No. 2; May 2010). This study on cross-cultural communication in business negotiations demonstrates that NS and NNS negotiators' attitudes during meetings reflect the negotiator's styles and strategies. Moreover, it asserts that the element of cultural awareness is important in learning BE and a strategic negotiator must gather this kind of information about the counterparts before entering the meeting (i.e. preparation phase). Thus, understanding NS negotiation cultural dimensions contributes to developing BE learners' language competence for negotiating in English.

2.6 Teaching the Language of Negotiation

The negotiation process includes a set of activities that require a high level of English proficiency since certain skills and competences are involved (e.g. discussion, bargaining, problem-solving, etc). The fulfillment of these activities requires an ability to encode and decode messages properly. That is learners need to be able to express and support ideas clearly, to interact with group members, (e.g. leader or/ and a group member), and know cultural differences. Moreover, they need to have the relevant skills to know how to act and react to other speakers in a spontaneous and a natural way while conducting a negotiation. For this reason they look for a course that would train them in different negation skills and language by (a) enhancing their skills and giving them the confidence to communicate more effectively when negotiating in English, (b) increasing their knowledge of the real language of negotiating, such as typical phrases, idiomatic expressions and vocabulary, and (c) raising their cultural awareness in order to recognize and interpret the other party's signals and body language.

The English course must be designed to develop these skills and enable learners to communicate more effectively when negotiating in English. Evan Frendo views that the adoption of a task-based approach is the best way to practice negotiation (2005:78) and develop the language of negotiation and skills needed by the learners. This means that certain activities such as role-plays, simulations, discussions, problem-solving and video clips are useful to teach negotiating skill. He adds that the use of the camera and the presence of observers are beneficial for learners in order to review and assess their performance. These tasks enable the development of non-linguistic negotiation skills, and provide opportunities to practice relevant language.

2.7 Task-Based Approach

Teaching the negotiation language and skills implies teaching ESBP to learners who have knowledge of the subject matter and a long experience in the work field. This, in fact, entails a course and materials that reflect the real life situations of their profession. For this reason, task-based language teaching (TBLT) and task-based learning (TBL) as methodologies of language teaching for specific purposes provide opportunities to job-experienced learners of performing the same communicative tasks they are doing at work in the BE classroom. Besides, they [learners] do a self-evaluation and check what goes wrong and how it should be done appropriately. As a result, they will develop their language skills and communicative competence.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach which according to David Nunan (2004:1) strengthens the following principles and practices: "A needs-based approach to content selection", "An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language", "The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation", "The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself", "An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning"," and "The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom".

The task-based learning approach aims at creating all the adequate conditions for language learning. In other sense, this approach is based on the concept of learning by doing. The TBL has received a great interest among academics as well as classroom teachers since the publication of Jane Willis' 'A Framework for Task-Based Learning, 1996' (Paul Knight, 2012: 4). For J. Willis (1996: 1) "The aim of the task is to create a real purpose for language use and provide a natural context for language study" (qtd in Knight, op cit: 6). The TBL models place a great emphasis on the task as an activity. Paul Knight (op cit: 5-6), conceives "task" as

- a reflection of real world activity
- the syllabus unit
- part of a negotiated syllabus / learner centredness
- a creator of optimal SLA conditions
- a tool to identify areas to address in subsequent work.

Given the issue of adopting the task-based approach methodologies for teaching the language of negotiation, it is worthwhile defining the term task within then TBL approach.

2.7.1 Task Definition

Broadly speaking, as Icy Lee (2008: 2) citing Peter Skehan (1998: 95) who defines the term task as "An activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome." On the other side, Rod Ellis (2003: 3 qtd in Icy Lee, 2008: 2) distinguishes between 'tasks' and 'exercises' which both are activities used in the course of language instruction. Ellis (2003: 3 qtd in Icy Lee, op cit) defines tasks as "activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use" whereas exercises are "activities that call for primarily form-focused language use." In general, Icy Lee (op cit: 3) notes that a task has the following features: "focuses on meaning" [exchanging opinions to reach a consensus about something], "has a context", "involves real-world processes of language use" [expressing opinions, negotiating, agreeing, disagreeing] "engage cognitive processes" [reasoning, evaluating, criticizing], and "has a clearly defined communicative outcome" [decision].

However, before to start designing a lesson, the BE teacher should define which type of tasks to be used in the classroom. Nunan (2004) distinguishes two types of tasks, namely target tasks (i.e. real world tasks) and pedagogical tasks.

2.7.2 Target Tasks

Target tasks also called 'real world tasks', according to David Nunan (2004: 1) "refer to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom." This meaning entails that target tasks are what learners do with language outside the classroom. For some scholars the definition of target tasks may not include a language use. For instance, Michael Long (1985:81)

> A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, making a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone cross the road. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between". (qtd in Nunan, op cit: 2)

In this line, Nunan (op cit) characterizes target tasks in terms of Long's definition

- Target tasks have a non-linguistic outcome (i.e., painted fence, a room in a hotel)
- Some target tasks my not involve language use at all (e.g., painting a fence)

- Individual tasks may be part of a larger sequence of tasks (e.g., weighing a patient and giving a medical examination).

In general, target tasks are the activities that people do in a real life situation using the target language. Therefore, this situation impels them to learn the target language by performing these tasks through a pedagogical context.

2.7.3 Pedagogical Tasks

Pedagogical tasks are the tasks that occur in the classroom (Nunan, 2004: 1). In other sense, target tasks are transferred to the classroom with a structured language, particular objective, appropriate content and specified working procedure to become pedagogical tasks. Hence, job-experienced learners who are aware of their needs, strengths and weaknesses, require pedagogical tasks that enable them to use their linguistic resources accurately to perform tasks they do at work. Ellis notes (2003:16)

> A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, an oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes. (qtd in Nunan 2004:3-4)

Thus, a framework of pedagogical tasks involves rehearsal and activation tasks. Their use implies providing the job-experienced learners with activities that involve them in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in English. That is the use of their grammar knowledge to convey particular communicative meaning.

Focusing on developing learners' competence types (linguistic, discourse, sociocultural, pragmatic and strategic), the teacher can raise learners' awareness of spoken interaction characteristics. For example, s/he must focus on certain language features of spoken grammar, such as, the use of (1) "production strategies" (e.g., pause fillers: 'uh, um', or 'er, erm', vagueness expressions: 'sort of', 'I mean', and repeats), (2) "discourse markers" for talk management (e.g., 'OK', 'that reminds me'= I'm continuing the same topic, 'by the way'= I'm indicating a topic change, 'yes, but'= I'm indicating a difference of opinion), (3) "verbal encouragements" such as backchannel devices (e.g. uh-uh, really, right, that's interesting, tell me more = I'm listening), (4) phonology (e.g., stress, rhythm, and intonation), (5) the macro-structure of the negotiation process, (6) the sociocultural rules (i.e. raising cultural-awareness), (7) the use of communication strategies to achieve the negotiation goal (e.g. circumlocution, word coinage, foreignising, approximation, language switch, paralinguistics, or appealing for help), and (8) speech acts (e.g. an acceptance or a refusal of an offer, suggestion, request, promise, etc) (Scott Thornbury, 2005:47-51).

The appropriation activities, for instance, help learners to gain control of the speaking skill by practicing that control through three stages: drilling, writing tasks, reading aloud, dialogues, communicative tasks and task repetition (Thornbury, op cit: 63-88). The BE teacher can, for instance, ask learners to imitate and repeat words, phrases, or utterances (e.g. discourse markers, sentence starters, catchphrases or idiomatic expressions) from a recorded data. This drilling task which acts as a fluency-enhancing technique, (Thornbury, op cit: 64) enables learners to both memorize short functional chunks and gain control over their fluent articulation.

Sometimes, it is necessary to turn a speaking task into a written one such as, dictating some useful expressions about ways of offering a deal or suggesting an alternative and asking them to categorize or rank them in terms of formality degree and then write a conversation. Moreover, rewriting dialogues by adapting, improving, modifying and then performing them and that in order to enable a transition from learning the language of negotiating to using it. For example learners could be asked to turn a failed negotiation into a successful one by modifying the forms of questions, using diplomatic language, using idiomatic expressions, incorporating backchannel devices, and pause fillers, and many others. Practicing dialogues whether in open or closed pairwork is an appropriation activity which enables learners to work out any grammar structure or lexical area (op cit: 72).

Communicative tasks are another kind of appropriation activities which fulfill two important language learning needs, 1) preparing learners for real-life language use and 2) encouraging the automatisation of language knowledge (Thornbury, 2005:79). Some examples of communicative task activities are information gap, jigsaw, info-gap race, surveys, blocking games, and guessing games. These activities take place in real time and motivate learners to achieve some outcome using language by interacting with others. On the other side, task repetition may provide opportunities for appropriation of formulaic and idiomatic language (op cit: 85), and recording learners in doing their tasks is a way to make them repeat and challenge themselves to reach a better level of fluency. Thus, appropriation activities provide learners with a supportive framework in which they can practice control in order to achieve greater control over their own speaking skill.

The autonomy activities, however, enable learners to achieve a degree of autonomy due to the increased automaticity of their language production and gain self-confidence. As a result, they become skilled performers who work fast, know how to carry out tasks using minimal means, detect and reject errors quickly, think and plan ahead, and are less likely to underperform in adverse conditions (Thornbury, 2005:90). In order that learners experience autonomous language use, the EBP teacher may include tasks which hold the following characteristics: productivity (i.e. language productive), purposefulness (i.e. a clear outcome of the speaking activity), interactivity (i.e. presence of an audience), challenge (i.e. drawing on the available communicative resources to achieve the outcome), safety (i.e. confidence feeling), and authenticity (i.e. related to real life language use) (Thornbury, op cit: 90-01).

Similarly, the BE teacher may use tasks such as simulations, role plays, discussions and debates in order to meet learners' needs. For instance the teacher asks for the explanation of background negotiations of the learner, then they role- play the negotiation, discuss and comment on tactics and language used, they role-play again, discuss and comment on tactics and language used and role-play again (Frendo, 2005:79). "Reverse role simulations of this kind enable learner and teacher to maximally contribute their knowledge and expertise to the task" (ibid.)

Indeed, teaching the negotiation language to job-experienced learners of BE implies training them in order to become operationally effective. Thus, in the context of specific business situations, ESBP learners need to acquire these features: "confidence and fluency in speaking", "skills for organizing and structuring information", "sufficient language accuracy to be able to communicate ideas without ambiguity and without stress for the listener", "strategies for following the main points of fast, complex and imperfect speech", "strategies for clarifying and checking unclear information", "speed of reaction to the utterances of others", " clear pronunciation and delivery", and " an awareness of appropriate language and behaviour for the cultures and situations in which they will operate" (Ellis and Johnson, 1994: 35).

2.8 Conclusion

It is worth noting that non-native job-experienced learners of English need to overcome their communication difficulties while using English in negotiating be it with native users of English or L2 users. For this very reason, acquiring knowledge about appropriate language use (i.e., questioning, paraphrasing, summarizing) and developing the ability to control both the listening and speaking skills is a precondition for learning the language of negotiations. A course which enables learners to perform target tasks in the BE course, and thus, improve their negotiating skills and strategies by exploiting resources of their linguistic competence, and professional one. It is only then, that learners can feel at ease to engage with confidence negotiation using the English language. This worry concerning the language of negotiation and what skills learners need to develop in the case of ENG engineers, an investigation on their real needs is the concern of the next chapter.

Chapter three

The Case Study: Data Collection and Analysis

3.1 Introduction

3.2 The Company

3.2.1 The Participants

3.2.2 The English Learning Experience

3.2.3 The Training English Textbooks

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

3.3.1 The Instrument

3.3.2 The Questionnaire Organization

3.3.3 The Data Analysis and Interpretation

3.4 Findings

3.5 Conclusion

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter is a case study focusing on the needs of job-experienced learners as regards Business English. In an attempt to provide an English course that fits their needs in terms of the language of negotiation given their occupational profile.

This research work attempts to assess Algerian engineers' perceived needs to learn how to negotiate effectively using the English language. The investigation has targeted the population working in the oil and gas industry in order to identify their language needs. The questionnaire is used as a tool to help the English teacher design an appropriate teaching methodology, and the selection of authentic materials that fit both participants' and work fields' requirements.

Furthermore, it aims at raising BE teachers' awareness on the fact that teaching English for negotiating does not match only with teaching knowledge of the language but how to use that knowledge in real situations. This task is certainly hard and involves a great commitment, preparation and know-how because the learners who need ESBP courses are experienced, demanding, and aware of their weaknesses and strengths.

To have a clear idea about the real needs of the target population, we have collected data about the company, the participants, their actual use of English at the workplace and the previous English courses organized by the company as well as a description of the training textbooks. This kind of information provided a clear picture of the subjects' needs, wants and lacks, in the use of English for professional purposes.

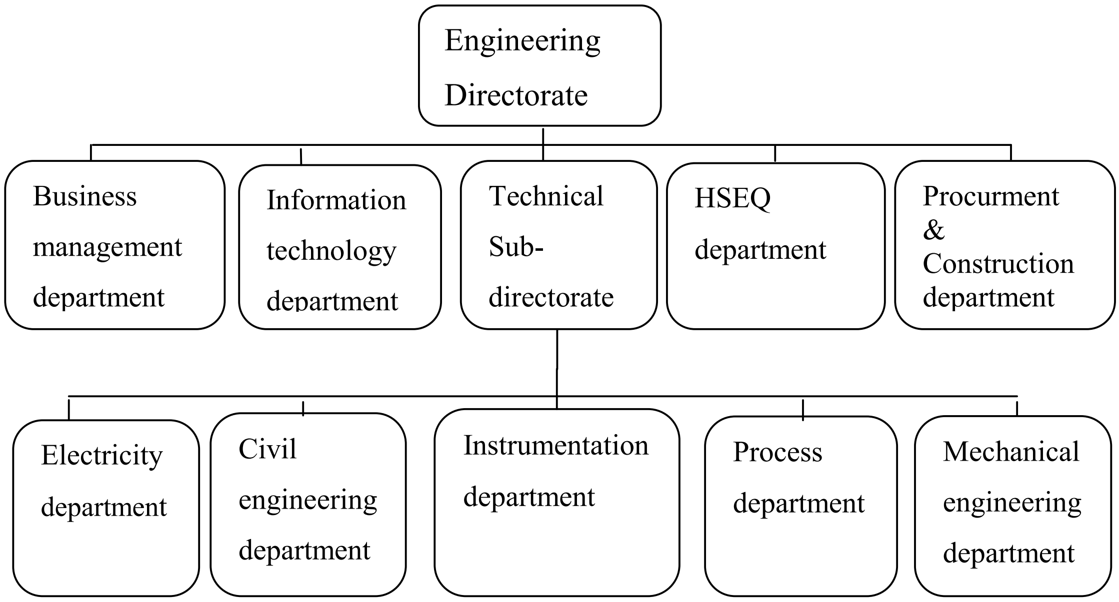
3.2 The Company

The present research investigation occurred at the Engineering directorate, *hereafter;* ENG of the Algerian oil and gas company (SONATRACH) situated in Arzew, Oran between liquefied natural gas plants 1 and 2 (LNG1 Z and LNG2 Z). The ENG is the accompanying structure of SONATRACH projects and the thinking head of the AVAL activity having the task to elaborate detailed engineering studies. It takes in charge all the developing and investment plans of SONATRAH from the maturation and conception phase until on-plant realization phase. The main activities of the ENG are:

1- Achievement of development and investment plans.
2- Supply of the performances of service as regards studies of engineering.
3- Review and control of documents.
4- Installation of the general specifications and the standards.
5- Design of the procedures of engineering as well as specifications.
6- Maintenance of the system of management of quality to the application of the HSE requirements.
7- Creation and installation of a database of all the projects as well as the ISO certification 9001.

The ENG is composed of a technical sub-directorate and four departments, namely 1) business management, 2) information technologies, 3) Health, Security and Environment Quality (HSEQ) and 4) procurement and construction (see figure 3.1). The technical sub-directorate includes five departments, namely 1) the electricity, the civil engineering, the instrumentation, the process, and the mechanical engineering departments. Each department takes in charge the realization of a project phase. This means they are involved in the negotiation process from the preparation phase until the agreement settlement phase.

Figure 3.1 The Structure of the ENG directorate.



Source: SONATACH, AVAL magazine, 2009:21

The choice is made on the ENG / SONATRACH because the engineers working there are from different technical domains and all participate in project elaboration activities. They are also concerned with negotiation activities as they are constantly meeting their foreign counterparts who are either native users of English or L2 users of English. Therefore, the use of English is indispensible when they meet their joints in order to discuss issues about the projects. The aim is to help the engineers more or less negotiate at ease when using the English language which is a real worry for them.

3.2.1 The Participants

The participants are the Algerian engineers working in the ENG eight departments. They are from different professional technical backgrounds (instrumentation, mechanics, HSE, and hydrocarbon exploitation), and are all involved in one way or the other in negotiation activities. Furthermore, the technical offers they receive are in English and thus the analysis, technical comments and invitation of the tenderers to meetings to obtain further clarification are conducted in English.

Besides, the engineers collaborate with teams from different nationalities. One example is the Engineering India Limited, *hereafter,* EIL, which signed a contract with SONATRACH in 2003. The 25 engineers of EIL had the task to assist SONATRACH/ AVAL in the transfer of technical knowledge and abilities for developing the engineering studies. This is evidence as to the importance of English which is used as a medium of communication between ENG and EIL. The English language occupies then, a privileged position since success of the company does not depend only on their professional competence but on their language ability as well. It is for this very reason that the company is organizing an English course for the engineers.

3.2.2 The English Learning Experience

The company organizes English courses to the engineers with the collaboration of a private language school, precisely the ALC school and a SONATRACH training center, the CPE. They both provide general and business English courses.

The ALC is a private language training school. It provides General and Business English courses for the company staff. The CPE, however, is an institution that belongs to SONATRACH. It offers training in different domains: administrative, technical and even language fields. When it comes to English, courses are organized for all levels: Beginners, intermediate and upper intermediate. The participants are organized into groups according to the results obtained on the basis of the placement test. In addition to general English courses, BE courses are provided to the different levels once getting through the general English phase on the basis of the hierarchy decision.

3.2.3 The English Training Textbooks

The textbooks selected for general English and business English courses are respectively the 'Interchange (intro, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate)' and 'Market Leader' (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate). It is a four hour a week course. The course length for each full level contains between 70 to 120 hours of class instruction.

The Interchange methodology includes a teacher's book, a student's book, a work book, a class audio program, and a student's audio program in addition to a video activity book, lab cassettes and a teacher training video. The interchange syllabus comprises sixteen units divided into two sections comprising each eight units. Each unit deals with speaking, grammar, pronunciation and listening, writing and reading and interchange activity. Every two units are reinforced with a progress check and a test is organized after every four units. Thus, one level comprises four learning stages. The results are provided to the staff training responsible at the level of the company in order to insert it with the trainee's qualification file. In addition, the interchange course advises checking students' progress by using teacher-prepared tests after each unit.

The Interchange syllabus and approach focus on teaching students to use English for everyday situations and purposes related to school, social life, work, and leisure. The topics are contemporary and selected for their interest to both homogeneous and heterogeneous classes. The underlying philosophy of the course is that learning a second or foreign language is more rewarding, meaningful and effective when the language is used for authentic communication. This is why the students are presented with natural and useful language.

The grammar, for instance, is graded in relevance to the level of learners. In the beginners' level (Interchange intro) basic structures are taught such as the present tenses used in the different statements that fit the language of descriptions. In levels 2 and 3, more advanced structures are learnt, such as conditionals and relative clauses. The course is, then, based on the three interacting dimensions of language: meaning, form and use. Each unit comprises a number of activities each focusing on one aspect of the language.

The snapshots are about real-word information that introduces the topic of the unit or cycle. The word power develops students' vocabulary related to the unit while the conversation is concerned with new grammar points and functions relative to each unit. The grammar focus section sums up the new grammar items. A pronunciation section offers practice of important pronunciation features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation.

The listening part develops a certain range of receptive skills. The writing activity includes tasks that extends and reinforces the topic and grammar of the unit while reading is meant to develop the skill as well as receptive language and vocabulary. The reading section comprises a variety of texts from newspapers, magazines articles, surveys, and letters for different purposes. The drills and exercises serve reviewing the unit themes, vocabulary and grammar. The interchange activity provides a communicative extension of the unit allowing students to personalize what they have practiced. Moreover, the exercises of Discussion, Role Play, Speaking activities are designed to reinforce the learners' oral fluency. It also includes a set of dialogues illustrating the different speaking strategies, such as, how to open and close conversations, ask follow-up questions, take turns and use filler words.

The Market Leader methodology includes a teacher's book, a student's book, a practice book, a class audio program, a student's audio program and DVD designed for each level. The Market Leader elementary level is an introduction to business English, while the pre-intermediate level is designed to develop learners' creativity in business different skills (e.g., meetings, marketing, and conflict management). The intermediate level is a reinforcement of the acquired learners' knowledge during the preceding levels and focuses mainly on involving learners in debates by expressing opinions and giving argumentations.

The Market Leader syllabus comprises 12 units based on topics of great interest to all people involved in the international business. Each unit is organized in five sections, namely discussion, texts, language work, skills, and case study. After each four units there is a revision unit followed by a test. So the programme comprises four units of revision: A, B, C and D.

As regards the discussion section, it is the starting up stage which involves a variety of interesting activities including topic discussion and exchange of ideas. It also includes vocabulary activities in order to provide learners with important new words and phrases that will be used to carry out the other tasks of the unit. This section aims at developing the speaking skill with emphasis on building up learners' confidence in using English and improving their fluency.

The text section includes reading a text and listening to an interview. The reading task is based on reading authentic material on a variety of topics which are carefully selected from newspapers and books on business. Likewise, the listening task includes listening to authentic interviews with business people. Students practice Note-taking exercising to develop the listening and writing skills.

The language work section includes word study and grammar. It aims at providing learners with appropriate words that match with the unit topic (e.g., word partnerships, words for talking about planning, verbs and prepositions). Moreover, grammar structures are reviewed in order to focus on accuracy (e.g., questions, talking about future plans, and reported speech).

The Skills section is about business communication skills such as telephoning, meetings, negotiating, socializing, etc. It aims at developing students' linguistic ability in using these skills through activities such as listen and answer the questions, listen and complete the expressions, listen and complete the conversation. These kinds of activities give the students the opportunity to learn useful language for each specific skill and practice through the role-play activity.

The unit ends with the Case Study section, this latter is linked to the business topic of the unit. The case study concerns a real situation and problem which will allow the learner to use the language and communication skills they developed through the unit to do the task. It also includes a writing activity.

These selected course books and work books could have been very profitable allowing students to improve their English proficiency , however , the investigation revealed three shortcomings : 1) students irregular attendance (the learners used to leave the classroom at any time) , 2) the course-time planning was not suitable, and 3) the topics were authentic but did not correspond to their professional situations.

Furthermore, the Interchange and Market Leader programmes are designed to develop students' language ability in general English (interchange) and general business English (Marker Leader). However, the ENG engineers need to develop the ability to use English for specific business purposes [negotiating] particular to their occupation activities. Though the Market Leader includes the skill of negotiating in the Skill section of *"Unit 10- "Conflict"* (p90) (see *annex 3* p139); it remains limited since it deals only with one phase of the negotiating process, bargaining. This is not the only engineers' needs. Therefore, they require a training program which covers all the phases of the negotiating process. To identify the ENG engineers' difficulties, a field work is conducted to collect the necessary data in an attempt to adapt an English course design tailored to their learning needs and objectives.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

In order to shed the light on the real needs of the ENG engineers and the language difficulties they encounter when negotiating with SONATRACH counterparts, a questionnaire has been prepared to support our arguments and help us design an adequate syllabus that fits their needs and fills their lacks in negotiating.

3.3.1 The Instrument

A questionnaire was administered to the engineers (see *annex 5* p144). In fact; the questionnaire is chosen because of its simplicity for the participants. For Jams Dean Brown (2001:6) "Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions and statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from existing answers. Questionnaires are particularly efficient for gathering data on a large-scale basis".

The questionnaire was elaborated both in French and English, but all the participants selected the French version as it is the first foreign language they learn at school, and the one they feel more or less at ease when using it. The French version does not require much time and effort to be answered, unlike the English version (*annex* 4 p140). This is because French is the academic language used in tertiary education as far as engineers are concerned, and so to speak, the participants find it easier to respond in a language they more or less master.

The total number of the ENG engineers is 55; however, only 30 completed it. This is due to their unavailability. Twenty-one men engineers (70%) and nine women engineers (30%) answered the questionnaire. The age of participants (males and females including) ranges from 35 to 57 while their professional experience varies from 10 to 30 years.

The questionnaire contains 21 questions, including closed item questions, close-ended questions and rating scales. Closed-item questions are a means to obtain precise and credible answers, as noted by Alison Mackey and Susan Gass (2005:93), "closed-item questions typically involve a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability. They also lead to answers that can be easily quantified and analyzed."

Close-ended questions with multiple choice answers provide the respondents the opportunity to have a variety of alternatives, "[H]ere the respondent is offered a choice of an answer" (Ellen Taylor-Powell, 1998: 8). The rating scales enable the evaluation of the respondents' attitudes and views towards a particular issue, as well as have a clear distinction between the different responses. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:134) "Rating scales are easier to use and useful for broad distinctions".

3.3.2 The Questionnaire Organization

The 21 questions are organized into three parts. Part one focuses on participants' general English language proficiency level, and part two serves the target situation profile and language skills [target and present situation and communication needs analysis]. Finally, the objective of part three wheels around assessing the participants' view on the ESBP course [Negotiating] (see table below).

Table 3.2 The Questionnaire Structure

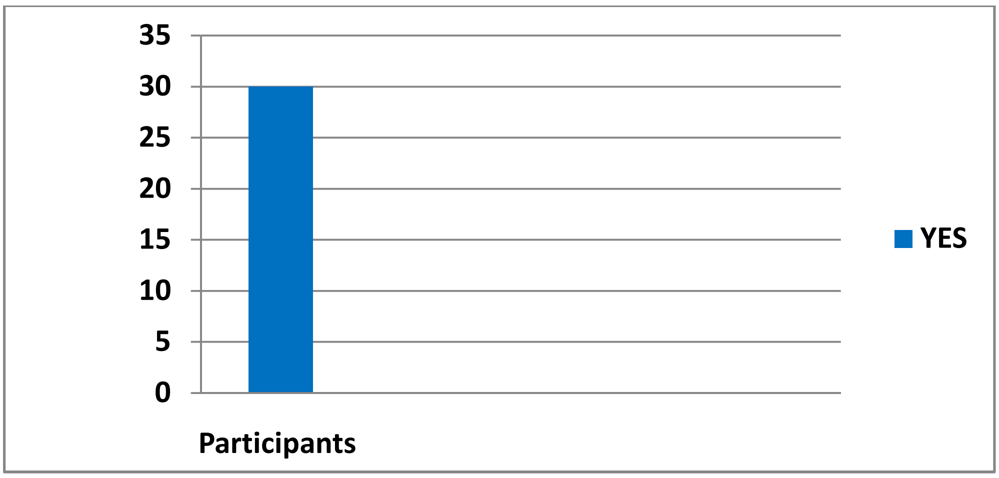
Part	**Questions (from … to …)**
General English Proficiency Level	1-3
Target Situation Profile and Language Skills	4-14
The Participants' View on the ESBP Course, i.e. Negotiating	15-21

3.3.3 Data Analysis and Interpretation

After gathering the 30 engineers' responses, the answers were interpreted and analysed.

Part one: General English Proficiency Level

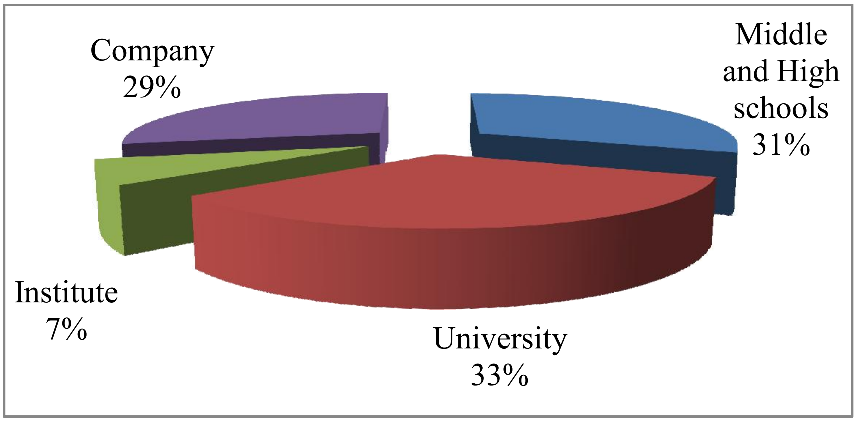
Question 1: Have you already learned English?



Bar-graph 3.1: The participants' English language background

All of the participants have studied English since the English language is one of the working languages and is among the conditions when the company hires the engineers.

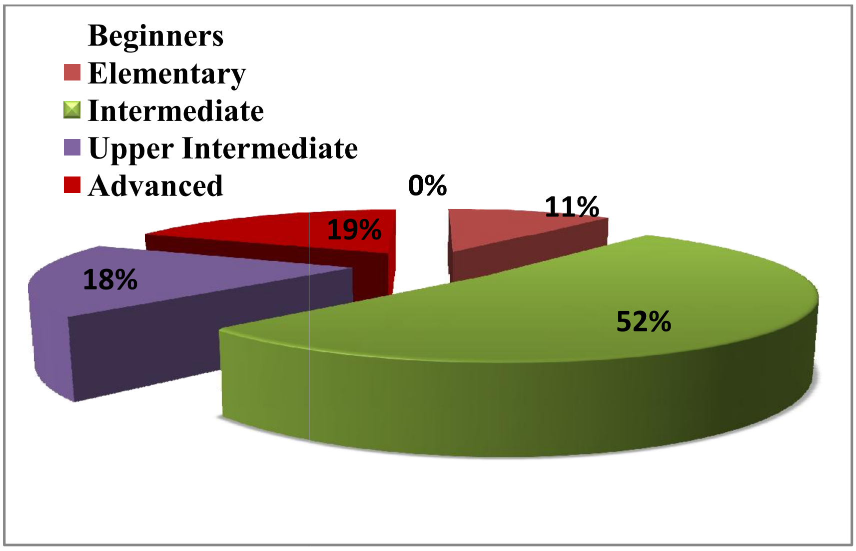
Question 2: Please, indicate where you have learned it.



Pie-chart 3.1.1: The participants' English language learning context

As English is the second foreign language in Algeria, it is taught at all the educational cycles (middle, high and tertiary). Therefore, the majority, (64%), goes to these cycles. 29% of the informants have received in-company English courses showing the involvement of the company as regards the importance of the English language. Very few, 7% learnt English elsewhere, in institutes.

Question 3: Which case fits your level in English?

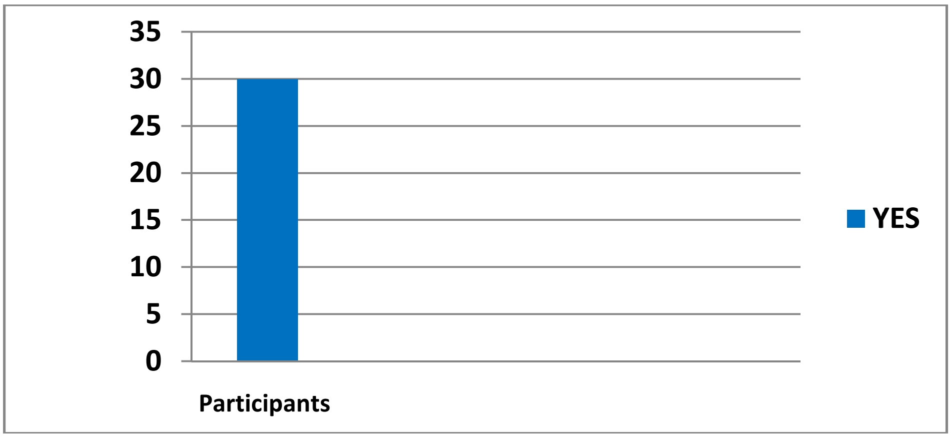


Pie-chart 3.1.2: The participants' level in General English

The majority of respondents, 52%, have an intermediate level whereas 18% have an upper-intermediate and 19% an advanced level in general English. The least percentage, 11%, corresponds to participants with an elementary level.

Part two: Domains of Language Use and Language Skills

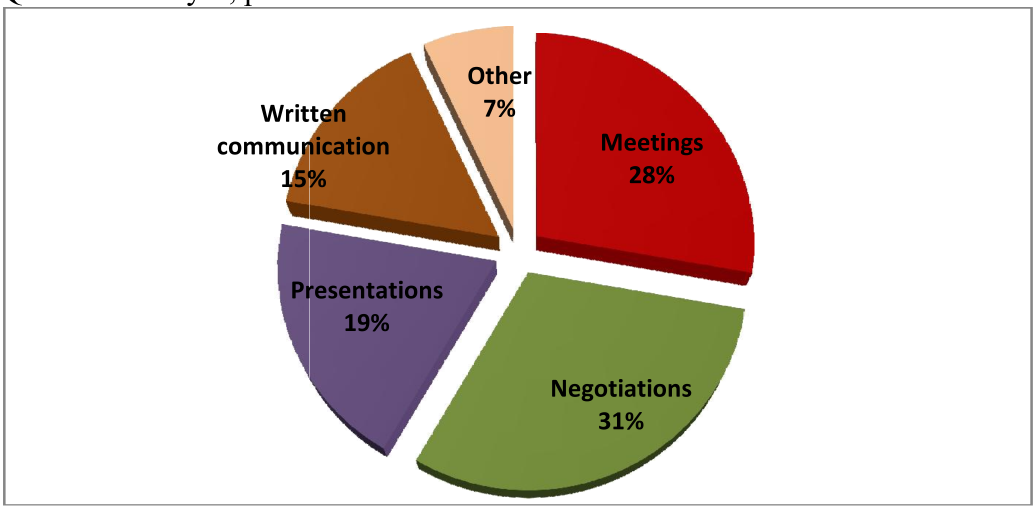
Question 4: Do you use English at work?



Bar-graph 3.2: The rate of English use at work

Due to the engineers' job profile, English is a must since most of the engineering projects with foreign joints are conducted in English. This rate shows how important is the English language and how learning the language and developing proficiency is also important.

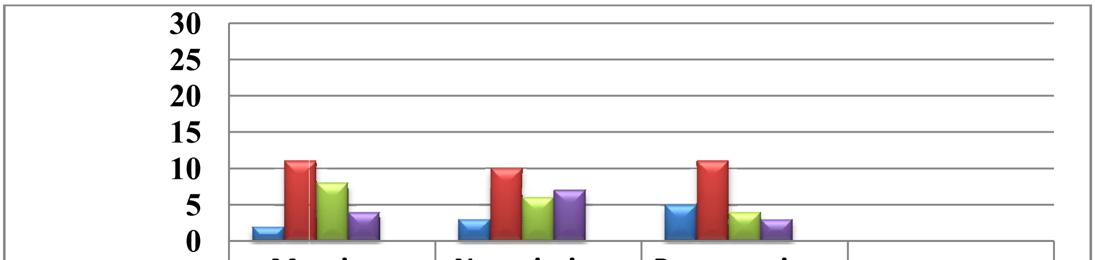
Question 5: If yes, please indicate the context of use.



Pie-chart 3.1.3: The rate of the business communication skills use.

The result indicates that the informants use English both in speaking and writing. The pie-chart shows that English is mainly used in meetings and negotiations occupying mostly the same rate followed by presentation activities with a rate of 19%. Writing occupies a rate of 15%. 7% represents other activities mentioned by the participants such as the realization of specifications, documentation and calculations.

Question 6: How often do you use English in meetings, negotiations and presentations?

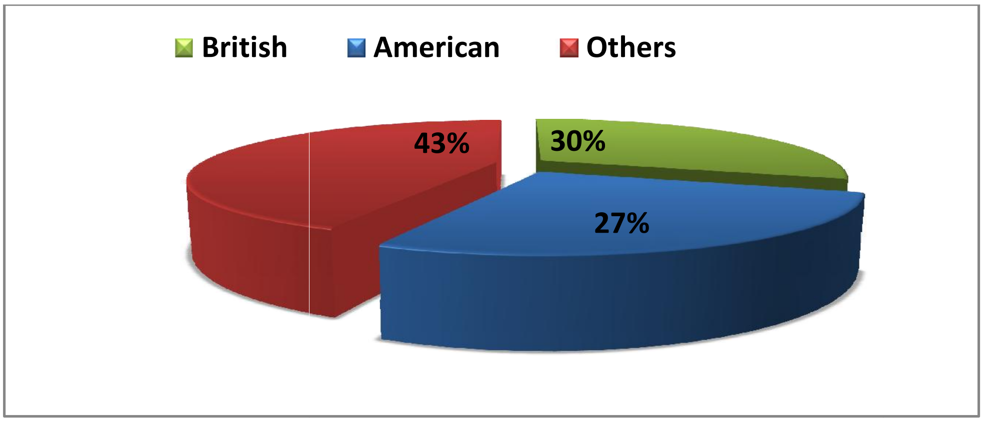


	Meetings	Negotiations	Presentations
Rarely	2	3	5
Sometimes	11	10	11
Often	8	6	4
Always	4	7	3
No answer	5	4	7

Bar-graph 3.3: The Frequency use of English in meetings, negotiations and presentations

The result indicates that one third of the informants use sometimes English either in meeting and presentation or in negotiation. Very few often, always or rarely use it in the respective different skills in varying low rates. This is because not all of the ENG engineers occupy the same hierarchy to take part in the negotiation issues and do the same activities. All in all 18 to 23 engineers are concerned with presentations, meetings and negotiations. The remaining representing rarely or no answer rates are those who fall within the ones using English for written communication or other activities.

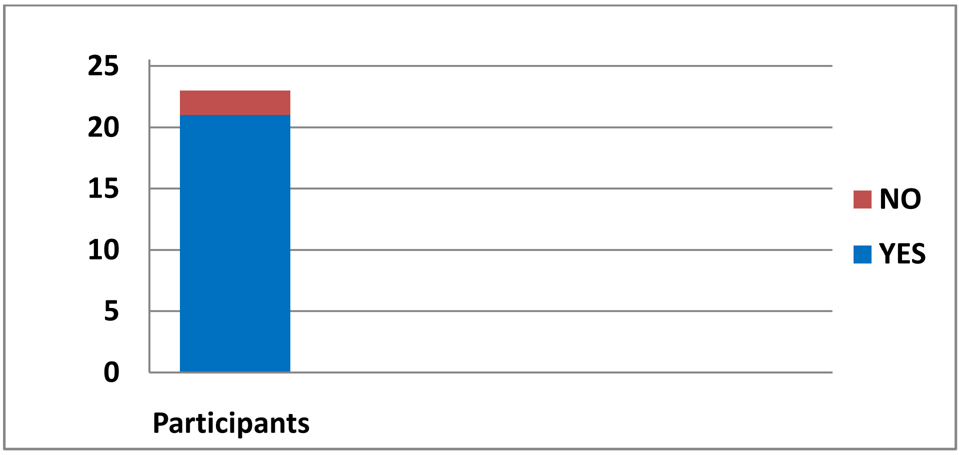
Question 7: What are the business partners' nationalities with whom you negotiate in English?



Pie-chart 3.1.4: The business partners' nationalities

The pie-chart shows that non native speakers of English represent 43% while British and American native speakers represent respectively 30% and 27%. This indicates that ENG engineers need to develop cross-cultural communicative competence to get adapted to the different nationalities. This is a case of different "Englishes" and different cultures.

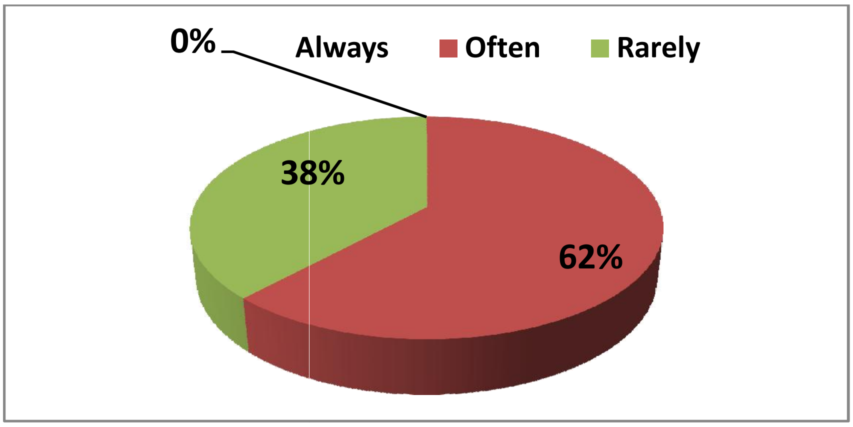
Question 8: Did you have any kind of communication difficulties while negotiating in English with these partners?



Bar-graph 3.4: The rate of communication difficulties

The bar-graph indicates that the 21 'yes' answers show difficulties to use English in the case of negotiations. This informs about the necessity to get trained in the field so as to develop this skill in particular.

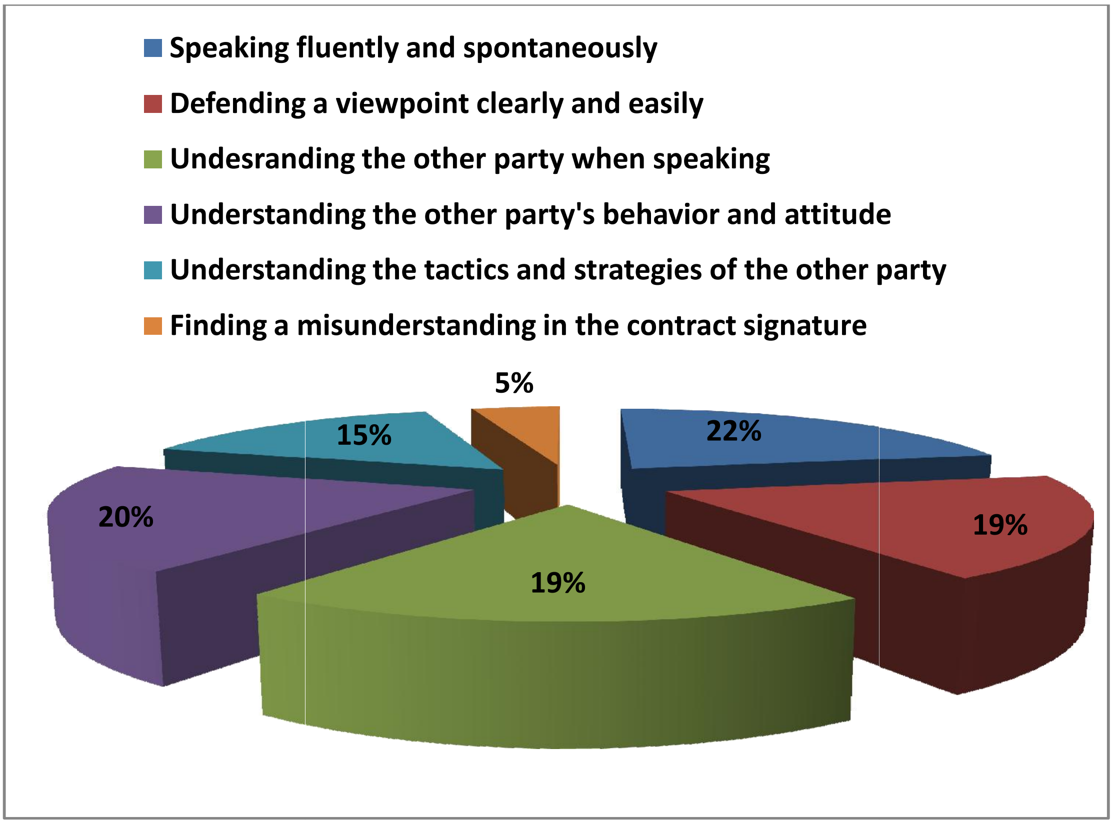
Question 9: If yes, please indicate the frequency of difficulty.



Pie-chart 3.1.5: The frequency rate of language difficulty in negotiating

Out of the 21 participants, representing 100%, 62% often have language difficulties in negotiating with foreign counterparts against 38% who rarely have. The latter case might be related to the fact that certain engineers participated in the business English course organized by The ENG Company, yet, according to their answers, they still need some reinforcing training in the language of negotiations.

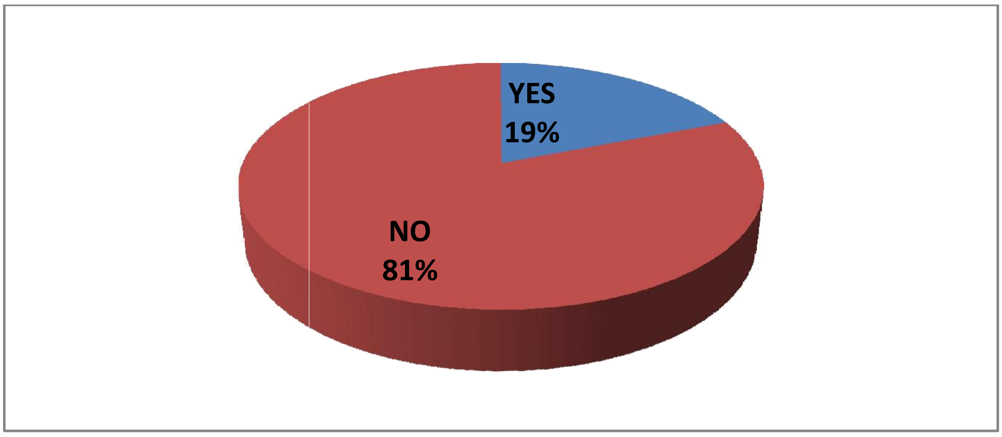
Question 10: Please, indicate the kind of difficulty you have.



Pie-chart 3.1.6: The participants' types of communication difficulties in negotiating

Questions one, two, three and four were asked to check language problems the informants confront. The language problems intended to identify and which can help to decide what material, skill and syllabus design to provide focused respectively on the speaking skill, i.e. production, on knowledge of language use, on listening, i.e. perception and on cultural competence. The results display approximately similar rates, 19 % to 20%, in the different four cases of difficulties which in one way or another hinder the success of negotiation in terms of language use. Question 5 and 6 were included to check if the informants really distinguish between language negotiation skills and knowledge of the art of negotiation in term of professionalization. The results show that 20% do not have a clear idea what the language of negotiation is about and what the art of negotiation is also about. These two questions were included on purpose to see if the informants really understand what the questionnaire is about and whether the problems they confront are related to the English langue use or to the subject of negotiation itself.

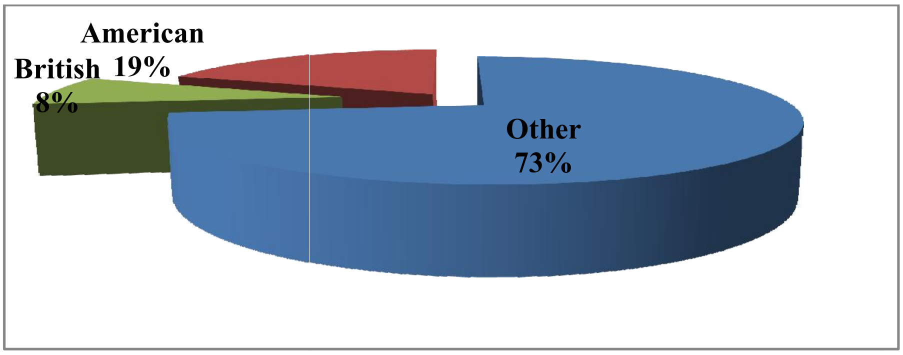
Question 11: Do you encounter the same language difficulties with the foreign staff, both native and nonnative speakers of English?



Pie-chart 3.1.7: Language difficulties with NNSs and NSs partners

81% of informants do not find the same type of difficulties in communicating in English with foreign partners. 19% encounter the same type of difficulties in both cases. This is reason why a question 12 is asked to identify the rate of difficulties in each case.

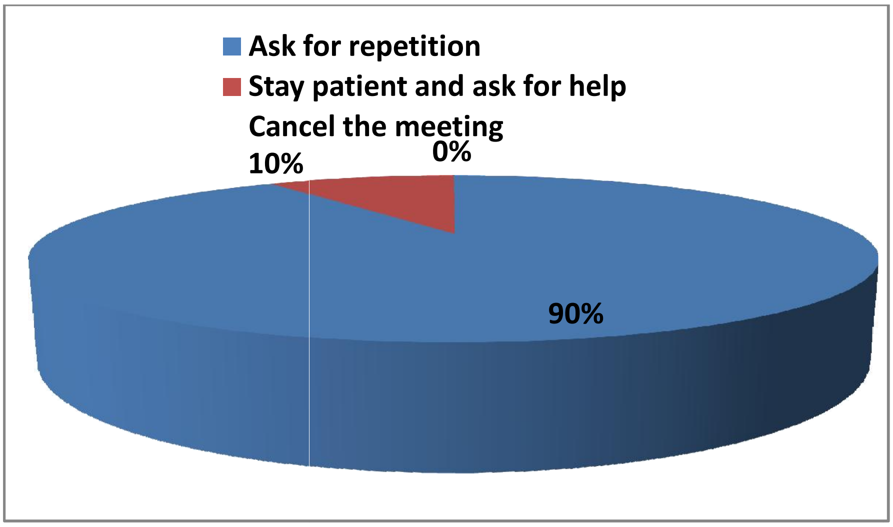
Question 12: in which case do you encounter most of the difficulties?



Pie-chart 3.1.8: The participants' rate of difficulties with foreign partners

The majority of informants, 73%, revealed communication difficulties with NNS referred here as 'other'. This may be due to their accent or level in English, against 27% with NS colleagues. 19% of informants have difficulties understanding the Americans while 8% with British counterparts. This is due to the differences between American and British accents mainly. This leads to notice how complex the situation is and the efforts the ENG engineers need to make to get adapted to the different English accents apart from the negotiation linguistic register. Thus, listening activities to authentic material becomes very important.

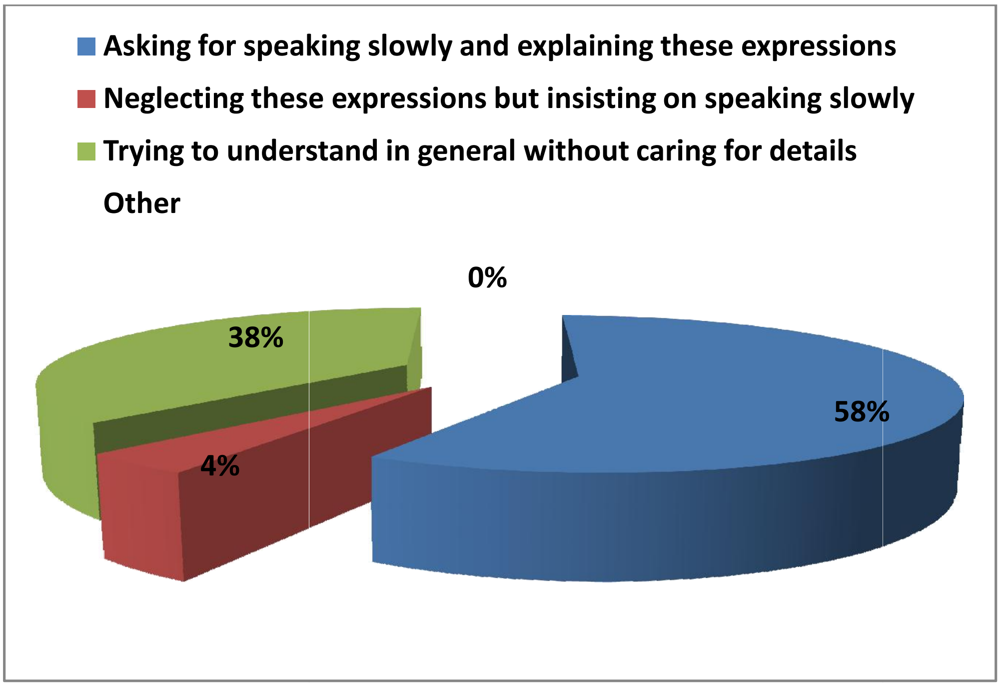
Question 13: What do you do when the other party is a NNS and you can't understand him / her because of his / her accent?



Pie-chart 1.9: The rate of communication problems with NNSs

The result shows that 19 out of the 21 participants, 90%, rather prefer to ask the other party for repetition. However, only two, that is, 10% prefer to stay patient and ask for their colleagues help. No one would venture cancelling the meeting as it might have a very bad impact on the company. This indicates the reason for which the informants worry about the English language of negotiation proficiency.

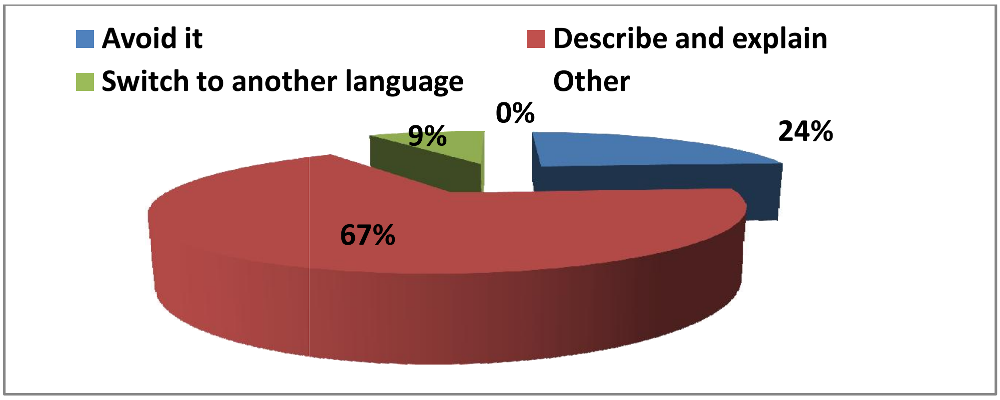
Question 14: What do you do when the other party is a NS and you can't understand him / her because he / she speaks fast and uses expressions you do not understand?



Pie-chart 3.1.10: The rate of communication problems with NSs

Pie-chart 3.1.10 shows that 58% of the informants ask the other party to speak slowly and explain the expressions while 38% try to understand in general without caring for details. This justifies why there is some surprise when signing the contract. Very few opt for the third case, 4%, which shows that they display rather some perception problems. No other strategy is used to better understand their foreign counterparts.

Question 15: What do you do when you do not find the appropriate word to express an idea?

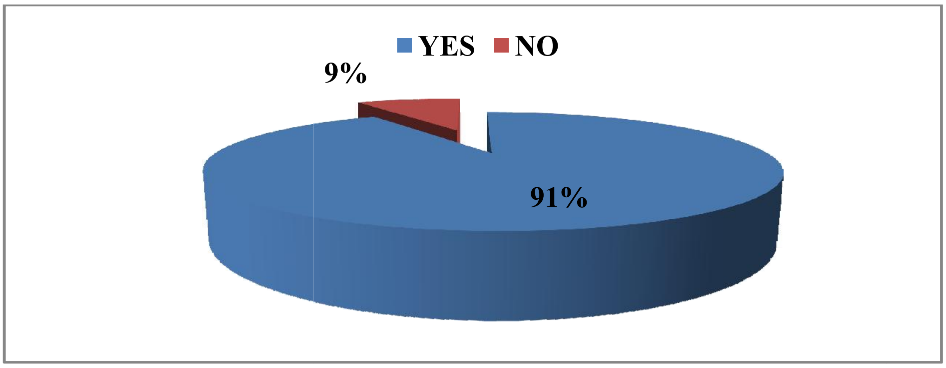


Pie-chart 3.1.11: The participants' communication strategies

For question 15, a great number of informants, 14 out of 21, corresponding to 67% prefer to use some kind of achievement strategies (e.g., paraphrase, approximation, and circumlocution) against a small number of five participants ,i.e. 24% ,who prefer to use the avoidance strategy in order not to waste the negotiation time. Two participants, 9%, rather shift spontaneously to another language mainly French which may cause serious problems when the other does not understand the language. This shows that the informants confront language proficiency problems during the negotiating process, and, thus need much training in this context.

Part three: The Participants' View on the ESBP Course, i.e., negotiating

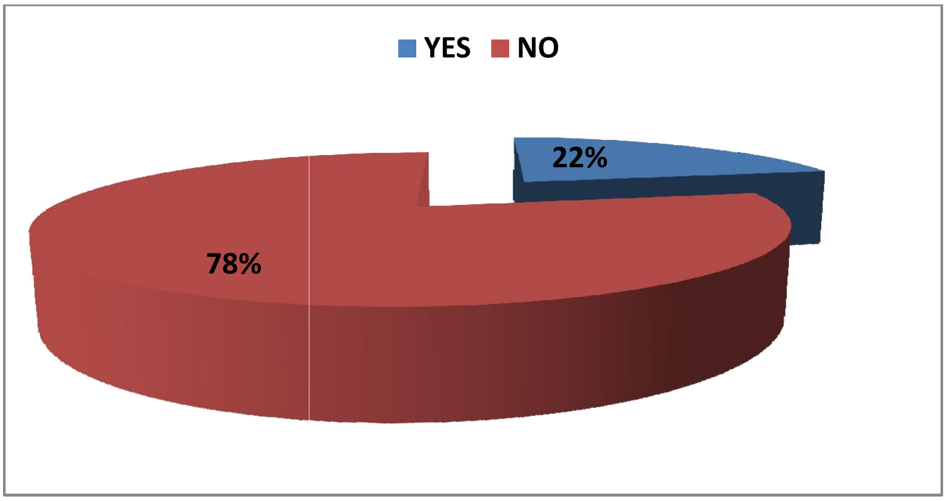
Question 16: Do you think these communication problems are related to knowledge of BE in general and knowledge of how to use English for negotiating in particular?



Pie-chart 3.1.12: The participants' view about BE and negotiation language

The majority of the participants, (91%), believe that learning BE with specific emphasis on the language of negotiation would help them overcome the problems of communication they confront. Only 9% believe the problem to be somehow related to other problems not necessarily to knowledge of BE and the language of negotiation. It might probably be related to the fact that they are not from of a negotiation profile. In such a case this has nothing to do with language proficiency.

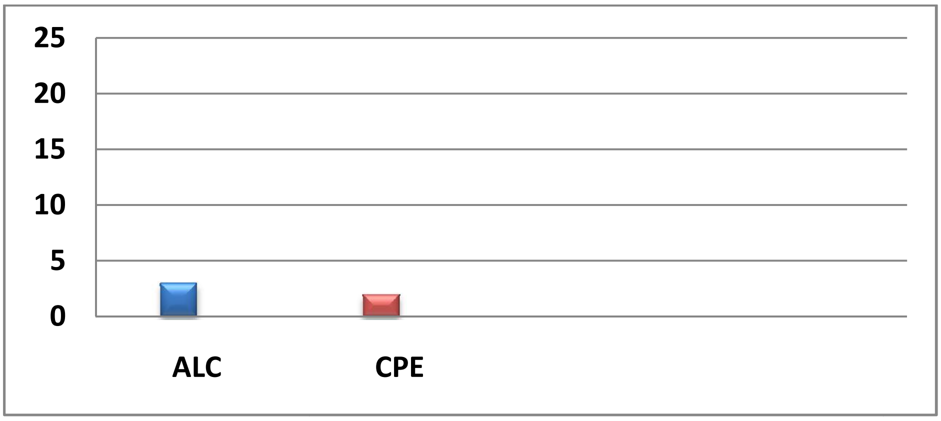
Question 17: Have you already studied Business English?



Pie-chart 3.1.13: The participants' BE background

Question 17 reveals that the majority of participants, 78%, did not study BE. 22% had a BE course organized by the company. These results support the need of a BE course to be organized for the ENG engineers.

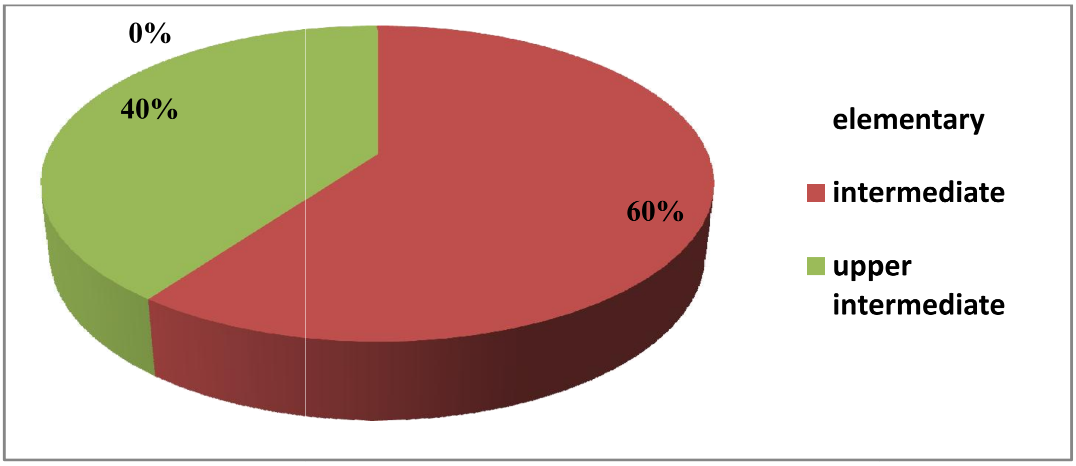
Question 18: If yes, indicate the institution in which you learned BE.



Bar-graph 3.5: The participants' BE training context

The result indicates that the five engineers had courses in business English at the company premises. The BE courses were organized by the company using the services of the private language school, ALC or the CPE. It should be noted that the teachers hired do not have a business English training but come from a general English language background. The textbook selected is the market leader which does not focus on the language of negotiations in the case of ALC.

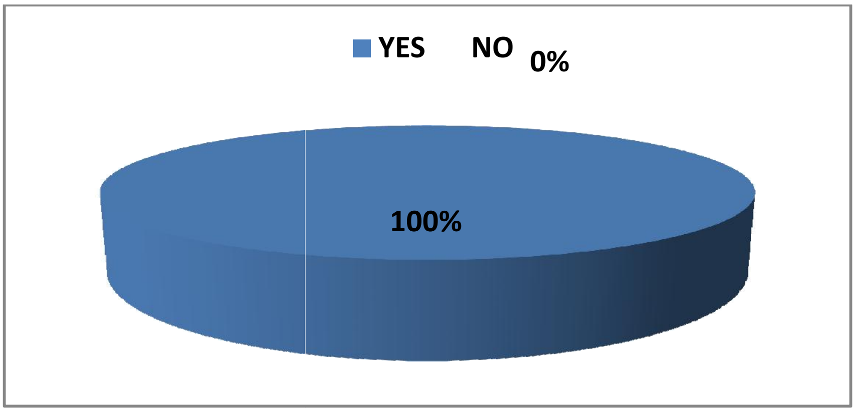
Question 19: Which case fits your level in Business English?



Pie-chart 3.1.14: The participants' level in BE

The majority of the informants who received courses in BE, 60%, have an intermediate level. 40% have an upper-intermediate level. These informants are those who achieved upper-intermediate level in general English and were allowed to join the BE course.

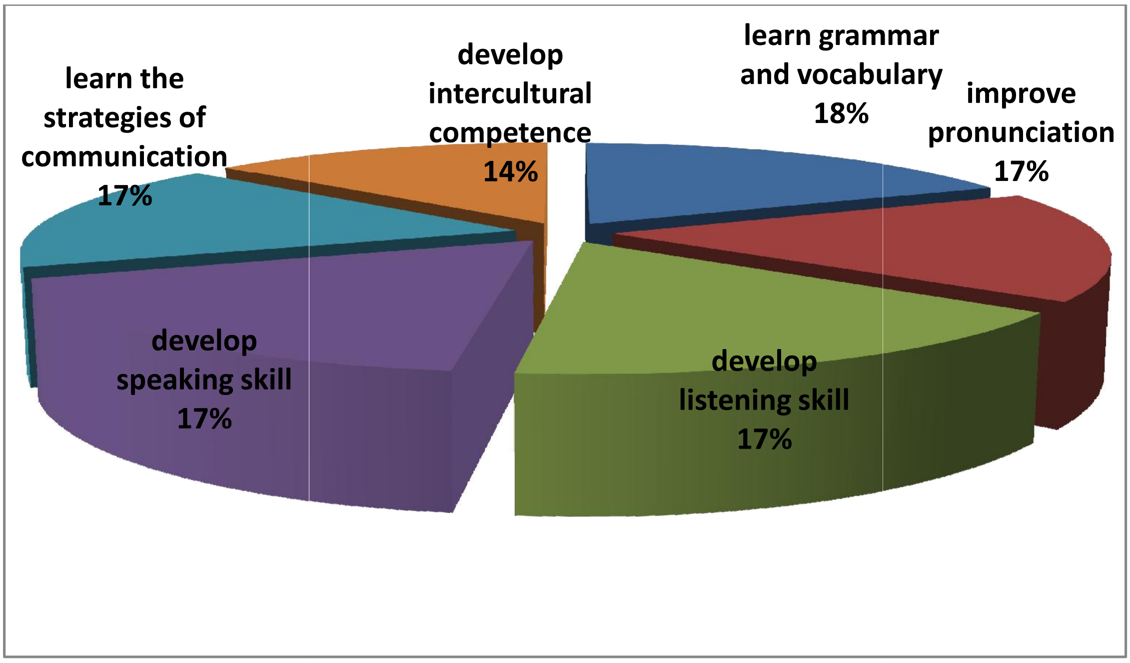
Question 20: Do you think a language negotiation course will help you overcome communication problems during the negotiation activities?



Pie-chart 3.1.15: The participants' view concerning the language of negotiation course

Question 20 was addressed to the 23 engineers who use English in negotiations in order to check their opinion and attitude towards the idea of the negotiation language course. All the participants believe that a course in the language of negotiation will help them improve their negotiation language skills to overcome their communication problems and develop some self-reliance.

Question 21: If yes, what language abilities would you like to develop more in the language negotiation course?



Pie-chart 3.1.16: The rate of which language abilities to develop

Question 21 is included to see what to focus on and what hierarchy to follow on the basis of the obtained answers. The results thus obtained reveal the engineers' need to improve linguistic, communication and intercultural competences on approximately equal footing. This leads to take into consideration some refresher courses as far as general English is concerned prior to the language of negotiation BE course.

3.4 Findings

The first part of the questionnaire which concerns General English Proficiency Level required to get versed in BE courses revealed that the target population needs to have a good level of proficiency in English in order to learn the language of negotiations and develop negotiation skills.

The second part of the questionnaire which focuses on domains of language use and Language Skills is an analysis of the target and present situation needs. It is mainly oriented towards having an idea about the informants' language needs, lacks and wants in relation to the occupational activities. The analyses display the informants' difficulties encountered when engaged in negotiation activities showing necessity of a BE course.

The target situation analysis reveals that the participants negotiate with NS as well as NNS. However, the participants have difficulties in communicating with both of them at varying degrees. For this reason they use communicative strategies as a technique to avoid any communication failure. Moreover, a non negligible number of informants have problems to understand their counterparts' behavior or attitude during the negotiations. This brings to notice that cultural-awareness skill is a prerequisite in the course of business negotiations among the other skills. This is what the third part of the questionnaire intends to investigate.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter was an attempt to investigate the real needs of 30 engineers of the ENG department / SONATRACH. This target population use English as a medium of communication in both speaking and writing business skills. However, the analysis of the questionnaire's answers revealed that 23 engineers need English in negotiations. This means, they need to improve their speaking and listening skills to be effective users of English in negotiations and thus in order to discuss issues about SONATRACH projects (specifications, deadlines, planning) with both NNS and NS joints. This justifies the importance of a tailored business English course placing greater emphasis on the language of negotiation which is the objective of the next chapter.

Chapter four

Business Negotiation Syllabus: A Suggestion

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Syllabus Design: a Definition

4.3 Approaches to Syllabus Design

4.4 Syllabus Design Presentation

- **4.4.1** The Goal
- **4.4.2** The Approach
- **4.4.3** The Organization
- **4.4.4** Syllabus Design Parts

4.5 Presentation of Part One

- **4.5.1** Part One Objectives
- **4.5.2** Activities

4.6 Conclusion

4.1 Introduction

Because any type of research involves a theoretical part and a practical one, we shall introduce a summary of the preceding chapters constituting both parts before ending the practical study with chapter four.

Given importance to ESP; an approach based on learners' needs and their reasons for taking the ESP course, developing learners' communicative competence have been dealt within chapter one to be one amongst the core principles in designing the ESP course and writing proper teaching materials.

As to the sub-fields of ESP, BE which has been the concern of chapter two, the English language competence is considered a necessary advantage to conduct business activities effectively be it with native users of English or non native ones. Consequently, to negotiate successfully, nonnative job-experienced learners at different job hierarchies and in terms of their professional requirements are aware of their needs, wants and weaknesses. That is they need to acquire knowledge about appropriate language use for negotiating in English and overcoming cross-cultural communication difficulties.

Accordingly, teaching job-experienced learners requires a syllabus that traces the teaching route and depicts the different teaching steps. Besides, the approach to ESP teaching is more eclectic and task-based, hence, in chapter four we attempt to present a teaching programme entitled 'Business Negotiation Syllabus'. We aim at introducing the language of negotiation to BE practitioners in order to assist them in setting the course objectives and selecting suitable teaching materials that meet the target population's needs. Furthermore, the design of the negotiation syllabus follows our description concerning the teaching of the negotiation language and skills. On the best of our knowledge, the Business Negotiation Syllabus is suitable for the case of the ENG engineers because it focuses on improving learners' communication skills, language skills as well as developing their confidence and competence in using English in cross-cultural business negotiations.

4.2 Syllabus Design: A Definition

For Teaching ESBP, practitioners will invest a great deal of their energies in planning courses and preparing materials that must fit their learners' real life work situations. Therefore, they have to start by drawing a language framework that provides them with the content to be used in the course (i.e. topics to be covered, language structures and tasks and activities). By the term framework, we refer to 'syllabus' which Widdowson (1984:26 qtd in David Nunan, 1988: 6) defines as "…simply a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning."

Because several conflicting views exist on the nature of the term 'syllabus design', it is necessary to have an idea about the ways it has been approached. According to Nunan (op cit) "it is possible to distinguish a broad and a narrow approach to syllabus design." The scholars who adopt the narrow approach make a distinction between syllabus design and methodology. They view that the term is concerned essentially with the selection and grading of content, while methodology with the selection of learning tasks and activities (Nunan, 1988:5). In contrast to this view, those with a broader approach consider that there is no distinction between both because "with the event of communicative language teaching the distinction between content and tasks is difficult to sustain" (Nunan, op cit).

4.3 Approaches to Syllabus Design

Because several methods to English language teaching exist, a number of approaches to syllabus design are distinguished. According to Jack C. Richards and Theodore .S. Rodgers (2001: 26), James Dean Brown (1995) provides a list of seven basic syllabus types, namely: structural, situational, topical, functional, notional, skill-based and task-based. Each syllabus attempts to organize the content of a particular area of knowledge into manageable units (Hutchinson and Waters, 2006). For example, the structural syllabus focuses on aspects of grammar which are graded from the simple to the complex while the notional-functional syllabus is based on expressing conceptual meanings, i.e., notions of time, space, quantity through language and language use for communicative purposes, i.e., requests, greetings, apologies, cause and effect, etc (R.R Jordan, 1997:60). In the situational syllabus, the language items are associated with situations that are identified and taught in units (Keith Johnson, 2009: 317) but in the topic-based syllabus, the topics are selected from the students' target situation with the appropriate language to be used in each situation.

However, with the development of ESP as the learner centred approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), syllabus designers started to put emphasis on to the subject matter i.e., experiential content, through which the language is taught besides the functions (Nunan, 1988).

In fact, the syllabus is the most important document which says what to be learnt (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:80) for both teachers and learners. On the one hand, it helps teachers in setting their course objectives in order to feel confident and certain. On the other hand, it informs what learners will know by the end of the course. Thus, "… a syllabus reflects a view of language and of language learning …" (Jack. C. Richards and Willy A. Renandya, 2008: 65).

Consequently, teachers and syllabus writers must work together in order to design appropriate syllabi that meet the specific needs of the learners. According to Janice Yalden (1984:14) cited in Nunan (op cit) the syllabus is "an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual) and the activities which will take place in the classroom." So to speak, syllabus design involves giving a great consideration to learners' objectives, their proficiency level, materials, and the course duration.

4.4 Syllabus Design Presentation

For ESP language teaching, it is worth noting that course design requires elaborating a syllabus that corresponds to the needs assessment results. After the analysis of the participants' answers and the identification of their target and present situation needs, a Business Negotiation Syllabus is suggested. This latter is an attempt to provide the ESBP learners with real world tasks to help them improve their performance in different negotiation situations.

4.4.1 The Goal

The investigation carried out at the level of the ENG directorate enabled us to have an idea about the actual needs of the engineers. In fact, the company organizes an EGP and a BE course to the engineers to acquaint them with the basics of the English language, and business English in terms of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and communication skills. However, it is not sufficient for the engineers to be self-reliant while using English in activities which require introducing, greeting, requesting, agreeing and disagreeing and many other related situations. Furthermore, the investigation revealed that they need to develop both speaking and listening skills, communication skills, language fluency and cross-cultural knowledge in the case of business negotiations.

The objective behind the business negotiation syllabus is to put greater emphasis on developing learners' competence in all key communication language skills such as listening and speaking using tasks and activities that enables them to join knowledge of their subject matter and knowledge of language.

4.4.2 The Approach

Because negotiation is a workplace spoken genre (Almut Koester, 2004) and a business speaking skill, the business negotiation syllabus is a compromise of two approaches, namely the skill-based approach and the task-based teaching and learning approach. By adopting both approaches, we aim at developing learners' language proficiency and communicative competence focusing on learning the appropriate negotiation skills and improving oral business communication.

The skill-based syllabus is based on a certain number of language skills. According to R.R Jordan (1997: 61) this type of syllabus sometimes "involves a syllabus being based on one or more of the four traditional language skills." These skills, in fact, involve macro and micro skills. Since the suggested syllabus entails teaching the language of negotiation and negotiation skills, both speaking and listening are the macro skills through which the syllabus content teaching is based on. In terms of the micro-skills, summarizing, paraphrasing, questioning are also included since active listening and speaking are concerned with such kind of abilities. Other types of skills namely communicative skills are also considered in order to convey a particular communicative meaning (giving opinions, ideas and information).

Teaching the language of negotiation and negotiation skills through the skill-based syllabus focuses on performance in relation to specific tasks. For this reason, the business negotiation syllabus aims at grouping the learners' linguistic abilities to practice the different business negotiation skills through speaking and listening activities which are organized in terms of occurrence in the negotiation process and degree of usefulness. In line with this, James Dean Brown (1995:7) points out "the selection of skills is based on the author's perception of their usefulness, whereas their sequencing is usually based on some sense of chronology, frequency, or relative usefulness of the skills."

With the task-based language teaching approach, the learners will practice at the end of each unit a task in which they have to reproduce the model they studied at the beginning of the unit in relation to an experienced or present work situation. According to Kris Van Den Branden (2012: 132) "In a task-based approach, students are confronted with approximations and simulations of the kinds of tasks that they are supposed to be able to perform outside the classroom and learn about relevant forms of language while trying to understand and produce the language that these communicative tasks involve."

In general, the suggested syllabus attempts to provide job-experienced learners with opportunities to improve their speaking and listening skills and deploy their grammatical knowledge (David Nunan, 2004: 7) to negotiate effectively and appropriately. Furthermore, it gives importance to the learners' personal experience throughout the learning experience by actively involving them in the learning process, i.e. learning by doing (Nunan, 2004:12). This theory of task-based language teaching (TBLT) is known as experiential learning. As Viljo Kohonen (1992: 37) notes

> Experiential learning theory provides the basic philosophical view of learning as part of personal growth. The goal is to enable the learner to become increasingly self-directed and responsible for his or her own learning. This process means a gradual shift of the initiative to the learner, encouraging him or her to bring in personal contributions and experiences. Instead of the teacher setting the tasks and standards of acceptable performance, the learner is increasingly in charge of his or her own learning. (qtd in Nunan, 2004:13)

4.4.3 The Organization

As noted earlier, syllabus design is a matter of selecting and grading of content. This procedure involves decision making as to the organization of units in which learners must gradually acquire and use language knowledge to perform tasks. Peter Robinson (2001:288) points out "Syllabus design is based essentially on a decision about the units of classroom activity, and the sequence in which they are to be performed, and these two decisions have sequences for the role of learner in assimilating the language encountered in classrooms."

Jane Willis (1996) offers a task learning framework to illustrate how teachers apply task based language learning in their teaching and what the tasks look like. Her framework consists of three stage task cycle, namely "pre-task, carrying out the task and post task language feedback via a form of language consciousness-raising" (Freda Mishan, 2013:272). The pedagogical task framework of the suggested syllabus undertakes the three phases so that at the end of each unit learners will be able to perform a phase of negotiation, and at the end of the training, they will be able to perform a whole negotiating process.

In the Pre task, the teacher selects the adequate material and the appropriate language knowledge that is required in each phase of negotiation. At this stage the learners are introduced to the subject. The task cycle involves working with and using the target language. In the syllable to be designed, this phase consists of preparing the learners to deliver a phase of negotiation by outlining the necessary communication skills to be used and the relevant language. During the realization of the task the learners are videotaped because the post task phase will consist of the self-evaluation stage in which learners are asked to assess their performance and note the negative and positive points.

4.4.4 Syllabus Design Parts

The business negotiation syllabus consists of two parts designed for intermediate and upper intermediate level job-experienced learners. It approaches the negotiation skills and language progressively adapting the model proposed by Anne Laws (2000:5) namely "Establishing Rapport and Discussion: starting the negotiation, proposals, bargaining, and reaching settlement and concluding". The syllabus, in general, aims to teach learners the language of negotiations, introduce learners to interesting and relevant listening materials that are required in the engineering domain, improve listening comprehension, teach the grammar points required in negotiation, improve verbal communication through class discussion and raise learners' awareness on key cultural issues that may lead to misunderstanding and communication breakdown using authentic material.

As regards the parts, each one tackles a phase of negotiation process dealing with the skills, the language and cultural issues relevant to negotiations in addition to practice activities. Since negotiation is an oral practice, the phase is reinforced with pre-listening and post-listening activities.

The pre-listening activities set the stage for the listening by introducing the topic and key vocabulary, helpful to understanding the listening task. These activities turn around a subject that learners already know, so as to put them at ease and stimulate further interest in the selected topic.

The post-listening task checks listening comprehension, new vocabulary understanding, deals with the relevant grammar points and triggers a class discussion as a practice. Each part is also structured into four sections: the skills section, the language focus section, the cultural issues and the practice one. The activities are organized in pairs and then extended to group work.

The Skills section is meant to build learners' confidence to deal with all phases of the negotiation process so that learners develop their own styles and strategies of negotiation. The Language Focus section is devoted to reviewing and reinforcing learners' linguistic competence. It includes exercises to practice key language functions and structures. The Cultural Issues section centers on aspects such as attitude, behavior, and body language that feature different cultures which are likely to occur in the negotiations. It aims to raise learners' awareness concerning cultural differences in cross-cultural communication by attracting their attention on the impact of the cultural background. The Practice section involves tasks dealing with concrete situations in a form of simulations taken or adapted from their occupation activities.

The content of the syllabus is inspired and adapted from *The Market leader* by David Cotton, David Flavey and Simon Kent (2008), *Negotiations* by Anne Laws (2000), *Effective Negotiating* by Jeremy Comfort & Derek Utley (1998) and *English for Business Communication* by Simon Sweeney(1997). (See table below)

Parts	Skills units	Language focus	Cultural issues	Practice
Establishing rapport	-Socializing -Opening statement -Switching to negotiation	-Introducing people - Greeting people - Making small talks Phrases and idiomatic expressions Phrases and idiomatic expressions	Aspects of Culture in socialization	-Drilling -Writing and practicing dialogues - Role playing -Initiating a negotiation process
Discussion	- introducing the agenda - setting and clarifying position -showing interest -Making Proposals and counterproposals Bargaining -Reaching settlement and concluding	-planning the items of a discussion -giving opinion -Suggesting -agreeing -disagreeing - Suggestinga procedure -Proposing -Responding to -suggestions -Objecting -Reasoning -Reassuring -Giving a hint -Clarifying -Identifying obstacles -Compromising- -Delaying -Refusing a proposal -Accepting a proposal -Closing / summarizing -Final greetings	Cross-cultural negotiation	-Simulations -Panel discussions -Role playing -practice of -phrases and idiomatic expressions related to negotiations

4.5 Presentation of Part One

Part one which focuses on establishing rapport is about the communication skills, language focus and cultural issues related to the first phases of a negotiation process. The unit aims to provide learners with knowledge of how to use appropriate language to build a long term and a good relationship with the other party. It is reinforced by some practice including drilling for the different language aspects introduced in dialogue writing and practicing since negotiation is mostly oral, followed by further practice encompassing the different language items introduced in a simulation limited to initiating a negotiation process. (See table below)

Table 4.1: Part One

Part one	**Skills units**	**Language focus**	**Cultural issues**	**Practice**
Establishing rapport	-Socializing -Opening statement -Switching to negotiation	-Introducing people - Greeting people - Making small talks Phrases and idiomatic expressions Phrases and idiomatic expressions	Aspects of Culture in socialization	-Drilling -Writing and -practicing dialogues -Role playing -Initiating a negotiation process

4.5.1 Part One Objectives

Rapport is a word bearing the idea of seeking to establish harmonious relationship. It involves the search to minimize differences and highlighting features of sameness. Building rapport is all about matching ourselves with another person. Building rapport happens to very essential in any interpersonal communication mainly when it happens in a case where the parties meet for the first time. Given the fact that negotiations are types of meetings around business issues, establishing rapport happens to be important to pave the way to a relaxed negotiation process. As regards nonnative speakers of English concerned with negotiations with native and nonnative users of English, knowing the language for establishing rapport is essential before getting started.

Thus, having the capacity to introduce others and getting introduced for the first time in business situations displays an image of business and oneself. It serves as a warming up to the negotiations. Learning how to win direct trust leads certainly to strong sustainable deals. Rapport requires that those concerned with negotiations to develop the ability to get in the shoe of the other party showing the fact of having some common bond. In general, when meeting somebody for the first time in negotiation activities, introducing each other will help both parties to feel more relaxed and thus communicate more effectively. It is within this perspective that establishing rapport is included as the syllabus so that learners practice and develop the necessary language skills namely learning how to socialize with visitors, how to make an opening statement, and how to switch to the negotiation.

As far as the language focus is concerned, along the two parts learners will practice vocabulary, structures, phrases and grammar points to welcoming people, formal and informal greetings, and formal and informal introductions (getting to know each other, making offers and invitations for having drinks). Making small talks such as asking about recent events, asking about the trip or the hotel, and talking about the weather are cases of topics to start conversation according to the existing relation with other party. In fact small talks are conversations about topics which are not important or personal.

Cultural issues are also other elements to give importance to in any negotiation process which happens in a cross cultural case. Learning about the components of a cross cultural negotiation process increases success and helps to avoid barriers and failures in the international business domain.

Because language is among the barriers in business communication, occurring mainly when the users do not share a similar control of the same language linguistically and culturally and because attitudes toward accents and dialects also create barriers in international business communication. Therefore, understanding the linguistic differences be they verbal or nonverbal plays an important role in international business communication. Language failure may be due to subtle distinctions from language to language; and culturally-based variations among speakers of the same language. It is for this reason that cross cultural issues relevant to the language of negotiation is addressed through some authentic materials to bring the learners notice the importance to get knowledgeable about the cultural differences in terms of address, behavior and body language. For example, the use of Parisian French in Quebec, of Mexican Spanish in Spain, or Indian English in the United States or Britain is all noticeable in terms of differences. A lack of familiarity with the relevant cultural differences, even if the user is fluent may result in negotiation problems.

At the end of part one of the syllabus the learners should be aware of the importance of the phase of establishing rapport before starting the negotiations as well as the impact of some cultural aspects. Finally, they will put into practice all the knowledge they acquired in this phase through a role playing activity and a simulation of negotiation processes.

4.5.2 Activities

SECTION ONE

I. Pre-listening: Discuss these questions

1. What do you usually do when meeting your counterparts for the first time?
2. Do you directly start the negotiation?

II. Listening practice

Activity 1:
Here is a video with different clips of people introducing others in English:

(Some of these introductions are formal; others are informal, awkward, and funny).

Listen carefully and list

a) The different ways of introduction
b) In pairs classify them according to:

1) Formal 2) Informal 3) Awkward 4) Funny

Source: http://www.englishforbusinesscommunication.com/how-to-formally-introduce-others-for-the-firsttime-in-business-meetings/

Activity 2

Here is another video which displays people at the start of a meeting.

Listen carefully and match these extracts of sentences from the conversation with the headings below.

Source: http://www.viaway.com/view/21674600/episode-12-negotiating-part-1extracts

1. Well, we'd better get down to business.
2. Mr Tang, to start off with, I just want to say we believe we can offer you a very good deal and come up with a win-win result.
3. I hope you had a pleasant flight over.
4. Hello, Lin Chan, sales manager for national sugar and my associate John Martin.
5. Very pleased to meet you. I'm Victor Tang and this is my legal adviser, Sue Panay.

a) Introductions and greetings
b) Small talk
c) Switching to negotiation
d) Making an opening statement

Notice the order of functions before to start talking about business.

Source: adapted from The Business of English, episode 12. www.australianetwork.com

Post- listening: Drilling

1. Language of Introduction

1) Practice the following with each other:

- I´d like to introduce you to ……………..
- There´s someone I´d like you to meet, this is ……………….
- I'd like you to meet someone. This …………………………
- I'd like to introduce a colleague of mine. ………………………..
- May I introduce someone to you? This is ………………………
- Have you met …………………..?

2) Practice the following to communicate the position of the person being introduced using expressions such as: be responsible for, in charge of , ….

- She / He is responsible for……………..
- She / He is in charge of …………………
- He / She is my …………

3) Fill in the blanks introducing the other company staff and her / his position

- I´d like to introduce you to ……., he is in charge of …………. .
- There is someone I´d like you to meet, this is ……... She is the…….. …..
- Have you already met ……………..of the company? He is responsible for the …………………..department.
- By the way, I´d like to introduce you to ……..and………, they are in charge of ………..relations.

2. Language of Greetings

1) Use the following greeting phrases in a dialogue of your own.

Formal	***Informal***
It's nice to meet you.	Glad to meet you.
I'm pleased to meet you.	Good to meet you.
I'm very happy to meet you.	-
How do you do?	How are you?*
Hello	Hi

2) Practice the following by finding equivalent expressions to the example.

e.g.: It's nice to meet you.

- It's a …………… to meet you.
- It’s a ……………. to meet you.
- I'm ……………. to meet you.
- Very ……………………….. .

3) Fill in the gaps by introducing yourself, position, the team member, his/her position and also greeting each other.

A: Hello, I’m ……………………., ………………………… and this is my …………………, ………………………….. .
B: It’s a …………………………….. . I’m …………………….., …………………………….. . Let me introduce you to ………………, he is in charge of ………………….. .

C: ....

III. Small talk practice

When starting a negotiation, it is important to follow the greeting by what we call a small talk in order to break the ice or to create a friendly atmosphere for the meeting.

1) Practice with these examples.
- I hope you had a pleasant flight.
- How was your flight?
- Is it your first visit to London?

2) Think of other topics to have a small talk with your partners?

IV. Starting the Negotiation

After the greetings and the small talk, you need to signal for the startup of the negotiations. You need to move to suggesting that it is time to talk of business.

1) Practice with these examples.

- Well, we’d better get down to business.
- Shall we get down to business?
- Well, how about we get down to business?

V. Making an Opening Statement

An opening statement tells the other person what you expect to obtain from the meeting. The opening statement is always made by the person who requested the meeting.

- Let me begin by saying ………………………………….. .
- I'd like to start off by saying …………………………………..
- Let me kick things off by ……………………………………….

Source: adapted from Effective Negotiating, Jeremy Comfort, Oxford University Press, 1998 and The Business of English, episode 12. www.Australianetwork.com

SECTION TWO

1. Learning key expressions for:

Introducing	*Greeting*	*Small talk*
I'm ….. and this is …. Let me introduce you to ….. Have you met ….?	Formal Nice/ Pleased to meet you Less formal Good to see you again It's nice to be here	I hope you had a pleasant flight. How was your flight? Is it your first visit to …

Starting the negotiation
I wondered if I could start by saying... We're short of time, so let's get started …

Source: adapted from Effective Negotiating, Jeremy Comfort, Oxford University Press, 1998 and The Business of English, episode 12. www.Australianetwork.com

2. **Making suggestions**

Suggestions are important in negotiations because they sense as proposing something to the other party and not dictating or ordering it. In the establishing rapport phase suggestions are used to signal the beginning of the negotiation.

1) Practice with these examples:

- We'*d better get* down to business.
- *It's time to* get down to business
- *Shall* we get down to business?
- *How about* we get down to business?
- *Let's* get down to business.

2) Re-write the following sentences by using the expression between brackets

a. It's time we talk about the price. (had better)
b. How about we listen to your offer? (let's)
c. Shall we meet again? ((how about)
d. We'd better start directly with the production cost? (let's)

3. **Useful phrasal verbs:** ***get down to, to start off with / by,***

Read through these examples and find an equivalent in meaning of the underlined phrases.

a. Well, we'd better get down to business.
b. Let me start off by saying.

SECTION THREE

I. Pre-listening

Discuss these questions

a. Which countries do you deal with in your business?
b. How is their culture different from yours?
c. Which aspects of your culture are important for business visitors to know about?

II. Listening practice

This is an audio activity of a cross-cultural expert in business talking about important aspects of culture and how cultural knowledge can help when doing business internationally.

(Source: Market Leader: Intermediate Business, David Cotton, David Flavey and Simon Kent, Pearson Longman, 2008pp 166)

Listen and complete with the visible and invisible aspects of culture in terms of business

Visible aspects	Invisible aspects
-greetings. - -	-building relationships -attitudes to time -status

III. Post- listening

Read the comments made by people doing business in other cultures. Match them to the aspects of culture in the box.

a) Age / status	**b)** body language	**c)** entertaining	**d)** humor
e) showing emotion	**f)** socializing	**g)** time	

1. Everything went very, very slowly, and a lot of people arrived late. There was a lot of tea drinking and chatting, but nothing seemed to happen. I wanted to make some decisions.
2. There was a lot of nodding when we were making our offer and we seemed to have a deal. But suddenly, we didn't. It was all very unusual to me. I thought nodding means 'yes, we agree'.
3. At the drinks reception, I tried to keep the conversation going, but they didn't seem interested. They just looked bored. Maybe they were shy. It was a bit awkward, really-just too quiet for me. In my country we like a lively conversation. Perhaps they just didn't like me.
4. I tried to make a joke at the start of the negotiations, to break the ice and make people feel relaxed, but nobody laughed. Everybody was serious.
5. I'm not sure I was taken very seriously, as I'm quite young. It was a bit strange. There were four people at the meeting with us, but only one person-the oldest one-spoke. He asked me when the boss was arriving, even though I told them I was there to make the deal.
6. We had a very stressful meal. After I finished each course, more and more food arrived. I didn't want to be rude, but the more I ate, the more they brought. Some of my colleagues couldn't eat some of the more 'unusual' dishes.

Discussion

a. Do any of the situations in the exercise above seem familiar to you?

b. Which situation would make you feel the most/least comfortable?

c. Do any of the situations in exercise 2 seem familiar to you?

d. Which situation would make you feel the most/least comfortable?

Source: Market Leader: *Intermediate Business,* David Cotton, David Flavey and Simon Kent, Pearson Longman, 2008pp 120-21

SECTION FOUR

In this section, the learners can watch for another time the video in activity 2, Skills section in order to get inspired. Their performance is videotaped for assessing strengths and weaknesses.

Role play:

Your company is meeting representatives of GE Oil and Gas, a manufacturer of a new model of gas turbines called Heavy Duty Gas Turbine. You are meeting for the first time to discuss details about the product, price, shipping costs and installation.

Activity 1:

1. Suggest phrases for each of the following at the start of the negotiation.
    a) To introduce yourself and team members to the other side.
    b) To develop small talk (trip, weather, hotel)
    c) To mention plans for lunch, make your visitors fell welcome (see city centre, local restaurant)
    d) To suggest you start talking about business
    e) To explain general aim or purpose of the meeting
    f) Say what your side wants from the meeting (establish a beginning of a partnership/ know details about the product/ price)
2. Try to bring all the phrases above together in a single opening statement.

Activity 2:

1. Think of a negotiation you may be involved in at work with another company.

With your partner prepare

- How do you need to build a good relationship with the other party from the start?
- Make an opening statement by expressing your objective from the negotiation.
- Remember to include opening welcoming remarks and some general comments on your expectations for a successful meeting and an agreement which leads to a lasting partnership.

2. Perform in class and invert roles (visitor/host)

Source: adapted from English for Business Communication, S. Sweeney, CUP, 1997 p107-109

4.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we presented our "business negotiation syllabus" suggested for teaching the negotiation speaking genre to ESBP learners. It is a combination of the skill-based approach and task-based approach which are employed at the level of each part stages. The syllabus consists of two parts which focus on teaching the six phases of negotiations including the negotiation skills through listening and speaking activities. Each part ends with practice stage in which learners are presented a task to practice the knowledge they acquired. In sum, the objective behind such choice of approaches and content is to engage the learners linguistically and pragmatically in the classroom tasks and raise their awareness on key language and cultural aspects develop language negotiation proficiency.

General Conclusion

This study which is concerned with the analysis of nonnative speakers' perceived needs to use English appropriately and effectively in cross-cultural business negotiations targets ENG engineers with different job profile fields namely electrical, mechanical, and petrochemicals occupational domains. They are all in one way or another concerned with business English use in presentations, meetings and negotiations in particular which is the concern of the investigation from language skills optical angle.

Because the company ponders the mastery of the English language a necessary asset in hiring the staff, the engineers perceive the necessity to improve their language skills as well as develop their communication skills while conducting the engineering projects with the foreign joints. This explains how important the English language is and how learning the language and developing proficiency is also important.

To have a clear picture on the real needs of the target and present situations, a questionnaire was administered to 30 engineers. The findings revealed that the informants encounter some communication difficulties while negotiating with foreign counterparts be it nonnative or native speakers of English. Although they have already received courses in general and business English, they still require knowledge of the use of English for specific purposes. Moreover, they need to improve their speaking and listening skills to be effective users of English in negotiations to conclude projects destined to develop the different LNG plants.

The results thus obtained reveal that the engineers need to acquire knowledge about how to use English appropriately and effectively in negotiations. They also need to improve their negotiation skills since this latter entail active listening and speaking. Besides, they encounter communication difficulties with their counterparts be they native or nonnative speakers of English which is manifested in their use of communication strategies as an alternative to sustain the conversation and end the meeting successfully. So to speak, although the engineers show a good command of the English language, they still require a specific course in English for business purposes so that to increase their level of proficiency in the language as well as develop self-confidence through the mastery of the negotiation skills, and awareness of the effect of the cultural background knowledge on the negotiation outcome.

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Annex

Annex 1

Figure 1.9 Learners' performance of the tablet armchair task

Figure 3.4 The tablet armchair

Native speaker	1:	her desk
	2:	one of the front, desks
	3:	on her . . .on her, ah, desk
	4:	her desk
	5:	where that girl was sitting
Non-native speaker	6:	the . . . chair
	7:	the little table but eh what is the name of . . . the . . . in his chair
	8:	her table
	9:	a . . . chair. a desk
	10:	the arm, of the chair. the arm of the chair is when the, when you use for to write

Table 3.4 Referring to a tablet armchair

Source: Tarone and Yule, 1989:108

Annex 2

Table 2.2: Malaysian Survey Result of the Speaking Tasks

Language Skills	Problems (Faced by Students/Graduates)	Comments (from Interviews)
Speaking		
Communicative events:		
• speaking to customers	• lack of confidence	• job interviews are in English
• participating in meetings	• inability to find the right phrases	• message is more important than grammar
• handling enquiries	• inability to organize ideas	
• communicating with colleagues and superiors	• pronunciation	
• making and receiving telephone calls		
• answering questions at job interviews		

Source: Dudley-Evans & St John 1996:5

Annex 3

Market Leader Syllabus

Map of the book

	Discussion	Texts	Language work	Skills	Case study
Unit 1 Careers page 6	Discuss ideas about careers	Reading: Ten ways to improve your career – *Business Wire* Listening: Two people talk about ways to improve your career	Words that go with *career* Modals 1: ability, requests and offers	Telephoning: making contact	Fast-Track Inc.: Choose the best candidate for the job of sales manager Writing: e-mail
Unit 2 Selling online page 14	Discuss shopping online	Reading: Worry for retailers as web shopping clicks into place – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with the Head of E-Commerce at Argos	Words and expressions for talking about buying and selling Modals 2: *must, need to, have to, should*	Negotiating: reaching agreement	Lifetime Holidays: Negotiate a joint venture Writing: letter
Unit 3 Companies page 22	Discuss types of companies	Reading: The world's most respected companies – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with IKEA's UK Deputy Country Manager	Words for talking about companies Present simple and present continuous	Presenting your company	Valentino Chocolates: Prepare an investment plan Writing: a proposal document
Revision unit A page 30					
Unit 4 Great ideas page 34	Discuss ideas	Reading: Three articles about great ideas Listening: An interview with the Head of the Innovation Works	Verb and noun combinations Past simple and past continuous	Successful meetings	Fabtek: Choose the best ideas for three new products Writing: report
Unit 5 Stress page 42	Discuss causes of stress Discuss gender-related qualities Discuss and rank stressful jobs	Reading: A career change – *The AGE* Listening: An interview with an authority on stress management	Words about stress in the workplace Past simple and present perfect	Participating in discussions	Genova Vending Machines: Develop a plan to reduce stress Writing: report
Unit 6 Entertaining page 50	Discuss corporate entertaining	Reading: Corporate entertainment – *CNN* Listening: An interview with two experts on corporate entertaining	Words for talking about eating and drinking Multi-word verbs	Socialising: greetings and small talk	Organising a conference: Choose the best location Writing: e-mail
Revision unit B page 58					

Grammar reference: page 118 **Writing file:** page 130

	Discussion	Texts	Language work	Skills	Case study
Unit 7 Marketing page 62	Discuss ideas about marketing	Reading: Nº 5: The Film – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with a marketing consultant	Word partnerships Questions	Telephoning: exchanging information	Kristal Water: Relaunch a product Writing: sales leaflet
Unit 8 Planning page 70	Discuss planning	Reading: Investing in Nizhny Novgorod – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with a leading business adviser	Words for talking about planning Talking about future plans (*plan, hope, expect, would like, want; going to;* present continuous)	Meetings: interrupting and clarifying	The voice of business: Plan a radio programme Writing: letter
Unit 9 Managing people page 78	Discuss qualities and skills of a good manager	Reading: Young managers – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with a professor of organisational behaviour	Verbs and prepositions Reported speech	Socialising and entertaining	The way we do things: Improve ways of working together Writing: report
Revision unit C page 86					
Unit 10 Conflict page 90	Quiz on managing conflict	Reading: Conflict management – *Guardian* Listening: An interview with a management consultant	Word building Conditionals	Negotiating: dealing with conflict	European Campers: Negotiate a solution to a problem with an employee Writing: letter
Unit 11 New business page 98	Discuss conditions for starting new businesses and public- and private-sector companies	Reading: The human touch – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with a consultant to new businesses	Economic terms Time clauses	Dealing with numbers	Marcia Lee Jeans: Choose a location for a new factory Writing: letter
Unit 12 Products page 106	Discuss your favourite products	Reading: Fruits of the rainforest – *Financial Times* Listening: Five people talk about the best thing they have ever bought	Adjectives for products Passives	Presenting a product	Minerva A.G.: Choose innovative products for a store Writing: report
Revision unit D page 114					

Activity file: page 136 **Audio scripts**: page 145 **Vocabulary file**: page 157

Annex 4

Questionnaire

The objective of the present study is the analysis of the Algerian engineers' target and present situation needs to overcome their communication difficulties while negotiating in English.

Gender: ◯ **Male** ◯ **Female**

Age:

Job title:

Company:

Educational Level:

Professional Expérience

***These details do not constitute basis for data analysis.**

1- Have you already learned english?

☐ Yes ☐ No

2- Please, indicate where you have learned it.

☐ Middle and High schools

☐ University

☐ Institute

☐ Company

3- Which case fits your level in English?

☐ Beginners

☐ Elementary

☐ Intermediate

☐ Upper Intermediate

☐ Advanced

4- Do you use English at work?

☐ Yes ☐ No

5- If yes, please indicate the context of use.

☐ Meetings

☐ Negotiations

☐ Presentations

☐ Written communication

☐ Other

6- How often do you use English in meetings, negotiations and presentations?

☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Always

7- What are the business partners' nationalities with whom you negotiate in English?

☐ British
☐ American
☐ Other

8- Did you have any kind of communication difficulties while negotiating in English with these partners?

☐ Yes ☐ No

9- If yes, please indicate the frequency of difficulty.

☐ Always ☐ often ☐ rarely

10- Please, indicate the kind of difficulty you have.

☐ Speaking fluently and spontaneously
☐ Defending a viewpoint clearly and easily
☐ Understanding the other party when speaking
☐ Understanding the other party's behavior and attitude
☐ Understanding the tactics and strategies of the other party
☐ Finding a misunderstanding in the contract signature

11- Do you encounter the same language difficulties with the foreign staff, both native and nonnative speakers of English?

☐ Yes ☐ No

12- In which case do you encounter most of the difficulties?

☐ British ☐ American ☐ Other

13- What do you do when the other party is a NNS and you can't understand him / her because of his / her accent?

☐ Ask for repetition ☐ Stay patient and ask for help
☐ Cancel the meeting ☐ Other

14- What do you do when the other party is a NS and you can't understand him / her because he / she speaks fast and uses expressions you do not understand?

☐ Asking for speaking slowly and explaining these expressions
☐ Neglecting these expressions but insisting on speaking
☐ Trying to understand in general without caring for details
☐ Other

15- What do you do when you do not find the appropriate word to express an idea?

☐ Avoid it ☐ Describe and explain

☐ Switch to another language ☐ Other

16- Do you think these communication problems are related to knowledge of BE in general and knowledge of how to use English for negotiating in particular?

☐ Yes ☐ No

17- Have you already studied Business English?

☐ Yes ☐ No

18- If yes, indicate the institution in which you learned BE.

☐ ALC ☐ CPE

19- Which case fits your level in Business English?

☐ Elementary ☐ Intermediate ☐ Upper intermediate

20- Do you think a language negotiation course will help you overcome communication problems during the negotiation activities?

☐ Yes ☐ No

21- If yes, what language abilities would you like to develop more in the language negotiation course?

☐ Learn grammar and vocabulary

☐ Improve pronunciation

☐ Develop listening skill

☐ Develop speaking skill

☐ Learn the strategies of communication

☐ Develop intercultural competence

☐ Other

For more details, please contact me on: yaminahouti@hotmail.com

Huge thanks for your cooperation.

Annex 5 **Questionnaire (French version)**

L'objectif de cette étude est de faire une analyse sur ce dont un ingénieur Algérien a besoin en matière de registre langagé de négociation pour devenir un locuteur professionnelle en matière de communication en anglais.

Sexe: ○ **Homme** ○ **Femme**

Age: ☐

Fonction: ☐

Société: ☐

Niveau d'éducation: ☐

Expérience professionnelle: ☐

***Ces détails ne font pas objet de critères pour l'analyse des données.**

1- Est-ce que vous avez déjà appris l'anglais?
☐ Oui ☐ Non

2- Si c'est oui, indiquez les cycles ou vous l'avez appris.
☐ **a-** Moyen et secondaire
☐ **b-** Université
☐ **c-** Institut
☐ **d-** Entreprise
e- Autre ☐

3- Quelle évaluation de votre niveau estimez-vous avoir?
☐ **a-** débutant
☐ **b-** Elémentaire
☐ **c-** Intermédiaire
☐ **d-** Intermédiaire supérieur
☐ **e-** Avancé

4- Est-ce que vous utilisez l'anglais au travail ?
☐ Oui ☐ Non

5- Si c'est oui, dans quel contexte l'utilisez-vous ?
☐ **a-** Réunion
☐ **b-** Négociations
☐ **c-** Présentations
☐ **d-** Communication écrite
e- Autre ☐

6- Veuillez exprimer par fréquence de temps l'utilisation de l'anglais dans les réunions, négociations, et présentations.
☐ Rarement ☐ Parfois
☐ Souvent ☐ Toujours

7- Quelles sont les nationalités des partenaires avec qui vous négociez vos projets en anglais ?

☐ Britannique
☐ Américaine
☐ Autre

8- Est-ce qu'il vous est arrivé d'avoir des difficultés relatives à la langue durant vos négociations avec ces partenaires ?

☐ Oui ☐ Non

9- Si c'est oui, veuillez exprimez la fréquence de temps des difficultés.

☐ Toujours ☐ Souvent ☐ Rarement

10- Veuillez indiquer le type de difficulté que vous rencontrez.

☐ Vous n'arrivez pas à vous exprimer couramment et spontanément.
☐ Vous n'arrivez pas à exprimer et défendre votre point de vue clairement et facilement.
☐ Vous n'arrivez pas à comprendre l'autre partie à cause de son accent.
☐ Vous n'arrivez pas à comprendre le comportement et l'attitude de l'autre partie.
☐ Vous n'arrivez pas à comprendre les stratégies et les tactiques de l'autre partie.
☐ Tous s'est bien passés mais lors la signature du contrat vous trouvez qu'il y a eu un malentendu.

11- Est-ce que vous rencontrez le même type de difficulté avec toutes les nationalités?

☐ Oui ☐ Non

12- Quelles sont les nationalités avec qui vous rencontrez le plus de difficulté ?

☐ Britannique
☐ Américaine
☐ Autre

13- Quand l'autre partie et un locuteur non natif et vous n'arrivez pas à comprendre ce qu'il dit à cause de son accent,

☐ vous lui demandez de répéter lentement et clairement.
☐ vous restez patient et demandez à vos collègues de vous aider.
☐ vous annulez la réunion pour un autre jour.
Autre

14- Quand l'autre partie et un locuteur natif et vous n'arrivez pas à le comprendre parce qu'il parle rapidement et utilise des expressions un peu complexes,

☐ vous lui demandez de parler lentement et d'expliquer ces expressions.
☐ vous négligez les expressions, mais vous insistez sur le point de ralentir.
☐ vous essayez de comprendre en général sans faire attention aux détails.
Autre

15- Quand un mot vous échappe en anglais et vous n'arrivez pas à le trouver pour vous exprimer,

☐ vous l'évitez complètement.

☐ vous essayez de décrire et d'expliquer.

☐ vous le dites dans une autre langue (arabe ou français).

Autre

16- Pensez-vous que ce type de difficulté est lié à la maitrise de l'anglais des affaires en général et du registre langagé des négociations en particulier?

☐ Oui ☐ Non

17- Avez-vous déjà étudié l'anglais des affaires (business English) ?

☐ Oui ☐ Non

18- Si c'est oui, quel niveau avez-vous atteint ?

☐ **a-** Elémentaire

☐ **b-** Intermédiaire

☐ **c-** Intermédiaire supérieur

19- Indiquez l'institution ou vous avez appris l'anglais des affaires?

☐ ALC

☐ CPE

20- Est-ce que vous pensez qu'apprendre le registre langagé des négociations en anglais vous aidera à surmonter vos difficultés de communication ?

☐ Oui ☐ Non

22- Si oui, quelles compétences voulez-vous développer dans le cours du langage des négociations ?

☐ Apprendre la grammaire et le vocabulaire.

☐ Améliorer la prononciation.

☐ Développer l'écoute pour comprendre les différents accents des locuteurs.

☐ Développer l'oral pour défendre une opinion, exprimer un refus, résumer le contenu des négociations, etc.

☐ Apprendre les stratégies de communication.

☐ S'ouvrir sur la culture de l'autre pour pouvoir interpréter ses gestes, attitudes, et comportement durant les négociations.

Autre

Pour plus de détails, n'hésitez pas à me contacter sur: yaminahouti@hotmail.com

Je vous remercie pour votre coopération.