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# Developing Business Negotiation Language Skills in the Business English Course

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## *Dedication*

**I dedicate my humble work to**

"the memory of my dearly loved Father. May ALLAH have mercy on him."

And to all the members of my family; my mother, husband and little princesses; Ayan and Rissal, who endured this long process with me, always offering support and love.

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*"This project would not have been possible without the support of many people who owe me deep expressions of gratitude and thankfulness."*

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# Abstract

In today's globalized world, Algeria, like the rest of the globe, recognizes the importance of English as the lingua franca for business negotiation. This reality compelled the Algerian companies to implement language courses conceived to enhance human resources' language proficiency and communication abilities. This demand raises concerns about whether the courses effectively integrate practical negotiation scenarios that professionals might encounter. Additionally, it is essential for these programs to not only focus on language skills but also incorporate cultural aspects that can impact communication in a business context. By doing so, the courses would better prepare participants for real-world interactions, ensuring they are equipped to maneuver both linguistic and cultural challenges. Hence, it was motivating to investigate the use of English in a corporate setting given interest in the business negotiation genre and the Algerian company as a context for conducting research in the field of English for specific purposes (ESP). The research can provide valuable insights that inform more effective English language teaching methods tailored for specific business purposes (ESBP). The investigation was conducted with a sample population of thirty-six managers and executives with a general English proficiency level varying from elementary to advanced. The research context involved three national and two multinational companies exercising in different areas of industry: oil and gas industry, seawater desalination, medical furniture, paintings, and trucks and machine industry, in addition to a satellite development center. The study aimed to depict their language needs by uncovering the challenges encountered when negotiating in English, thereby identifying the gaps that require improvement to be addressed in the BE course. A questionnaire, therefore, was used to realize the needs analysis study of which the results revealed a majority of participants (31), who, lacking BE learning experience, often met misunderstanding and miscommunication problems as they do not possess the required language proficiency to negotiate efficiently in English. The study highlighted the significance of a BE course that aligns with the learners' specific needs, thereby proposing a syllabus tailored to address the needs of intermediate-level, job-experienced learners with a comprehensive approach offering a framework of interactive and practical activities that reflect real-world scenarios, enabling them to apply their skills in meaningful contexts. The syllabus ensures an effective development of the learners' speaking and listening skills by addressing both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects.

**Key words:**

BE course - Business negotiation - English for specific business purposes - Enhancing proficiency - Language proficiency - Language skills - Needs analysis - Non-linguistic skills - Oral communication efficiency

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## List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

**BBC:** British Broadcasting Corporation

**BE:** Business English

**CC:** Communicative Competence

**CDS:** Satellite Development Center

**EAP:** English for Academic Purposes

**EBP:** English for Business Purposes

**ENG Directorate:** Engineering Directorate

**EOP:** English for Occupational Purposes

**ESBP**: English for Specific Business Purposes

**ESP:** English for Specific Purposes

**FDI:** Foreign Direct Investment

**FLT:** Foreign Language Teaching

**GA:** General American

**GIE:** General Indian English

**IC***:* Intercultural Communication

**ICC:** Intercultural Communication Competence

**LSA:** Learning Situation Analysis

**NA:** Needs Analysis

**PPG ALGERIA**: Pittsburgh Plate Glass

**PSA:** Present Situation Analysis

**RP:** Received Pronunciation

**SMT ALGERIA:** Swedish Machinery and Trucks

**TBA:** Task-based Approach

**TBLT:** Task-based Language Teaching

**TEFL:** Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**TMM:** Tahlyat Myah Magtaa

**TSA:** Target Situation Analysis

# General Introduction

In an era of novel information and communication technologies, globalization has more than ever become a tangible reality, which is more and more perceptible through the fast changes bringing people together regardless of any geographical, political, or linguistic barriers. The concept that individuals can no longer function in isolation but rather must cooperate emerged as a result of these developments, particularly those that were occurring at the economic level. However, a communication tool enforced by those economically powerful nations could only strengthen this propensity to cooperate.

Though English ranks second as regards the percentage after the Chinese language whose native speakers number 20% and are estimated to currently number 7.97 billion by the US Census Bureau (by the world population review), English, with only 8%, is the dominant global business language known as the *lingua franca* (Peng, 2017, p. 67). Two elements contribute to the language's attainment of this status. One is the English-speaking nations' economic domination (the United Kingdom and the United States) whose contributions account for the largest share of global production, representing roughly one-third. The other is the recent globalization that has called for a single common language, which has become paramount because of trade and investment relations between the United States and the rest of the world. This has led to the generation of a tremendous number of products and services, all of which are marketed in English (Peng, 2017, p. 67). Therefore, speaking English effectively has become an ability that aids and facilitates bilateral trade (Peng, 2017, p. 68), fueling the growing interest in learning English.

Nowadays, English is the most widely spoken language in the world, with over 1.5 billion people using it either natively or as a second language (Statista Research Department, 2022). David Crystal (2018, p. 114) depicts this spread through a model represented in three circles (i.e., inner, outer, and expanding) in relation to how English was learnt and how it is now utilized. The inner circle refers to the native setting where English is the prevailing language, with 388 million speakers, namely the United States, United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The outer circle indicates the nations that have a colonial past with the members of the inner circle. English serves as a major second language in this non-native environment, with 885 million speakers, for example, in Singapore, India, and Malawi. The expanding circle covers countries where English is taught as a foreign language, such as Algeria. Given the fact that the nations in question have no historical ties to the native-speaking countries, special attention is paid to the English language education because of the important role it plays as an international language.

Non-native speakers substantially outnumber native ones, implying that English is practically everywhere manifesting itself both qualitatively and quantitatively (Selvi A. F., 2019, p. 86). A compilation of statistics is offered as undeniable evidence of English's global standing. According to Jennifer Jenkins (2015, p. 2), it is recognized in approximately seventy-five countries as either a first language (L1), or as an institutionalized second language (L2). It is also one of the official or working languages of a number of international organizations, including the United Nations, the European Union, and the African Union. It is *the lingua franca* of traffic control, airports, civil aviation, shipping, and tourism, where 74% of tourists using it for communication while visiting non-native-speaking countries (Graddol, 2006). As a result, practically all worldwide hotels need it when hiring new employees. McArtur (2002) estimates that around 75% of the world's emails and electronically stored data are in English. It was identified as the main internet language in 2020, with 25.9 percent of global users (Petrosyan, 2022). English is also the contemporary scientific language for the dissemination of scientific knowledge (Englander , 2014, pp. 3-4).

Indeed, several factors explain English's enduring dominance as a global language. The figures presented above support the relevance of the term "global" in regard to the function that English plays in various contexts. However, it is worthwhile to travel back to the past to examine its evolution over time, as well as how it was linguistically influenced by other languages, in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the variables that led to the language *per se* acquiring its worldwide and current status, paving the way for English for specific purposes, henceforth ESP.

Briefly speaking, the linguistic changes that the language endured were caused by a variety of events that occurred throughout Britain's history, ranging from invasions to migration to colonies to world wars. The Germanic immigrants (5th century), the Vikings (8th century), and the Normans (11th century) all invaded Britain. Only with the advent of the Renaissance (16th century) did English gain prominence as a language of science and scholarly writing. Other events also contributed to the expansion of English, preparing the way for new nativeness (i.e., L1 variants of English) in the 17th and 18th centuries by promoting migration to new colonies (North America, Australia, and New Zealand). During the 18th and 19th centuries, English spread as a second or additional language as a result of British colonization of many countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, affecting their sociocultural profile and giving birth to other regionally distinct varieties such as Indian English, Nigerian English, Philippine English, and many others. As a result, English has evolved into a language without any limits.

Later in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, the dominance of the English-speaking countries, particularly the United States as an economic and political power, contributed significantly to the expansion of English as a lingua franca in different spheres of life. To take one example, the immigration of scientists to the United States during the First World War, which devastated European countries, was favored due to the presence of educational and scientific infrastructure. The Cold War (late 1940s and 1950s) also gave the language priority as a motivator for increased investment and scientific investigation (Englander, 2014, p. 4) . Furthermore, the development of research, technology, and business, particularly in the United States following World War II (1945), gave English an advantage in becoming the worldwide language of science and trade. This gave birth to a new generation of scientists, businesspeople, and engineers who recognized the necessity of learning English relevant to their specific context.

As a result of these circumstances, ESP developed and a revolution in linguistics occurred, as studies shifted attention from describing the rules of language usage (grammar) to determining how it is actually utilized in real communication contexts, which obviously differ from one context to another. The ESP approach, which highlights learners and their attitudes towards learning, is an eclectic approach primarily based on the analysis of learners' needs, the results of which serve as resources in the design of teaching courses and materials adapted to the learners' reasons for learning English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, pp. 6-8) . Thus, the needs analysis process associated with the learners' profile and learning situation generate two types of ESP: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, pp. 5-6). Given the learners' specialism, requirements, age, motivation, and other factors, EAP and EOP are umbrella branches for various sub-specialties. The current research work deals with the second type of ESP, namely EOP.

English for Business Purposes (EBP), also referred to as Business English, henceforth BE, is a major and essential variation within EOP since it focuses on adult learners, both experienced and novice, who need to develop effective communication skills to conduct their business activities. Therefore, two categories are identified: pre-experienced and job-experienced (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, pp. 5-6) , which correlate to two sub-branches: English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). This latter type is the focus of the current study.

The need for a bridge language of business communication between countries has become increasingly important in today's globalized world. The development of BE has led to the creation of the ESBP sub-branch, which emphasizes the importance of specific language use and mastery of business communication skills based on the context of use. For example, English is commonly used for socializing, meetings, presentations, and negotiations in many international business settings. However, it is important to note that effective communication goes beyond just language proficiency. Cultural awareness is also a crucial component for successful cross-cultural communication. Therefore, individuals seeking to excel in international business should not only focus on improving their language skills but also strive to understand the cultural differences and expectations of their counterparts from different countries. By doing so, they can build stronger relationships and achieve greater success in their global business endeavors.

Algeria, like the rest of the globe, has been impacted by globalization in terms of both economics and English language education. Economically, this enforced reality compelled the government to open its market to the world's economy in search of additional foreign partnerships. At the educational level, the government places a high value on English education, recognizing its importance as the ultimate medium of modern communication and the lingua franca for trade and scientific exchange. Yet, it is necessary to assess the world's economic influence on the Algerian educational system and how it pertains to the country's attempts to improve English language instruction in general.

In Algeria, English is taught as a second foreign language (TEFL) in middle and secondary schools, as well as at the university level, in addition to French, which is the colonial authority's historical language. Since Algeria's independence in 1962, TEFL programs have witnessed radical changes and multiple reforms in order to reflect national and cultural identity while also responding to global communication requirements for all sorts of exchange. Until the late 1970s, the teaching of English was characterized by the use of two imported British textbooks in middle and secondary schools. These textbooks were designed for general learners to concentrate on foreign cultures in particular offering input with linguistic elements and grammatical features of English to assist learners achieve a particular competency in English as a foreign language. They were "Success with English" coursebooks 1 and 2 for beginners and post-beginners (Broughton, 1965) and "New Concept English" series coursebooks for pre-intermediate and intermediate levels, including "Practice and Progress" and "Developing Skills" (Alexander, 1967).

The 1980s were characterized by the Algerian-made teaching curriculum and the publication of the two first Algerian textbooks titled "Madjid in England" and "Andy in Algeria" inducing certain national cultural features with some pedagogical reforms by adopting the notional/functional approach based on interpersonal communication exchange. Efforts continued to result in the publication of new textbooks characterized by a diverse range of cultural content, functional purposes, topic/type input, and adapted/authentic texts. At middle school, they were "Spring 1" and "Spring 2", but at secondary school, three textbooks were designed to match the school grades and streams (literature, science and maths, and technology), they were "New lines", "Midlines", "The New Midlines", "New Skills", "Think it Over", and "Comet".

In the 1990s, various changes were implemented in order to improve learners' communication performance. As a result, a second generation of textbooks emerged in two series: "My Book of English" (three primary school textbooks) and "My New Book of English" (three middle school and three secondary school textbooks). As a consequence of the evolving globalization in the twenty-first century, substantial changes were made to the course content and textbook to respond to worldwide demands for communication and modernization as well as to adapt to the rapid growth powered by globalization dynamics. These reforms witnessed the implementation of the competency-based approach, which is centered on learning English as a second language for developing learners' language and performance objectives. Thus, three new textbooks were utilized in the three secondary school grades. They were “At a Crossroads”, “Getting By”, and “New Prospects”. It should be noted that a very recent change has been made introducing the English language earlier in the third primary school year, a decision to be enacted in the academic year 2022/2023 (ALGERIE ECO, August 2nd, 2022).

The reforms also occurred in higher education in the 2004/2005 academic year, with the adoption of the new degree system, i.e. LMD initially termed B.M.D (Bachelor, Master and Doctorate) issued in the executive Decree 04-371 of November 21st, 2004 on the creation of a new bachelor’s degree. This new system was implemented to harmonize the educational standards throughout the world. As regards TEFL, English courses are delivered in response to students’ needs, which vary depending upon their fields of study. In this vast plea of offered specialties and revised curricula, English constitutes a transversal teaching unit with the least coefficient. Generally, this course is assigned coefficient one and an hourly volume of not more than one hour and a half, or two hours a week. Furthermore, it is provided by teachers, who, despite having graduated from the faculty of foreign languages, are unfamiliar with their students' subject matter and profiles. English to university students enrolled in all specialties, except in the English department, implies engagement in the course process by undertaking different roles and tasks, including syllabus design, material development, and evaluation. Furthermore, as a transversal unit, it does not boost students’ motivation. The majority do not pay enough attention to improving English proficiency level. Instead, they prefer to focus on their subjects with high coefficients. Yet, when versed in the economic sector, degree holders from almost all disciplines are confronted with an important language asset, which is English, as a result of the Algerian international opening to the world of multinationals, for which English is a lingua franca for communication among foreign workers from different language environments.

Algeria, as a developing country, maintains a certain independence from foreign reliance in terms of material and human resources for its developmental objectives, especially when it comes to the economic sector. This entailed foreign investment in various domains, which is related directly to the educational sector because it supplies it with the necessary human resources, not only having the required technical competencies but also operating linguistically within multinational companies that use English as an in-company language of communication. Consequently, English is of the utmost importance beyond the academic context since it bridges the gap between professionals from different countries working together and those conducting business activities.

Indeed, Algerian multinational companies consider the necessity of teaching English in a corporate setting, which differs significantly from the academic one. However, one questions if those English courses address business professionals' needs and their job requirements.  Believing that doing business requires professionals using spoken BE in a variety of workplace settings, negotiations, which are indispensable in determining the outcome of a business transaction, happen to require high proficiency in English with a command of oral communication skills in order to settle agreements and solve miscommunication problems. This, in reality, calls for specialized BE courses tailored to align with those needs.

By conducting research within the scope of ESP studies and BE in particular for adult learning, we aim to explore the use of English in a professional setting given interest in the business negotiation genre and the Algerian company as a context for conducting an investigation among managers and executives. We then aspire to examine any challenges our target population encounters when negotiating in English with native and nonnative business partners. Therefore, uncovering those challenges and identifying the language and oral communication gaps that might impede them from negotiating efficiently in English, will contribute to the design of a business negotiation course syllabus that focuses on enhancing job-experienced learners' speaking proficiency to attain efficiency when negotiating in English.

In today's globalized business world, English language proficiency is a crucial factor in successful negotiations. It is essential to understand the characteristics of the language to communicate effectively and build trust with counterparts. Effective communicative competence requires a combination of oral communication skills and cross-cultural awareness. Strategies such as practicing active listening, adapting to different communication styles, and learning about cultural norms can help overcome challenges in cross-cultural communication. However, cultural and language barriers remain significant obstacles in business negotiations as common misunderstandings and misinterpretations can lead to failed negotiations and lost opportunities. To uncover those challenges, it is important to provide an insight of the oral communication skills and subs-kills that require development to achieve efficiency in order to be approached in the proposed business English negotiation course.

The negotiation genre has already been approached in the magister[1] by conducting case study research investigating the perceived needs of the engineering staff of the ENG directorate of the Algerian Oil and Gas Company, Sonatrach. Unlike the study in hand, which offers an in-depth understanding of the negotiation genre by depicting the challenges encountered when negotiating with foreign business partners and addressing both linguistic and non-linguistic skills development, the magister study was rather explorative and narrowed to depicting the strategies and tactics necessary to become an effective negotiator. The tasks proposed encompassed the speaking skill, with few basic cultural aspects such as eye contact. The framework of tasks that is proposed in the current study encompasses business negotiation skills and language intended for the development of all the components of communicative competence.

Business negotiations require a unique set of oral communication skills and subs-kills that are worth consideration. By studying this genre, we can gain insight into the significance of business negotiations and develop effective teaching methods for ESBP. Additionally, understanding the complexities of business negotiations can help researcher identify potential pitfalls and areas for improvement in negotiation strategies. Overall, conducting research on this topic has far-reaching implications for both academia and industry, as it can lead to improved negotiation outcomes and better-equipped professionals.

The process of accessing data and informants for the development of negotiation language skills is a complex one that requires careful planning and execution. To begin

[1] Houti Yamina. (2014). "Nonnative Speakers' Needs to Effective Negotiation Strategies. The case of engineers in the ENG Directorate /Sonatrach/Arzew". A dissertation submitted in the fulfillment of the requirements of the magister degree in ESP. University of Oran 2.

with, the most appropriate sources of data, which may include both primary and secondary sources, must be identified. Once the data have been collected, it must be analyzed using a range of quantitative and qualitative methods to identify patterns and trends that can inform the development of negotiation language skills. Practically speaking, the study in hand attempts to depict the target and present situation needs of a sample population of 36 informants.  The survey participants belong to the managing staff of five Algerian companies (SONATRACH: TRC/ RTO, ENG directorate and AVAL, PPG ALGERIA, TMM, SMT ALGERIA, and SYNERGIE industry), and a satellite research center (CDS). As it provides real-world examples of negotiation strategies and tactics that can be applied in practice, this environment is appropriate for conducting the research investigation in addition to three reasons: (1) the variety of the managing staff, (2) the ease of accessing data, and (3) the possibility to have access to informants who are concerned by negotiations in English.  In addition to data analysis, it is crucial to consider the linguistic and non-linguistic needs of the subjects in order to tailor an approach to suit individual learning styles. The successful development of negotiation language skills requires a comprehensive approach that takes into account all aspects of data collection, analysis, and subject needs. Thus, the questionnaire covers topics built on the basis of two research questions:

1- What are the difficulties encountered when negotiating business issues in English?
2- What are the necessary skills that require enhancement for negotiating efficiently in English?

The research questions are supported by the following hypotheses:

1- Miscommunication and misinterpretation are frequently encountered problems in any type of communication and business negotiation is no exception.
2- It is necessary to increase English language proficiency and cross-cultural awareness by enhancing both linguistic and non-linguistic skills as they happen to influence the flow of communication in negotiations.

The language training process is a crucial component for enhancing job-experienced learners' language proficiency in ESBP courses. By focusing on improving their negotiating language skills and subs-kills, learners can become more effective communicators and negotiators in any professional context. This is particularly important in today's global economy, where cross-cultural communication and negotiation are essential for success. To achieve this goal, it is important to provide BE teachers with an adaptable syllabus that they can use as a guide to design their course lessons and adapt them to their learners' needs. This syllabus should include key topics such as negotiation phases, cultural awareness, negotiation strategies, and effective communication techniques. By providing learners with the necessary tools and skills to navigate complex business negotiations, they can become more efficient and successful communicators.

To achieve the purpose of the study, the research work is organized into four chapters. The first chapter provides a comprehensive review of the literature on negotiation-speaking genre studies, which helps identify the key linguistic features of business negotiations. It highlights the importance of understanding how language is used in negotiations and how it can be used to achieve specific goals. The second chapter takes an intercultural approach, examining the relationship between culture and language in the context of business negotiations. It explores how cultural differences can influence communication styles and strategies, and how this can affect negotiation outcomes. Chapter Three is the culmination of the research, where the focus shifts to fieldwork for data collection, analysis, and interpretation. This chapter delves into the practical aspects of the study, where a survey is used to gather data from participants. The findings are then analyzed using statistical tools and presented in a clear and concise manner. In Chapter Four, the proposed Business Negotiation Language Syllabus is introduced, along with a convenient approach to negotiation language training. The framework aims to cater to learners' needs by developing effective business negotiation language skills through a structured syllabus that focuses on key areas such as communication, persuasion, and cultural awareness. The proposed syllabus is designed to be flexible enough to accommodate different learning styles while still providing a comprehensive overview of essential negotiation skills. Overall, this research offers valuable insights into the field of business negotiation and provides a practical guide for BE teachers looking to enhance their teaching methodologies in this area.

As is required in all types of research studies, many references are used to examine prior studies and support the purpose of the current research work. The references are then induced in the text and listed in the bibliography using the APA sixth edition.

# Chapter one:

# Business Negotiation from a Linguistic Perspective

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## 1.1 Introduction

In our contemporary world, foreign direct investment, henceforth FDI, has been increasing in parallel to the speed at which globalization has been developing. This has very often confronted the need to deal with different languages and the resulting cost to conduct the different activities, which are associated with language use. Since FDI involves the management of business activities, organization, and production, the key to success requires effective interaction and communication among multinational staff. To this end, a common language, i.e., a lingua franca is absolutely necessary and which nowadays falls within the use of the English language. According to Michael Byram and Adelheid Hu (2017, p. 414), some assets are behind the use of English as a lingua franca. They (2017, p. 414) outline "It is not so much the total of 400 million **native speakers** (**Chinese** has one billion) that has made English a global language (Crystal, 1997, 2003), but the political, military and economic power behind the English language and the countries it is most associated with, above all the United States."

Language does not only concern FDI suppliers as regards the choice of location decisions, but it also concerns the countries, which need to attract FDI. Both sides are concerned with language problems since language differences increase the risk of miscommunication and misinterpretation. Information Resources Management Association (2020, p. 668) notes "[language barriers] are a challenge for project managers because it can lead to miscommunication and misunderstanding."

As the rest of the world, the opening of Algeria's borders to foreign investments has become a reality that the authorities consider deeply increasing due to the impact on industrial and economic sectors as well as knowledge and technology transfer.

However, aside from financial benefits, which are not the concern of this work, a human resource development becomes an absolute necessity to complete such a project. Launching projects in the different sectors requires a well-trained staff, who has the command of both the technical and language skills for the different job hierarchies. Thus, the mastery of communication and language skills are fundamental in business communication. According to Krishna Prakashan Media (2010, p. 4), "People from the business world are of the opinion that communication is a major and essential part of the work of business."

The importance of negotiation in economic work spheres cannot be overstated. It is a crucial skill enabling individuals to navigate complex business environments and achieve mutually beneficial outcomes. However, negotiation requires more than just a basic understanding of business principles. It also demands a high level of language skills and linguistic competence. Algerian managers and executives, who wish to excel in this area, must develop their language abilities to communicate effectively with their counterparts from different cultures and backgrounds. Given the importance of negotiation in economic work spheres and the language skills it requires developing, linguistic knowledge and abilities (i.e., linguistic competence) become for the Algerian managers and executives strengths in order to overcome challenging negotiation issues. No one denies the place of English in the work spheres, and thus, the question to ask is 'how can we help them negotiate effectively in English without showing any linguistic weakness?' To respond to this query, the present chapter studies business negotiation from a linguistic perspective. In other words, the chapter dips into the language skills including macro and micro-skills required to build the negotiator's linguistic competence. Thus, the chapter starts with a definition of the term negotiation and its use in different business contexts with a focus on the business-speaking genre.

## 1.2 Communication in the World of Business

Communication even occupies an important daily practice in all activities. When it comes to the workplace, Krishna Prakashan Media (2010, p. 4) argues

> Communication is an integral part of the business world. Just as communication is important for social relationships and international contacts, so is communication to maintain business relation in the native country and abroad as well. The term business communication refers to communication that is used for any economic activity which is undertaken with a view to earn profit.

In addition to the importance of communication in the social world, the world of business cannot function effectively if the economic agents whatever their job profile is do not master a lingua franca particularly in the case of the multinationals, which function with an international staff with different language backgrounds. Thus, focus on language communication skills is a basic requirement for business success. For Prakashan Media (2010, p. 4),

> Communication is so important in business that by improving the communication ability people can improve their chances for success. Whatever position a person acquires in a business organization, he has to communicate with all sorts of people. If a person is not a good communicator, his message is not properly transmitted and the entire efforts fail. An enterprise Program Manager, therefore, is of the opinion that communication is the most used skill in almost every job.

Furthermore, to communicate clearly, communication must be effective. Bovee, Thill and Schatzmen, cited in Prakashan Media (2010, p. 5), note different benefits that result from effective communication, namely "quicker problem solving, improved stakeholder response, stronger decision making, enhanced professional image, increased productivity, steadier work flow, and strong business relationships.” Effective communication is even paired with success and power, Perry McIntosh and Richard A. Luecke (2008, p. xi) point out “Effective communication is an important element of success for every organization, leader, manager, supervisor, and employee. Good communication skills are a prerequisite for advancement in most fields and are key to exercising influence both within and beyond the work group.”

## 1.3 Business Negotiation Definition

Tatjana Đurović (2011, p. 498) reports that the word ‘*negotiation*’ originally derives from the Latin word ‘*negotium’* composed of two words *‘neg’* meaning ‘*no’* or *‘not’,* and *‘otium’* referring to ‘*ease or leisure’.* For Donald W. Hendon *et al*., (1996, p. 1) and Đurović (2011, p. 498) , the word literally refers to *‘lack of leisure’* to mean *‘carrying on business’.* For P. Golopalakrishnan and Abid Haleem (2015, p. 375) , negotiation is a word from Latin Civil Law which means “trading deliberation leading to agreement.” David V.J. Bell (1995, p. 42) reveals that the Latin roots of the term negotiation “identify its origin in the marketplace where it referred to the process of haggling in the barter of sale of goods.” This highlights the meaning of the term negotiation as being associated with the concepts of business and work. Gavin Kennedy (1998, p. 5) conceives negotiation “… a process by which we search for terms to obtain what we want from somebody who wants something from us.”

English dictionaries offer different definitions of the term negotiation in the business context. Golopalakrishnan and Haleem (2015, p. 375) note according to the Oxford Dictionary that [negotiation]

> […] it means conference with another, with a view to compromising on agreement. It attempts to find a formula, which gives each party the best possible value for money in a given situation. It aims to achieve the best value for money spent by the organisation, taking into consideration the overall requirement of quality, quantity and price according to the market conditions. It is a dialogue intended to resolve dispute to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain and satisfy various interests. (Golopalakrishnan and Haleem, 2015, p. 375)

Quoting the Winston's Simplified Advanced Dictionary, for P.D Chaturvedi and Mukesh Chaturvedi (2006, p. 302), the term negotiation is defined as "The discussion and bargaining that goes on between parties before a contract is settled or a deal is definitely agreed upon." For the Longman Business English Dictionary (2007), quoted in Đurović (2011, p. 498), negotiations are "official discussions between groups who are trying to reach an agreement."

In general, business negotiation is a particular way of discussion undertaken by parties whose business interests are involved. In other words, it is an official discussion for business purposes attained with an optimal agreement, quoting Đurović (2011, p. 498) "Negotiation, as a dialogue between two or more people with the aim of reaching an agreement, settling differences or achieving outcomes that will satisfy various interests of the two parties involved, is one of the basic human activities. … . Negotiations are also a key element of business transactions, particularly sales." From a business perspective, J.L. Jhran, quoted in Raj Kumar (2010, p. 318), "Negotiation is defined as a face-to-face decision making communication between parties concerning a specific product."

In business communication, negotiations are also considered as an alternative in situations where parties conflict. According to Marie Anne Bülow (2009, p. 142) , "Negotiation can be defined as the process of communication where two parties seek to resolve their conflicting interests in a manner that both parties prefer to the alternative." Likewise, Moira Sambey (1999, p. 113) considers "Negotiation is simply a process in which we communicate with one or more persons, in order to arrive at what we want in certain confrontational or conflictual situations." For Kumar (2010, p. 318), negotiation is probably one of the most challenging task in business communication since it deals with conflict; therefore, "the need to negotiate becomes an essential part of communication" because "negotiation resolves the conflict."

As a form of business communication, negotiation effectiveness relies upon the negotiator's possession of the appropriate language skills. Kumar (2010, p. 318) believes that negotiation should not be treated as a simple affair because it includes complex skills. The author (2010, p. 318) outlines, "If the negotiator fails to express his / her point of view effectively, the result would be disastrous."

The present study focuses on English for specific business purposes relative to the formal situation of international business negotiation, which as a spoken genre, has its proper norms and rules to obtain a quality management of the spoken interaction. To broaden our understanding of negotiation, the chapter also provides an overview of the different contributions based on discursive studies related to the analysis of negotiation as a business-speaking genre. Finally, it offers a description of the language knowledge a proficient negotiator needs to possess in order to develop a repertoire of skills with particular emphasis on spoken BE genre, which is worth to improve professional managers' negotiation skills and help novice ones become effective negotiators.

## 1.4 Business Negotiation Genre

From the 90's, an enormous interest has been devoted to the analysis of communicative practices in professional settings using genre-based approaches whether at the level of content or structure (i.e., vocabulary and grammar). This falls within the aim of the present research work. Thus, it is worth explaining what the term genre is used for before to have an overview of genre studies and approaches.

### 1.4.1 Spoken Business English Genre

For Kirsten Malmkjær (2004, p. 206) genre is "A text or discourse type which is recognized as such by its users by its characteristic features of style or form, which will be specifiable through stylistic and text-linguistic/discourse analysis, and/or by the particular function of texts belonging to the genre." In the field of ESP, significant contributions are observed to name some of them (Hyon, 1996; Paltridge, 1997, 2001, 2012; Johns *et al*., 2006; Johns, 2008; Hyland, 2002, 2009; Swales, 1990; Robert Lawrence Trask, 2007). Michael McCarthy (2001, p. 111) reveals that Mitchell (1957) was the first to describe spoken genres, particularly the language of trading at markets and shops in Cyrenaica, Libya now, to show how different situations influenced language use. The features of genre and its variability from one specific domain to the other have attracted a great interest of ESP researchers becoming a key content-based approach and genre-based pedagogy in the field of teaching ESP. Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield (2012, p. 347) explain that the term genre has become an important concept in ESP once introduced by Elaine Tarone and her colleagues in 1981 while discussing the use of the passive sentence form in research writing in the area of astrophysics. In the same year, Swales employed the term in his seminal work on the discourse structure of research article introductions.

Genre has also been conceived in relation to discourse communities. This includes academic groupings with different genres of speech events, and written texts types having specific linguistic features together with discoursal and rhetoric skills, (Swales 1990). Swales (1990, p. 58) further observes

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. The purposes are recognised by the expert members of the discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. The rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style … In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience.

In linguistics, the term is closely associated with speech events. It refers to the classification of spoken or written discourse generic types. Sue Starfield (2016, p. 155) argues

> Genres are seen as staged communicative events which move through a series of prototypical stages called moves and steps in their realisation, and are the properties of specific discourse communities who use them to further their communicative purposes. Genres are also identifiable through their use of conventionalised language forms to realise specific communicative functions.

Joan Mulholland (2002, p. 39) notes some sets of communicative activities among which written genres such as poetry, letter writing, report writing, and some spoken genres such as the conversation, the lecture, the interview to cite these only. Other linguists see genre as a social process culturally situated to fulfill certain communicative purposes (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 22). Paul Gillaerts and Maurizio Gotti (2008, pp. 9-10) report that genre theory has attracted significant interest in both academic and educational spheres since the 1990s. This resulted in numerous research studies, which focused on the various genres used in professional and institutional contexts. Therefore, acknowledging the significance of the the genre concept for the comprehension of discourse not only resulted in a better understanding of the register and lexico-grammatical features of texts but also raised an awareness of the macrostrucutres ,which happen to be organized according the genre standards and rules embedded in the sociocultural context. So to speak, the genre concept serves as an organizing instrument for business communication as it establishes the set of rules and conventions to guide the members of the business community and facilitate communication in a recognizable and simple manner.

Though the use of language is common to all academic settings, yet the discourse communities related to the different settings display different specific genres that feature speech events and written texts. Scholars in the field of ESP put a focus on genre analysis to understand how different discourse communities use language. Kirsten Malmkjær (2004, p. 236) notes

> Genre analysis is an important area within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) oriented studies … The first use of the term in relation to ESP is Swales' (1981), who means by it "a system of analysis that is able to reveal something of the patterns of organisation of a "genre" and the language used to express those patterns."

Genre analysis is known to be one of the key concepts of ESP needs analysis and represents an important area within ESP oriented studies (Malmkjær, 2004, p. 205) . Swales (1990, p. 1) in his turn, considers genre analysis "as a means of studying spoken and written discourse for applied ends." Great interest has recently been devoted to the study of spoken genres focusing on the analysis of communicative practice in professional settings, although researchers encounter some difficulties to find a satisfactory amount of data to be analyzed. Malmkjær (2004, p. 207) argues "Genre analysis is also applicable to spoken text, though the difficulty of obtaining data has meant that much less analysis has been done into oral genres." Citing Bhatia (2004), Vijay Bhatia and Stephen Bremner (2014, p. 5) reveal "Genre analysis, … , is viewed as the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalised academic or professional settings."

### 1.4.2 Workplace Spoken Genre

As an early concept, genre analysis focus was mainly given to the analysis of thicker functional descriptions of discourse variation to offer a solid description of language use in both academic and professional settings, thus reflecting not only simple linguistic descriptions of texts, but explanations for language use. However, negotiating, as a workplace genre, has lately received much attention in the literature on workplace and business. From a pedagogical viewpoint, which falls within the interest of this work, Catherine Nickerson and Brigitte Planken (2016, p. 34) observe that studies target the pedagogical field for "creating teaching materials that reflect authentic practices and authentic examples of negotiation episodes and the discourse strategies used within them."

Some linguists, to name only Joan Mulholland (2002) , agrees on the fact that negotiations belong to the spoken genre group of speech events referred to as either interaction types or a speaking genre. Apart from the fact that negotiation is an interaction between two parties aiming to reach a settlement or attain outcomes that satisfy both of them, it entails a study as a sub-variety of conversation within its proper speech acts, and as a spoken interaction since it consists of a structure. Nickerson and Planken (2016, p. 28) note

> Negotiation is another important form of spoken communication in the workplace. Negotiating occurs in situations where at least two parties or participants have shared but also differing interests with regard to particular issue or topic. They therefore talk with each other in order to reach an agreement that is mutually satisfactory for everyone involved. Negotiation can be about a variety of topics, such as the deadline for a marketing project (with colleagues), a salary increase (with a boss), or the pricing of a particular product line (with a costumer or client). The goal of negotiating can be to reach an understanding, to resolve a problem or difference in opinion, or to gain an advantage in a particular sales deal.

In general, negotiation consists of conducting a conversation, yet according to Mulholland (2002, p. 41) , it differs in that it is a sub-variety of conversation sharing most of its rules or conventions, but consisting of restricted or defined speech acts obeying a process of stricter rules and a defined goal. In essence, negotiation carries some disagreement among the participants and requires to be cleared through some action or decision.

Regarding negotiation acts, Mulholland (2002, pp. 41-2) proposes examples of generic activities the participants have to carry out in the best way they can. The speaker's acts include articulating a view, discussing needs, purposes, and more, adjusting and ranking the discussion elements by priority and acceptability for both sides, and formulating the finished proposal, then the final communicative act. The hearer, on the other side, reacts by proposing, suggesting, reporting, dismissing, or arguing to name these only. However, the difficulties and consequences of these acts and the impact they may have on the negotiation and the people involved require well-prepared participants. The fact that negotiation is business-situated and befitted to workplace environments, some linguists prefer using business talks or institutional talks.

For Stephanie Schnurr (2013, p. 12), different terms can be used to refer to professional communicative exchanges, she says,

> … professional communication may employ different media (such as e-mails, face-to-face, interactions and internet sites), it may involve different participants (including professionals and lay people), it may occur in a range of very different places where people work, and it may perform various (more or less transactional and relational) functions. This diversity is also reflected in the range of different labels that are used by scholars and practitioners to refer to and describe communication in workplace settings: institutional talk, professional discourse, organisational communication, workplace discourse, and business communication and many more. (Stephanie Schnurr, 2013, p. 12)

In this vein, Almut Koester (2004) notes that many aspects of work and business communication involve negotiation as a business talk, different from everyday conversation, which requires general English. For Nickerson and Planken (2016, p. 29), business talk is "primarily topic-centered and task-oriented". This means that the interaction is designed to achieve a specific work-related purpose, such as solving problems or making decisions. Nickerson and Planken (2016, p. 29) further explain that business negotiation, i.e., business talk, differs from the everyday conversation because "it involves specific, professional lexis (i.e., business vocabulary and technical jargon) relevant to the participants' specialism (e.g., financial control or logistics), the business discipline (e.g., marketing or human resource management), and the company's core activity (e.g., manufacturing or service industry)."

Referring to Paul Drew and John Heritage, Koester (2004, p. 2) reveals that they rather use "institutional talk" to refer to workplace and professional talks, and list the distinguishing features of work place language. For them, work place language is goal-oriented obeying turn-taking rules or restrictions, structured in a specific way, characterized by professional lexis, restricted by participants' allowable contributions, and asymmetrical interactions.

Nickerson and Planken (2016, p. 28) report, according to Koester, that a business talk is characterized by the setting and the participants because it takes place in organizational contexts, and involves participants in a variety of different roles and relationships. Given the different professional positions and hierarchies among the different participants, there is a tendency of unequal chances to manage negotiation successfully, thus, this problem will influence the business interaction. In the words of Nickerson and Planken, (2016, p. 29)

> …, taking into account contextual factors such as the institutional roles that people have, the social distance between them (i.e. how well they know each other), and the power difference between them in a work relationship has been an essential part of the study of business English in different settings. This is because these factors affect and shape the language and the interactional and discursive strategies that speakers and writers use.

Given the fact that business negotiations are basically specific conversational talks, language specific skills become fundamental. Stuart Dean (2008, p. 30) argues, "Negotiation requires special language skills to make sure we achieve a satisfactory result."

## 1.5 Business Negotiation Language Skills

Focusing on the satisfaction of conversational objectives, Rosanna Dolón (1997, p. 170) argues that strategic language use in negotiations must - quoting Canale (1983: 11) - be considered as a way "to enhance the effectiveness of communication", that is, as a strategy "to maximize these objectives". Because negotiation is basically a communication activity within the business field constituting twin items, it is necessary first to give an overview of the term communication.

M. K. Sehgal and Vandana Khetarpal (2006, p. 2) report that the word communication derives from the Latin word "*communis*" to mean "common" characterizing the human behavior, and symbolizing one's ability of expressing opinions, feelings, information, and ideas to others through verbal and non-verbal language. In business, the authors (2006, p. 2) conceive the term as "the most vital ingredient of an organization." Likewise, P. D. Chaturvedi and Mukesh Chaturvedi, (2006, p. xvii) explain

> If communication is a social need for an individual, it is the lifeblood of an organization. If we, as individuals, communicate 70 per cent of our working time, an organization communicates 90 per cent of its working time. If individuals communicate for personal purpose, communication in an organization is for business purposes. Thus, communication plays a crucial role in an organization, bringing all aspects of the business together – employees, customers, suppliers, intermediaries, the public, and so on. (P. D. Chaturvedi and Mukesh Chaturvedi, 2006, p. xvii)

Dealing with the two terms that constitute the phrase "business communication", Sehgal and Khetarpal (2006, p. 2) consider communication an important aspect of human behavior as it involves the ability to exchange opinions, feelings, information, and ideas to others verbally or non-verbally by employing speech, writing or signs. They (2006, p. 2) further argue that the term business "stands for any economic activity with a view to earn profit and the communication undertaken in the process of this activity is termed business communication."

For Rosana Dolón (1997, p. 170) , basically, negotiation is communication because it serves to establish a common ground of understanding by informing, telling, showing, or diffusing information leading to better business relations. Seen as a process, it entails a "sender/encoder/speaker", a "receiver/decoder/listener", a "message", a "medium" and "feedback." These elements highlight the importance of the four skills involved in communication that Sehgal and Khetarpal (2006, p. 5) display in the table below.

**Table 1.1.1** Communication skills (Sehgal & Khetarpal, 2006, p. 5)

| Skills | Activeness | Related to | Sender/Receiver Mode |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reading | Passive | Written | Receiver |
| Writing | Active | Written | Sender |
| Speaking | Active | Oral | Sender |
| Listening | Passive | Oral | Receiver |

Although business negotiation genre implies command of both oral and written communication skills, the current research work focuses on developing oral communication skills for efficient negotiation performance.

## 1.5.1 Oral Communication Skills

As a business speaking genre, business negotiation is based on both speaking and listening skills also called oral communication skills. Oral communication is essential in multinationals for cross-cultural business activities, yet people find difficulties to master this BE speaking skill. Soumitra Kumar Choudhury *et al*., (2009, p.

301) underlie the fact that the success of business relationships is contingent on oral communication management; they say "The success of any organization depends on a large extent on managing both formal and informal oral communication. Oral communication can be effective only if it is concise and informative, clear, relevant and tactful in phraseology and tone." Thus, oral communication skills are important for managers' career success since they spend most of their time participating or taking part in meetings. Owen Hargie and Dennis Tourish (2004, p. 6) assert

> Managers devote much of their time to interactions with staff. Manager-watching studies have revealed that they spend over 60 per cent of their working time in scheduled and unscheduled meetings with others, about 25 per cent doing desk-based work, some 7 per cent on the telephone and 3 per cent walking the job. Indeed, it has also been shown that communication, especially oral skills, is a key component of success in the business world …

This reveals that good command of oral communication skills is of extreme necessity for business activities and success principally in negotiations. That is, oral proficiency is an important asset for those working in business domains, and concerned with conducting or participating in workplace negotiations. In fact, the literature indicates clearly that oral communication is an important aspect of the workplace, and that business employees require effective skills in this domain if they are to be successful in their business careers. Oral communication is as integral to and as powerful in the workplace as it is in the societal life of humans mainly in social and professional contexts. Efficient communication skills in the management field enable a manager to achieve success. For Christopher Hill (2020, p. 81) , oral communication skills and business have the same degree of importance and the company's business success relies on their command. Madhukar R.K. (2017, p. 181) conceives

> Oral communication is, by far, the most common method of communication in use. Ever since man learnt the use of languages, oral communication has developed myriad forms. Talking, conversation, speaking, telephone skills, interviews, discussions and presentations are all forms of active and direct communication. Business-related success as well as career-related progression of individuals is influenced substantially by oral communication skills. Good speakers, more often than not, carry the day. Sound oral communication skills are imperative for becoming effective leaders. The world of business relies much more on oral communication than on written communication. Spoken communication being an integral part of everyday business life, good speakers command a premium. (Madhukar R.K., 2017, p. 181)

Naturally in oral communication, both speaking and listening skills are known as oral skills, whereas reading and writing are said to be the written ones. These four skills can be also organized into productive skills, i.e., speaking and writing, and receptive skills, i.e., listening and reading. However, in the scope of business negotiation; the oral business communication skill or the business-speaking genre, oral language skills are prerequisites for a negotiator to maintain good relationships with the business encounters. Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2006, p. 246) explain that in human interaction, the use of oral communication exceeds the use of written communication. In detail, 75 percent of people's time is spent in communicating including 45 percent in listening and 30 percent in speaking. It is, therefore, necessary that people in business learn to use this time to their best advantage for creating and sustaining good relationships through their ability to listen and speak effectively.

Given the interest to oral communication skills in business negotiation, speaking and listening skills are not only of prime hierarchy in relation to writing but even inseparable skills required to carry the communication process to a successful end. J.K.

Gangal (2012, p. 5) emphasizes this tight relation considering these two skills as accompanying each other to bring communication to a logical conclusion, and that the listener's interest represents a key element to ensure the continuity of communication. Madhukar R.K (2017, p. 182) stresses the vitality of effective communication, which is basically related to the quality of these twined skills. Robert H. Scarlett and Lawrence E. Koslow, J.D (1999, p. 319) note that companies believe the possession of excellent oral skills in the native language counterpart of capital importance as personality traits, technical competence and experience in the business field.

So to speak, developing speaking and listening skills in a professional context including business negotiation occurs by taking into account the inter-dependent language aspects to name grammar, phonology, syntax, and morphology to be necessary for each skill.

#### 1.5.1.1 Speaking Skills

Dealing with speaking in the language classroom and speaking the mother tongue, Jane Arnold (2002, p. 51) views learning to speak in a foreign language is so different and difficult from speaking the mother tongue, which is considered so natural. Referring to Chastain (1988), Arnold (2002, p. 51) considers speaking a foreign language to consist of using "background and linguistic knowledge to create an oral message that will be meaningful for the intended audience." Given the spontaneous aspect of the act of speaking, the author (2002, p. 51) sees oral production as an unconscious process having special characteristics compared to the written one. Speaking is a face-to-face interaction conditioned by the time factor involving "… language produced spontaneously with false starts, repetitions, self-corrections." Arnold (2002, p. 51) further argues that the fact of knowing a language does not mean having the ability of speaking fluently. Thus, the speaking skill does not only mean knowing the language but also being able to speak it. Referring to Bygate (1987: 5), Arnold (2002, p. 52) distinguishes two different types of speaking skills: "basic, lower level motor perceptive skills, such as how to produce phonemes or use irregular verb forms, and the decision and strategies used in communication such as what to say, how to say it […] and what to do if problems arise in order to negotiate meaning."

To speak a language one has to be equipped with the necessary language and linguistic knowledge, namely vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. However, it is not enough to know these aspects of language but the skill of using them is also worth it. For Martin Bygate (2003, p. 3) , using an analogy with the car driver to distinguish between the language knowledge and the skill of using it, outlines "In a way, the job we do when we speak is similar. We do not merely *know* how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adapt them to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path."

For Bygate (2003) , the speaking skill is often thought to be easy, improvised, and superficial, but it is a criterion for judging individuals' ability to communicate with confidence as well as a means for business professionals to have access to high ranks. From Scott Thornbury's point of view (2011) , language knowledge and the ability to speak it are different. Speaking is interactive, spontaneous, occurring in real-time, and requiring the managing of the talk, it necessitates grammar knowledge of the spoken language, which is in some considerable ways different from the grammar of the written language. It also requires knowledge of turn-taking rules to manage the interaction and avoid talk overlapping and lack of coherence.

As to what is involved in speaking, Thornbury (2011, p. 2) explains that spoken language, which occurs in three stages: conceptualization, formulation and articulation, is characterized by linearity, contingence and spontaneity. In other words, speaking starts by thoughts, which become utterances - containing a two-part structure: topic and comment– produced between interlocutors, and each utterance is dependent on the preceding one in a severely limited planning time. Moreover, the speech nature and structure (i.e., beginning, middle, and end) entail making strategic choices at the level of discourse, syntax, vocabulary, and pronunciation according to their appropriateness to the context (Thornbury, 2011, p. 3).

Pronunciation, then, another important element in speaking determines the way to signal information including appropriate word stress placement, meaningful intonation use (i.e., pitch direction), and correct word articulation, pausing, to name these only (Thornbury, 2011, pp. 4-5) . For Nicky Stanton (2009, p. 13) , effective speaking means to be able to express yourself in clear, precise, and forceful spoken English. To attain this objective, personal and vocal qualities are the two required basic speaking skills. Personal qualities involve "Clarity", "Accuracy", "Empathy", "Sincerity", "Relaxation", "Eye contact", "Appearance", and "Posture", whereas vocal qualities refer to articulation and enunciation including the way we speak and control our voice sound (2009, pp. 13-17).

As regards vocal qualities, because the way of speaking reflects people's personality, a good speaker must be aware of the factors affecting how the voice is used. These factors are the speech mechanics (i.e., the way sound is produced through speech organs manipulation), the pitch, the volume, diction and accent, vocal tension, speed, the use of pause, and tone (Stanton, 2009, pp. 17-21) . They all influence the way the message is received and thus communication particularly, in situations of excessive speaking, tiredness, or emotion such as anger, fear, or stress where the speaker may sound monotonous or in urgency, for instance (Stanton, 2009, p. 17).

For impressing the listener and improving the speaking abilities, it is essential to know the factors that affect speech production and the way they have to be controlled. This can occur, first, with ear training by listening to the way the voice is used in different situations and circumstances and, then, trying to exercise it and improve its qualities. When it comes to ear training practice, Stanton (2009, p. 17) proposes listening to native speakers and learning correct articulation and enunciation to have good diction (i.e., pronounce words correctly and clearly). This exercise avoids the speaker to be affected by mother language accent because good diction means that the speaker is well educated and informed. Stanton (2009, pp. 17-19) also proposes exercises to improve speaking, such as throat muscle relaxation practice for tone adjustment, jaws and lips relaxation for clear sound production, and proper breathing practice for voice volume control. Another exercise includes learning how to vary the speed and pause briefly at the appropriate places with the importance of words and utterances to give interest and emphasis to speech.

In the same line, Christopher Hill (2020, p. 81) outlines the importance of the speaking skills to communicate in English effectively and enlarge opportunities for business deals

> The better you communicate your ideas and thoughts fluently in English, the higher your company's chance of success. Since miscommunication as a result of foreign accents is an obstacle to the success of businesses, it becomes paramount for foreign traders to learn the appropriate accent of the

> English language which is the language of world commerce today. Doing this will not only make business transactions possible between you and native speakers including people with other native languages, it will also enrich your relevance and influence in the global market. (Christopher Hill, 2020, p. 81)

The process of speech production might not be free of grammar and pronunciation slips, especially in situations where speakers do not feel at ease due to tiredness or pressure. Here, the immediate self-correction is required as a solution to recover the flow of communication (Thornbury, 2011, pp. 3-5). Speaking, thus, involves the ability to command several skills and several different types of knowledge, which is much more complex than grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation knowledge as outlined by Thornbury (2011, p. 1).

As regards the business negotiation genre, a non-native English speaker is engaged in a process where both linguistic knowledge (i.e., knowledge of features of the language such as genre, discourse, grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and pragmatic knowledge), and extralinguistic knowledge (i.e., topic, context, and cultural knowledge) are necessary to build communication competence. Moreover, the ability to use that knowledge is the determining factor of expert negotiators from those who are not.

Regarding the relationship between speaking and negotiation, Moira Sambey (1999, p. 116) proposes two basic skills that negotiators need to learn. The first one implies the ability to state what the negotiator is trying to achieve, and the second the ability to set objectives within a range. H. E. Colby (2015, p. 27); however, focuses on the power of clarification. For Roy Lewicki and Alexander Hiam (2006, p. 42), business negotiators need two essential skills for information gathering: one is the ability to ask probing questions whereas the other the ability to listen attentively. Once data are gathered, according to the authors (2006, p. 43) , the negotiator starts to prepare arguments or counterarguments to persuade the encounters after listening attentively to their wants. Then, the use of persuasion language is required.

For Claude Cellich and Subhash Jain (2012, p. 175) , the communication between parties is the core of negotiations since it can be the reason for either its success or failure. Therefore, to the negotiations to be improved, techniques like listening, asking questions, reversing roles, and ensuring clear understanding are used. Furthermore, language skills in the business negotiation context can be subdivided into linguistic and non-linguistic skills. The former type includes verbal communication skills, such as clarifying, summarizing, reframing, agreeing and disagreeing, asking questions, making and rejecting offers, suggesting, and bargaining. The latter type involves non-verbal communication skills, which are the concern of the next chapter.

Furthermore, effective use of English language skills often leading the negotiation to success is primordial for business managers and executives to achieve their planned negotiation goals. To this end, specific language that matches and changes with the negotiators' communication strategies and tactics must be used. Elena N. Malyuga and Sveltana N. Orlova (2018, p. 35) explain "The main attribute of business negotiations, namely its prescriptive nature, requires a strict sequence of steps and offers a set of standardised phrases and speech stamps, which can be used by communication parties to direct the process of negotiation by adjusting its strategic and tactical focus."

Based on the aforementioned literature, and to conduct a successful communication process as far as the business negotiation genre is concerned, four (4) speaking sub-skills are discussed. They are asking questions, ensuring clear understanding, bargaining, and using persuasive language.

### 1.5.1.1.1 Asking Questions

In business negotiations, the ability to ask pertinent questions to obtain the most useful information from the other party's messages represents one of the most important skills. Negotiators ask a lot of questions to retrieve supplementary information during the discussion phase in order to complete collected data in the preparatory one, thereby giving them the possibility to exchange concessions, and move towards agreement (Cellich & Jain, 2012, p. 177) . Asking relevant questions also enables one party to obtain details such as product quantity requirements, price discounts, and more. Questions, therefore, can be subdivided into probing (or conditional) and open-ended questions (Cellich & Jain, 2012, p. 178).

Asking probing or conditional questions, on the one hand, makes it possible for the respondents to talk freely about their needs, and yet this requires attentive listening to the answers because they might contain essential elements and key points to be stored. Moreover, note taking plays an important role in this phase to enable the phrasing of the next questions. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, aim to have clarification about some details for information completion. Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 178) consider open-ended questions "useful for clarifying specific points, for seeking details, for obtaining missing information, and for validating assumptions." In a seller-buyer situation, for example, if the client refers to the product to be of bad quality, the seller should ask, insisting on details, a question like "What standards are you applying?" However, if an exporter after stating the price asks "Can you do better than that?" rather than giving a concession, the other side should answer with another question for clarification, such as "What is meant by *better*?" or "*Better* than what?" In this situation, one understands that a competitor is offering a better price. For further details, the exporter should continue asking questions about conditions and terms until clear understanding of the importer's intentions is guaranteed, maintaining the offer and showing that it is as suitable and better as the competitor's one (Cellich & Jain, 2012, p. 178).

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For Lewiki and Hiam (2006, p. 42), asking probing questions requires most of the time the ability to ask open questions that they define as "one that gets the other to talk extensively and uses phrases such as, "Why?" "How?" "Tell me about …," or "Explain to me…. ." William W. Barber and Chavi C.Y Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 16), citing Hazeldine (2006, p. 64), recognize open or broad questions as "diagnostic questions", which usually begin with (wh) words, such as "what, when, why, where, how, who, which". This type of questions result in an answer that seeks for general information sharing. However, the authors (2020, p. 16) believe that closed questions are rather used for clarification to obtain specific answers and commitments.

As regards (wh) questions, Alexandra Carter (2020, p. 9) argues that some of them seem to be open despite their closeness. Instead, they are an invitation for a yes/no or a one-word answer. For the author (2020, p. 9), an open question requires a broad answer encouraging the speaker to give accurate information. Moreover, Carter (2020, p. 9) advises the avoidance of questions starting with auxiliary or modal verbs, she outlines, "Don't ask a question that starts with a non-action verb (like variations on "be" and "do"). […]. Most of the time, when you start a question with a verb, you are asking a closed question."

Given interest to the communication aspects that negotiators need to be wary of; one is the manner of asking questions by avoiding to sound as interrogating, while the other is giving interests unintentionally. A third one is turn taking since it encourages cooperation in the reply, and engages the interactants in a positive discussion, thereby leading them to a productive atmosphere as advised by Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 178). For Elena N. Malyuga and Sveltana N. Orlova (2018, p. 35), interrogative sentences are used to make suggestions because they show respect to the other side, facilitate process managing, and decision-making. They assert (2018, p. 35),

> In order to make a suggestion, business partners more often than not resort to the interrogative form to express respect. For example, 'have we finished with that aspect? In this case, let's go on to the next one'. Interrogative sentences also help manage the negotiation process and make the right decisions. For example, 'What if I were to offer you more money to finish the project quickly?' (Malyuga and Orlova, 2018, p. 35)

Asking questions, in fact, enables both parties to have a clear idea of each one's wants. When both enter discussion giving proposals and counterproposals, conditional questions are required in this stage. For Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 179), conditional questions or probing questions search for gathering specific information for reframing the proposal, as an example, "What if we agree to a two-year contract? Would you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory?" The authors (2012, p. 179) explain that when one party asks this question, this refers to making a conditional proposal that the other party can accept, make a counterproposal, or reject with no embarrassment, allowing the first party to continue making more conditional offers until a common agreement is attained. Another advantage of using conditional questions is to give the opportunity to both parties to exchange information that will be further used in the discussion to define their principle interests and priorities. Cellich and Jain (2012, pp. 179-80) provide examples of useful questions from exporters' and importers' viewpoint;

**For the exporter or supplier**

- What do you think of our proposal?
- Why don't you give us a trial order to see for yourself our capacity to produce to your specifications?
- If you wave the penalty clause, would you be ready to accept?
- If we maintain last year's prices, would you place an order by?
- If we guarantee weekly shipping, would you agree to?
- Yes, I understand what you are saying. However, would you be ready to consider?
- Yes, we could meet your additional requirements. Provided you would be willing to meet the extra costs?

**For the importer or buyer**

- Can you provide us with the necessary additional information so we can reconsider your offer?
- Can you tell me more about your company's manufacturing process?
- If we modify our specifications, will you consider …?
- What is your exact production capacity?
- What are you quality assurance procedures?
- If we agree to a long term contract, would you be ready to …?
- Your product is fine, but your prices are not competitive. Would you be willing to review your pricing structure?

Steve Gates (2016, p. 86), on the other hand, believes that a skillful negotiator should be flexible and able to use a combination of questioning styles. For this very reason, the author (2016, p. 86) offers a list of 14 types of questions where each type targets an aim in the negotiation process, such as establishing rapport, collecting data, or gaining agreement accompanied by examples of patterns for each type. They are organized in Table 1.1.2.

**Table 1.1.2** Question types in negotiations (adapted from Gates, 2016, pp. 86-7)

| *Types* | *Help you to …* | *Examples* |
|---|---|---|
| Contact questions | establish rapport | How have you been since we last met? |
| Probing questions | seek further information | What do you think about your competitor's latest activities? |
| Interrogative questions | encourage them to think about solutions for themselves | Why is that important to you? |
| Comparative questions | explore in detail | What has business been like since the introduction of product? |
| Extension questions | challenge | What do you mean when you say …? |
| Opinion seeking questions | test their knowledge and thinking | What do you think about…? |
| Hypothetical questions | test their knowledge and thinking | What if we were to order 500 units? |
| Reflective/summary questions | draw ideas together and test their understanding and summarize what has been said. | So, you think that we need to introduce this new range? As I understand it, you reckon that you can deliver it? |
| Closing questions | secure agreement | I can deliver on the first or second week of that month; which would suit you best? |
| Mirror questions | serve to reverse the question and confirm the point | "We think we can deliver this for you".<br>"you think you can deliver this?" |
| Leading questions | secure a desired answer | It's a great deal offer, isn't it? |
| Rhetorical questions | prevent them from saying anything as they do not require an answer | Do we really want to do that? And how did it happen? |
| Multiple questions | gain agreement to a package | You did say that you could meet the deadline? Oh, and you will meet our specification and, ah, by the way, you can do this for us can't you? |
| Closed questions | establish specific facts /information | Can you meet our requirement? Do you need help with this offer? |

Similarly, Barber and Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 14) , in the case of integrative negotiation, view that negotiators particularly ask a lot of questions for gaining and giving information about their position and the other party's. The authors (2020, p. 14) reveal that Simon Hazeldine (2006), a UK business negotiator, views that four kinds of questions are needed namely, closed, probing, open-ended, and summarizing. Closed questions are simple specific questions enquiring specific answers such as yes/no answers, whereas probing questions are used to drill further and understand what has been said in a more detail. Sax and Sabenius (2006, p. 77), cited by Barber and Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 14), say, "If they don't like the concept, probe. Ask why? Why not X instead? What if Y? then, listen actively". Examples of probing questions given by Simon Hazeldine (2006, p. 64), as cited by Barber and Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 15), are;

- "What makes you say that?"
- "In what way do you think…?"
- "How do you mean…?"
- "What did you bring that up …?"

Moreover, asking probing questions, as reported by Barber and Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 15), on the basis of Hazeldine's explanations (2006, p. 64), is a technique of using "eco questions". In other words, the question is reframed starting with the last words of the other party's probing question, such as

- "We need a significant investment."
- "Significant investment?"

Here, the negotiator is inquiring about the other party's definition of "significant investment."

Asking all question types, then, is a tactic for information gathering. Richard Luecke (2003, p. 58) suggests nine techniques, of which three question types enable negotiators to learn about the other party's concerns and goals to avoid making a low initial offer. They are (1) asking open-ended questions about the other side's needs, interests, concerns and goals, (2) probing the other side's willingness to trade off one thing for another, for example "Do you care more about X or Y?", and (3) inquiring about the other side's underlying interests by asking the reason for which certain conditions are important, e.g., the delivery date.

So to speak, the skill of asking questions correctly in business negotiation is a criterion characterizing competent negotiators. In this line, Carter (2020, p. 7) asserts, "The best negotiators and leaders are the ones who ask the right questions and therefore get the right information to help them make better deals."

#### 1.5.1.1.2 Ensuring Clear Understanding

In business negotiations, ensuring clear understanding during the discussion is vital for the ongoing of the process. In this line, Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 182) consider four techniques helping negotiators avoid misunderstanding and ambiguity, namely "restating, rephrasing, reframing and summarizing." Restating and rephrasing techniques allow the listener to acknowledge the other party's viewpoint and the heard message. For example, "If I understand you correctly, what you are really saying is …" Reframing and summarizing are useful tactics for redirecting the discussion to the main issues that must be treated, and moving the it to a neutral point in case of a failure in the collaboration. In this context, Lewiki and Hiam (2006, p. 152) distinguish four reasons of 'summarizing':

1- It slows the pace to give everyone time to cool off.
2- It reminds the other party of any progress to date, which can help reframe the situation in a more positive way.
3- It checks everybody's understanding to make sure they agree with your perception of what has been accomplished or agreed so far.

4- It acts as a way to move toward either resolving ambiguities or moving on to issues yet to be discussed.

For clarifying expectations and interpretations, Adrian Wallwork (2014, p. 52) believes that it is important for parties to have a clear idea of each other's wants. The author (2014, p. 52) outlines, "When two parties sit down to negotiate, they may think that they have a clear idea of what the other party wants. However, it pays to clarify your own position and also to check your understanding of the other party's position." Wallwork (2014, p. 52) provides examples of sentences that negotiators can use for clarification and more understanding:

"Our understanding is that you are interested in …"

"So, are we right in thinking that you …?"

"Can I just verify that you are …"

"Can we just check that we both have the same interpretation of …"

Another way to ensure good communication between parties is to be an assertive speaker. Assertiveness is a style of communication that implies being respectful towards others and at the same time determined, clear, and firm. Unlike an aggressive or a passive negotiator, being assertive means having the ability to express feelings, ideas, and opinions openly and confidently showing respect for the other party's opinions and ideas, and making one's views clear and voice heard without losing temper. Assertiveness, therefore, means that both parties are winners. In this vein Marty Brounstein *et al.,* (2010, p. 281) state, "Assertive speaking involves expressing yourself in a positive, confident, and respectful way and allowing and encouraging others to do the same. This pattern of speaking requires the most skill and effort." The authors (2010, p. 281) provide some common messages heard from assertive speakers

√ "Yes, that was my mistake."

√ "As I understand your point, …"

√ "Let me explain why I see that point differently."

√ "Let's define the issue and then explore some options to help resolve it."

√ "Please hear me out and then work with me to resolve my concern."

Marty Brounstein *et al.,* (2010, p. 281) explain that the assertive approach is "action-oriented" and "problem-solving". With this approach, the speaker is an active listener, who uses no excuses, no blaming language but constructive language to make points clearly. For example, "As I understood your point ...", "Let me explain why I see that point differently …" In sum, the authors (2010, p. 281) provide six behaviors displayed by an assertive speaker:

√ "Takes responsibility"

√ "Takes initiative"

√ "Listens actively"

√ "Speaks up, is direct and constructive"

√ "Shows sincerity"

√ "Is solution-focused"

Assertiveness, therefore, is a skill that can be developed and perfected with practice. In a situation of disagreement, as an example, which is common in negotiation, it is useful to practice the use of assertive language and express respect to the other person. To make a request and sound less direct and respectful, Elena N. Malyuga and Sveltana N. Orlova (2018, p. 35) suggest the use of the subjunctive mood forms, such as "would like" rather than "want", as in the example "I would like to hear you talk about that first point again."

Furthermore, the use of the present simple tense and assertive language enables the negotiator to state what s/he wants out of the negotiation (Sambey, 1999, p. 117). Thus, the experienced negotiator does not define the negotiation goals within a fixed point but within a range. For instance, if s/he wants from the meeting an agreement on the amount of the rental to be paid by her / his office, in her / his mind s/he should say "I will accept any rent increase from zero to ten percent" instead of I will accept a rent increase of only 10%. Table 1.1.3 demonstrates the difference between assertive and weak languages according to Sambey (1999, p. 117).

**Table 1.1.3** Comparison between assertive and weak language in negotiation (Sambey, 1999, p. 117)

| Assertive language | Weak language |
|---|---|
| I (don't) want | I would(n't) like |
| I (don't) need | I would rather (not) |
| I must | I hope |
| I insist | I feel |
| I require | I wish |
| And in conversational form, some examples: | |
| What I/ we (don't) want is | What I/we would(n't) like is |
| What I/we (don't) need is | I/we would rather (not) have |
| I/we must have | I/we feel we should have |
| What I/we insist on is | I/we hope that |
| What I/we require is | What I/we would like to see is |

Decoding verbal signals is another skill of ensuring a clear understanding in business negotiation. Indeed, negotiators use verbal signals for the reason to show their interest in the other party's message as well as a move to transit from the initial phase of negotiation to the closure. Mulholland (2002, p. 46) lists some examples of verbal signals,

- "Well now, we'd better get down to work on this …",

- "Ok then, everyone here? Well, let's start...",
- "If we're all agreed on that, let's move to …",
- "That's settled then, ok", "Next item for discussion is Agenda item 3".

Mulholland (2002, p. 46) subdivides the signals into "a framing signal", such as 'Now then', 'Ok then', 'Right', which is often emphasized with a non-verbal signal, and "a focusing signal" as "we'd better get down to work on this", "let's start", "all agreed", "let's move to" and "That's settled". In his words (2002, p. 47) , "Frame and focus usually occur together. They strongly indicate a change from one set of activities to another, or from discussing one topic to another."

So to speak, it is important to avoid misunderstandings in business negotiations, Dell Wright (2012, p. 94) says, "Make sure both sides understand each other. Clarify your points with statements like "Let me see if I understood you correctly. What you're saying is …" To this end, assertive language, verbal signals, and simple present tense are used for either restating or summarizing the message, thereby avoiding misunderstandings and misinterpretations in the discussion phase in order to move to the next step of the negotiation process, which is the bargaining phase.

### 1.5.1.1.3 Bargaining

To cope with the world's economic system and increase wealth, countries target international markets to sell their goods and services. However, for self-interest reasons they may find themselves in conflicting situations where bargaining becomes an utmost to obtain the 'what I want'. Therefore, negotiations are integral to business and trade. Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, p. 194) see negotiation as "a process of bargaining in which two parties, each of which has something that the other wants, try to reach an agreement on mutually accepted terms", for Evan Frendo (2005, p. 76) "Negotiation is about bargaining with another party to get something we want." In the same line of thought, Sambey (1999, pp. 114-5) assumes that the trading phase in negotiations infers that both parties want to earn profit, and because their interests are at the stake they start bargaining, "[…] trade takes place by making offers and counter-offers. In other words, bargaining, or negotiating".

Bargaining, which is also known under other terms, such as 'horse-trading', 'concession-trading', 'give-and-take', 'haggling', and 'bartering', is usually associated with the term negotiation as it refers to the real action in a negotiation process. Quoting David Oliver (2011, p. 3), "Negotiation is a transaction in which both parties have a veto on the final outcome. It requires voluntary consent on both sides. It is a give and take process where the actual conditions of a transaction are agreed. It is the act or process of bargaining to reach a mutually acceptable agreement or objective. It requires movement on both sides - real or perceived." Likewise, Oliver (2011, p. 4) argues the fact that business people think they negotiate, but they only close the deal which causes them a lot of money loss. He says (2011, p. 4) "The reality is, of course, that lots of people in business do not negotiate – they simply make agreements the best they can and it costs them every single time." In this case, the question to ask is how to bargain. As an example, Table 1.1.4 provides some expressions used by sellers and buyers when bargaining for a price.

**Table 1.1.4** Seller- buyer price bargain (Surtiyah, Sofyanda, Djamilah , & Kurnia, 2006, pp. 75-6)

<table>
<tr><th>Buyer</th><th>Seller</th></tr>
<tr><td>Ask about the price<br>How much is it?<br>How much do you want for it?</td><td>Describe the price<br>It is a fair price.<br>It’s a bargain.<br>It’s a steal.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Try to get a lower price<br>Can you go lower?<br>Is that your best price?<br>Will you take (five) dollars?<br>How about (five) dollars?<br><br>Decide<br>I’ll take it.<br>Let me think about it.<br>I’ll pass, but thanks anyway.</td><td>Hold the price<br>That’s the best I can do.<br>The price is firm.<br>Take it or leave it.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Give a lower price<br>I might take a little less.<br>Make me an offer.<br><br>Decide<br>So, what do you think?<br>What do you say?</td></tr>
</table>

As explained beforehand in the literature to be a spoken business communication skill, the term negotiation in some contexts is used interchangeably with the term ‘bargaining’. Though they are both speaking activities, they do not mean the same. Marian Roberts (2014, p. 19) differentiating between both terms says

> Bargaining and negotiation are not synonymous. Bargaining is associated with the cut and thrust of the marketplace. Negotiation, on the other hand, is much broader in scope, encompassing the processes of communication, exchanges of information, and learning that can lead to improved understanding, the lessening of competition and hostility and therefore the willingness to make the necessary adjustments and modifications that can lead to agreement.

For instance, in the context of sales negotiation in terms of selling and negotiating relationships, bargaining takes place in the sales conversation at the end of the sales talk as a proof of the complete buyer’s interest in the product. As regards bargaining, Weiss (2006), cited by Barry Maude (2014, p. 4) , differentiates between micro-level and macro-level negotiation. The former type involves bargaining between individuals, such as buying/selling transactions, while the latter involves very large-scale negotiations, such as bargaining between companies.

As to the language of bargaining, it involves the give-and-take principle and the structuring of an offer. To this end, Nic Peeling (2008, p. 69) exemplifies "IF I give you a three-year deal THEN will you give me a 10% discount?" or "IF you knock a thousand pounds off the price THEN I could accept a lower specification." This implies the use of conditional sentences of type one. This implies that knowledge of English grammar is important for skilled negotiators. Roger Fisher and William Ury (1991, pp. 3-4) provide a classic example of a customer-shopkeeper language of bargaining (see Table 1.1.5).

**Table 1.1.5** Customer-Shopkeeper position bargaining (Fisher & Ury, 1991, pp. 3-4)

| ***Customer*** | ***Shopkeeper*** |
|---|---|
| How much do you want for this brass dish? | That is a beautiful antique, isn't it? I guess I could let it go for $75. |
| Oh come on, it's dented. I'll give you $15. | Really! I might consider a serious offer, but $15 certainly isn't serious. |
| Well, I could go to $20, but I would never pay anything like $75. Quote me a realistic price. | You drive a hard bargain, young lady. $60 cash, right now. |
| **Customer** | **Shopkeeper** |
| $25. | It cost me a great deal more than that. Make me a serious offer. |
| $37.50. That's the highest I will go. | Have you noticed the engraving on that dish? Next year pieces like that will be worth twice what you pay today. |

As to the language of offers, Malyuga and Orlova (2018, p. 35) suggest the use of introductory words, such as "I think", "maybe" and "perhaps" exemplifying with "Perhaps we could solve this problem together."

Bargaining, therefore, means making offers and counteroffers, trading concessions, as well as offering alternatives. For Marian Roberts (2014, p. 19) , “Bargaining refers to a series of offers and counteroffers, demands and counter demands, the trading of concessions, the splitting of differences, and the pooling of losses.” Bargaining utterances require from negotiators the use of first and second conditional forms. They also must be as explicit as possible to avoid misunderstandings and negotiation failure. As a solution, they should use hedging phrases before conditional sentences to show the other side that they are simply exploring possible solutions, and not making a firm offer. For example, “Just thinking aloud for a moment, but …”, “This might not work, but …”, “Just to give a hypothetical example …” (Day, 2012).

In sum, business negotiations are based on the bargaining skill especially when interests are at the stake. To succeed in this phase of the negotiating process, language and communication competencies, such as the use of conditional sentences, the simple present, assertive language, as well as verbal signals is required. However, it is not enough to master the skill of bargaining to preserve business relationships, knowledge and ability to use the language of persuasion is another speaking skill business negotiators need to command.

## 1.5.1.1.4 Using Persuasive Language

> “…, an informal meeting in which two managers with different viewpoints seek by discussion to persuade each other to change- though with a view to reaching a mutually satisfactory outcome - involves the very essence of negotiation.” Alan Fowler (2004, p. 16)

Persuasive speaking is an important skill in business negotiations because it enables the negotiator to move directly to the joint target of the agreement. For effective communication, speakers need to master the language of persuasion to make suggestions and express views. Therefore, being persuasive is a feature of trying to convince the other party to agree with you throughout the use of words and meanings, particularly in the discussion phase in case proposals were not accepted, in line with this T.M. Farhathullah (2002, p. 15)

> Successful negotiation depends on persuasive talk. Negotiation is a process that involves two stages. In the first stage the proposal has to be presented. In the second stage the salient features of the proposal have to be discussed. It is here that your talent of persuasion and negotiation will help clinch the issue in your favour. Not all negotiations may end in your favour, however. Sometimes conflicts persist, but on no account should you use harsh words and abandon the process of negotiation. You have to use the tools of persuasion again and impress upon the customer or official the importance of the proposal or business deal. (T.M. Farhathullah, 2002, p. 15)

Moreover, persuasion is a crucial component and an important aspect of the negotiating process because it gives both parties the possibility for good business rapport establishment with a satisfying result achievement. For McIntosh and Luecke (2011, pp. 55-6) , persuasion is one of the most powerful ways to influence others. Moreover, the successful outcome is dependent on one's ability to persuade the other, and the use of persuasive language constitutes among others one building block of effective persuasion. The authors (2011, p. 64) outline, "Persuasion is a communication process through which we alter or affect the attitudes, beliefs, or actions of others. The four building blocks of persuasion are trust, understanding a credible case, and persuasive language." Then, the focus is on the language of persuasion and its use in the negotiation field.

From a discourse analysis point of view; however, persuasion in some cases can result in a tangled situation. Anne Marie Bülow-Møller (2005, p. 27), based on Rolof's, Tutzauer's and Dailey's (1989) experimental study on persuasion in business negotiations, argues that this behavior is sometimes a danger signal that indicates deadlock. Unlike other business genres, according to Bülow-Møller (2005, p. 27), persuasion in business negotiation is interactive because it involves two parties trying to convince each other, but the more they are engaged in argumentative discourse, the farther they become from achieving a satisfying result. This type of negotiation is known as a double-take interaction. The author (2005, p. 27) stating Rolof, Tutzauer and Dailey (1989: 117)

> The more bargaining dyads engaged in persuasive argumentation, the more likely they deadlocked. In fact, persuasive argumentation was the strongest predictor of deadlocking of any communication variable measured in this study. Second, the degree of persuasive argumentation was negatively related to attaining integrative outcomes. Importantly, this relationship dissipated when controlling for deadlocks. Thus, increasing levels of persuasive argumentation were positively associated with deadlocking which in turn resulted in less integrative agreements. Among dyads not deadlocking, there was no relationship between persuasive argumentation and reaching an integrative agreement […].

Furthermore, Bülow-Møller (2005, p. 27) argues that discourse analysts have to take into account these results because the normal rules of a negotiation process structure cannot be applied in such type of situations. She (2005, p. 27) outlines, "If it is true that persuasion is negatively related to integrative outcomes (i.e. situations where both parties are satisfied), then these results merit some attention from discourse analysts."

Persuasion, then, is a double-edged weapon. It can add talk efficiency as it can lead it to failure. Unfortunately, some negotiators continue to persuade the other side by giving more arguments if the other party is not interested in the offer, and, because parties have opposite visions, they extensively try to persuade each other. As they need to exchange information, they disbelieve everything heard. As a safe solution, the negotiators must avoid falling into this difficult situation. Bülow-Møller (2005, p. 41) views that it is better to make the right choice of language resources in the creation of a common ground by taking the other party's perspective, and framing the suggestion more attractively. Therefore, framing, paraphrasing, and summarizing skills are of primordial importance to untangle the situation. To this end, the author (2005, p. 41) asserts

> It is often assumed that areas of common ground are somehow already there, just waiting to be discovered by the negotiators. However, discourse studies show that a significant amount of the work is linguistic, notably with respect to framing. Semantically speaking, framing is the exercise of shifting one's own preferred term into common ground territory while intensifying one's own strong points and downplaying the weaker ones. (Bülow-Møller, 2005, p. 41)

As regards the language of persuasion in business negotiations, T.M. Farhathullah (2002, p. 15) illustrates with some useful expressions, "Why don't you …?", "I think you would do well to … .", "The most sensible thing to do would be … .", " I think it would be a pity if you didn't … .", and "I'm hoping I can persuade you to change your mind?" In the same line of thoughts, Malyuga and Orlova (2018, p. 35) suggest the use of modal verbs to say things diplomatically and avoid speaking aggressively, they (2018, p. 35) assert, "In order to tell about something in a more tactful manner, business partners make use of modal verbs *should*, *would*, *could* or *might*. Ignoring these modal verbs in the process of business negotiation will make the speech sound aggressive.”

In fact, the use of the right linguistic tools to deliver the message, and ensure effective communication is essential in business communication in general and negotiations in particular. To reach this goal, Hill (2020, p. 58) proposes the use of two communication forms to address the other side: persuasive form to create rapport and gain trust, and informative form to show that your product/service suits the client’s needs.

In sum, speaking is an important feature of business communication and career evolution. When business people are engaged in a negotiation, they have to use all their skills and tactics to deliver an attractive message to the listener, and effectively achieve the communication objective. To this end, both participants; speaker and listener, who tend to exchange roles during the communication process, are responsible for leading the negotiation either to success or failure because in fact “A good speaker is essentially a good listener as well. So it is important that we listen to what everyone has to say”, Sangeeta Sharma and Binod Mishra (2009, p. 320) outlining. Thus, the listening skill in its turn owes a great deal of interest at this level of the discussion.

### 1.5.1.2 Listening Skills

For a business communication to be effective, all parties involved must have a shared understanding and uncovering of the underlying meaning to each word spoken. Effective communication doesn’t occur based on the role of a participant in communication. It involves all participants, which are the speakers and the listeners. As a business person, in the process of communicating, you need to ensure that you achieve the following: conciseness, clarity, objectivity, consistency, completeness, relevance, and a full grasp of what your audience knows. Christopher Hill (2020, p. 59)

Crucial to all effective communication, the listening skill is “the ability to accurately receive and interpret messages in the communication process (Jerome & Xavier, 2018, p. 127). According to Bastin Jerome and Joseph Xavier (2018, p. 127), CEOs, who believe that good listening skills lead to better customer satisfaction and greater productivity, provide listening skills training for their employees in order to minimize mistakes, and prevent message misunderstandings that often result in a communication breakdown with customers. Chris Battell (2006, p. 2) , on the other hand side, considers eleven kinds of listening that experts use: “appreciative”, “active”, “comprehensive”, “critical”, “defensive”, “dichotic”, “discriminative”, “empathic or emphatic”, “reflective or responsive”, “selective”, and “therapeutic.”

In connection to business negotiations, two listening types are used; active and reflective or responsive listening. Battell (2006, p. 2) defines active listening as “a willing act of attending to and interpreting with an open mind the words and feelings a speaker expresses”, and reflective or responsive listening as “listening to paraphrase, summarize, and clarify a message.”

As to the attitudes of listening towards the other side, Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 176) make a distinction between three forms of listening skills namely, “passive listening”, “acknowledgement”, and “active listening”. The former type involves listening by showing a lack of interest in what the other party is saying. The second type includes showing interest in the information provided by encouraging the other party to continue through a movement, such as head nodding, or by responding with “I see”, "interesting", "sure", "go on" or "please continue". The latter type refers to a complete negotiator's engagement in the other party's messages by carefully analyzing and assessing the received information.

Active listening, therefore, is recognized as the most effective listening skill since the listener is actively involved in the communication throughout giving attention, and showing interest by acknowledging the speaker's message with responses. As outlined by Leslie Kaplan and William Owings (2015, p. 198) "It is a form of behavior in which individuals try to understand what others are communicating to them through the use of words, actions and things."

Listening is an ability to understand, which implies attention and focus. It is, in fact, complex because it is about connecting meaning to what is being heard, and looking for the ideas beneath words amongst distractions (Kaplan & Owings, 2015, p. 198). Seth Horowitz says "the difference between the sense of hearing and the skill of listening is attention." (qtd. in Kaplan & Owings, 2015, p. 198). This attention is not only paid to words but also to how the language, voice, and body are used. In other meanings, listening deals with both verbal and non-verbal communication, it is about "paying attention, focusing on what the other person is saying." according to Kaplan and Owings (2015, p. 198). For Battell (2006, p. 1), "listening is a complex combination of hearing, seeing, comprehending, and interpreting communication."

Consequently, possessing good listening skills prevents all types of misunderstandings, including the ones dealing with language, such as pronunciation, which can be improved by ear-training activities. Given the interest in improving listening in the business negotiation field, three aspects of the listening skill are discussed, to name (1) active listening, (2) miscommunication avoidance, and (3) mispronunciation and ear training.

### 1.5.1.2.1 Active Listening

The ability to listen carefully to fully comprehend the needs, concerns, and perspectives of the other party to identify common ground and areas of agreement, can serve as a foundation for a mutually beneficial outcome. Experienced negotiators express themselves in a manner that is respectful, persuasive, and tailored to the specific audience. This helps them to build trust and credibility with the other party, fostering an environment conducive to open dialogue and collaboration. In this respect,

> Active listening is a person's willingness and ability to hear and understand. At its core, active listening is a state of mind that involves paying full and careful attention to the other person, avoiding premature judgment, reflecting understanding, clarifying information, summarizing and sharing. By learning and committing to the skills and behaviors of active listening, leaders can become more effective listeners and, over time, improve their ability to lead. (Hoppe, 2006, p. 1)

In contrary, poor listening in business negotiations can have damaging effects on the outcome of the discussion. When negotiators fail to listen actively, they lose crucial information and fail to understand the needs and concerns of the other party. This lack of attentiveness can lead to misunderstandings, misinterpretations, and in a communication breakdown. Battell (2006, p. 1) outlines, "In the world of business, poor listening skills can be costly and affect performance." For this very reason, the author (2006, p. 1) provides a list of nine poor listening skill results, namely (1) "wasted meeting time", (2) "inaccurate orders and shipments, (3) "lost sales", (4) "inadequately informed, misinformed, confused, or angry staff and customers", (5) "unmet deadlines",

(6) “unsolved problems”, (7) “wrong decisions”, (8) “lawsuits” and (9) “poor employee morale”. Listening to the other party’s message attentively and carefully strengthens parties’ relationships, results in a good collaboration and leads to greater productivity. Thus, listening skills can be improved by practice just as the speaking ones (Battel, 2006, p. 1).

Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 175) consider poor listening as a major weakness and incompetence of inexperienced negotiators leading the negotiation to a monologue instead of a real discussion. For John X. Wang (2008, p. 170), effective listening entails effective communication, so to grasp this meaning, the author (2008, p. 170) provides a comparison between attitudes of effective and poor listeners where good listening, unlike poor one, is characterized by a set of qualities and abilities. For example, an effective listener is someone who is well concentrated and note-taking organized, able to summarize what is being said, pays attention to non-verbal language, does not interrupt the speaker only if necessary or when speaking is finished (see Table 1.1.6).

**Table 1.1.6** Comparison between poor and effective listeners’ attitudes (Wang J. , 2008, p. 170)

| **Poor Listener** | **Effective Listener** |
|---|---|
| Tends to «wool-gather» with slow speakers | Thinks and mentally summarizes, weighs the evidence, listens between the lines to tones of voice and evidence |
| Subject is dry, so tunes out speaker | Finds «what’s in it for me» |
| Distracted easily; lets mind wander if thinks he or she knows what the person is going to say next | Fights distractions, sees past bad communication habits, knows how to concentrate |
| Takes intensive notes, but the more notes taken, the less value; has only one way to take notes | Has two to three ways to take notes and organize important information |
| Is over-stimulated, and tends to seek and enter into arguments | Does not judge until comprehension is complete |
| Inexprienced in listening to difficult material; has usually sought light, | Uses «heavier» materials to regularly exercise the mind |

| | |
|---|---|
| recreational materials | |
| Lets deaf spots or blind words catch his or her attention | Interprets color words and does not get hung up on them |
| Shows no energy output | Holds eye contact and helps speaker along by showing an active body state |
| Judges delivery - tunes out | Judges content, skips over delivery errors |
| Listens for facts | Listens for main ideas. |
| Interrupts the speaker | Lets the speaker finish before he or she begins to talk |
| Busy thinking about what he or she wants to say next | Lets himself or herself finish listening before he or she begins to speak |

Indeed, experienced negotiators spend more than the half of their time in listening with the remaining in talking and asking questions to ensure a complete understanding of the other party's talk. In other meanings, good listening competence entails thinking, analyzing, and assessing what the other side is saying to get worthy information, thereby gaining more negotiation power (Cellich & Jain, 2012, pp. 175-6). This is, therefore, contingent on business success, for this very reason managers and executives target the development of good listening skills. For instance, good listening makes it possible for one party after listening attentively to the other one's needs and concerns to adapt the offer, and make counterproposals to meet the other party's requirements, thus, good listening requires discipline and commitment. Paul Steele and Tom Beasor (1999, p. 122) conceive "Expert negotiators know how important it is to practise good listening skills. These are skills that can be learned and used. Hearing is not listening. Listening needs effort and can be hard work."

Alternatively, a major constraint a negotiator may find is the loss of some valuable information if one's concentration is directed on what to say after rather than to listen to what the other party says. A skillful negotiator, then, needs to read between the lines and always show one's willingness to listen longer. In this context, Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 176) outline some examples, such as by saying "Yes" or "Please go on" or by asking questions for clarification, and through other good listening habits including "observing body language". As a matter of fact, a study revealed that body language accounts for 55% in the effectiveness of communication; a rate that exceeds the voice with 38%, and words with 7%, because movements are an indicator of one party's interest or disinterest in what the other side is saying (Cellich & Jain, op cit). Because of the relationship between culture and language, a deep insight of non-verbal communication skills is provided in the second chapter.

In this vein, Allen Ivey, Mary Ivey and Carlos Zalaquett (2013), cited by Kaplan and Owings (2015, p. 198) , distinguish five essential elements amongst other ones active listening is dependent on, which are "attending, observing, questioning, encouraging, and paraphrasing." The authors (2015, pp. 198-9) define attending as the process of being alert to the conversation including that the listener should be culturally, individually, and situationally aware of eye contact and body language, and staying focused on the conversation. Observing, which means watching attentively the speaker's verbal and non-verbal behavior, such as words, facial expressions, voice tone with the way it changes during the conversation, and eye contact, enables the listener to understand if the speaker appears friendly, angry, firm, congruent, or anxious and to have additional insights into the speaker's message. Questioning involves asking questions for clarification to fully understand the speaker's concern and meaning, and avoid vagueness and confusion, for instance, "Could you give an example of what you mean?" Encouraging refers to "encouraging behaviors" which are the listener's actions to help the conversation advance, such as silence and emphatic recognition through the use of small verbal cues like "yes", " I see", "uh-huh", and "tell me more", and even non-verbal cues, such as smiling, leaning forward, and head nodding. Paraphrasing, on the other side, entails repeating the essence of the speaker's message with fewer words to make sure that the message has been accurately interpreted providing feedback to the speaker about what is gained from the conversation.

For Barber and Fletcher-Chen (2020, p. 27), active listening is a term used to refer to good listening skills. Therefore, for a negotiator to be characterized as an active listener, s/he is required to show listening by reacting with appropriate verbal and body language signals. Moreover, both types of signals might mean the correct use of interjections, for instance 'ah', 'uh', 'huh', 'mm', 'so', 'or', and the use of movements such as nodding, leaning forward, eye contact, and others (Baber and Fletcher-Chen, 2020, p. 27). In the same context, Steele and Beasor (1999, pp. 122-3) illustrate with some behaviors as an indication of listening (see Figure 1.1)

**Figure 1.1** Some behaviors that indicate listening (Steele & Beasor, 1999, pp. 122-3)

| | |
|---|---|
| Reflecting | Let me see if I've got your point ... |
| | Are you saying ...? |
| Supporting | Yes, good idea. |
| | And then? |
| Disagreeing | Won't that cost too much? |
| Constructing | Would it help if we ...? |
| | What would you like to happen? |
| Criticizing (but carefully!) | If we do this for him, we'll have to do it for everybody else. |
| Clarifying | isn't the point that ...? |
| Interpreting | are you suggesting ...? |
| Confirming | so, we agree that ... |
| Testing | would it be right to say that ...? |
| | If we did this, then ... |

For emphasizing the importance of active listening as a skill helping capture the other side's message, and at the same time signaling one's attentiveness and willingness to hear what s/he has on mind, Nicki Stanton (2009, p. 30) proposes the following listener responses to convey interest in the speaker:

- Nodding the head slightly and waiting
- Looking at the speaker attentively
- Remarking 'I see', 'Uh-huh', 'Really'?
- Repeating back the last few words the speaker said (but be careful- if this becomes a habit, it can be irritating)
- Reflecting back to the speaker your understanding of what has been said ('You feel that …')

In addition, as a second chance to recover something that has been missed in the talk, Stanton (2009, p. 27) illustrates with reflective phrases used as an introduction of thought by repeating the speaker's point, and then following the utterance by a (Wh) word question, such as "you said", "you mentioned", "you suggested before" or "you described". Similarly, Richard Luecke (2003, p. 59) suggests seven tips to be an active listener:

- Keep your eyes on the speaker.
- Take notes as appropriate.
- Don't allow yourself to think about anything but what the speaker is saying.
- Resist the urge to formulate your response until *after* the speaker has finished.
- Pay attention to the speaker's body language.
- Ask questions to get more information and to encourage the speaker to continue.
- Repeat in your own words what you've heard to ensure that you understand and to let the speaker know that you've processed his or her words.

Consequently, developing effective listening skills enables business negotiators to improve their active listening strategies. Directing attention, comprehension monitoring, multimodal inferencing, and seeking clarification all improve listening skills for a better performance. Lewiki and Hiam (2006, p. 42) point out that "Great listening skills require us to be able to understand what the others are saying, read the emotion in their voice as well as the words, and understand their underlying interests." Besides, Mark Helmold (2020, p. 32) views that skilled negotiators are active listeners who are not only competent in communicating orally, but also in interpreting the other party's body language, he (2020, p. 32) outlines "Negotiators have the skills to listen actively to the other party during the debate. Active listening involves the ability to read body language as well as verbal communication. It is important to listen to the other party to find areas for compromise during the meeting. …, the skilled negotiator will spend more time listening to the other party."

So to speak, active listening can be improved with practice because by becoming a better listener, you can improve your speaking skill and ability to impress, control, convince and negotiate. Consequently, you will avoid conflicts and misunderstandings, which is necessary for workplace talk success.

## 1.5.1.2.2 Miscommunication Avoidance

Globally, human activities are based on the interaction between individuals who often complain from the fact they do not understand each other, which is considered as one of the most serious problems causing communication failures. According to Arto Mustajoki (2013, p. 33) , the problem of misunderstanding in communication has attracted a considerable number of studies. The author (2013, p. 33) explains that some studies dealt with the analysis and classification of misunderstandings in the English language, and on its genre-specific nature (e.g., Zaefferer, 1977; Falkner, 1997; Adrissono *et al*., 1998; Bazzanella & Damiano, 1999; Dascal, 1999; Tzanne, 2000; Anolli, 2001; Niedzielki & Preston, 2001; Olsina, 2002; House *et al.,* 2003; Verdonik, 2010; Janiki, 2010; Mustajoki, 2013), whereas, others in other languages than English (e.g., Ermakova and Zemskaja, 1993; Batsevich, 2000).

Falkner (1997) in his study, as cited by Mustajoki (2013, p. 34), succeeded to identify six miscommunication causes, to name "(1) articulative, auditive, or acoustic", "(2) cultural differences", "(3) differences in knowledge", "(4) intentional communication failures", "(5) special expectations on the basis of scripts", and "(6) context". On the other hand, House's (2000) study, as cited by Maude (2014, p. 29), resulted in the identification of four typical problems between negotiators with different first languages and cultural backgrounds, and they involve

- Mishearing and mispronunciations
- Emotional responses (e.g. suspicion, resentment) leading to rejection or awkward, non-cooperative attitudes
- Comprehension problems caused by linguistic difficulties; misunderstanding the opponent's intentions
- 'Production difficulties': in the fast-moving discourse the hearer is not able to assemble an appropriate response to points made by others.

In the same context, Sangeeta Sharma and Binod Mishra (2009, p. 20) believe that even excellent communicators can find themselves in situations of misunderstanding because of certain barriers, such as background and cultural differences that can interfere in the flow of the message, and cause communication breakdown (2009, p. 26) . As a solution, the authors emphasize the necessity of possessing language knowledge (e.g., good pronunciation and grammar), and oral communication competence (e.g., good listening skills) to deliver the message and exchange opinions efficiently. Sharma and Mishra assert (2009, p. 320)

> Knowledge without implementation is useless. It is, therefore, necessary to be able to deliver one's ideas in an effective manner. Exchange views among the participants takes place with the help of language. Success depends how confidently and convincingly you put across your ideas. The members of the committee closely evaluate your oral communication skills. Communication skill competence includes clarity in articulation and pronunciation, listening skills and effective language. (Sharma and Mishra, 2009, p. 320)

In fact, the way ideas are expressed in terms of language choice and coherence besides pronunciation matters in business negotiations. Pronunciation and articulation, in particular, are in the majority of situations the reasons for misunderstanding and misinterpretation problems between the interlocutors. It is bare to notice that non-native English speakers encounter these problems when listening to their foreign counterparts either native or non-native; the case of Algerian managers and executives who often complain from the fact they find difficulties in grasping their partners' talk because of their diction very often affected by their mother language accent. To this intent, the ability to understand what others say given their cultural and language background differences is essential, and yet, words should be pronounced clearly regardless the speaker's accent. Thus, it is worthwhile to consider the problem of mispronunciation given its impact on the listening skill.

## 1.5.1.2.3 Mispronunciation and Ear Training

Naturally, accents vary with educational, regional, social, and cultural factors. British, Americans, Asians, and Latin Americans all pronounce English sounds differently. However, the purpose of the study is not to dip into accent variations but rather to provide examples of native and non-native English speakers' different pronunciation patterns to raise the negotiators' awareness, and explore the techniques and practices required for improving good listening skills to prevent the problem of miscommunication due to mispronunciation and mishearing. The examples are selected based on their business cooperation with Algeria.

In the case of native speakers, both Americans and the British speak English with different accents. The difference lies in the pronunciation of vowels and consonants, word stress and intonation, citing Edward Finegan (2008, p. 351) "Differences in vowel and consonant pronunciation, as well as in word stress and intonation, combine to create American and British accents." Moreover, Daniel Jones in the Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary (2011, p. vi) explains that the term 'rhotic' is used to describe the most important distinguishing feature between British English accent also called RP standard English, and American English accent known as general American and shortened (GA). Unlike British pronunciation, in general, the American English accent is rhotic, which means it is characterized by the pronunciation of the consonant sound /r/ wherever the letter 'r' occurs in the spelling, e.g., car /kɑ:r/ and cart /kɑ:rt/.

Other differences, as described by Jones (2011, pp. vii-ix), involve the length of the pronounced vowel sound, which is generally less long and made with less oral tension in GA than in RP standard English. British English is generally described as having seven short vowels (i.e., k**i**t /ɪ/, dr**e**ss /e/, tr**a**p /æ/, str**u**t /ʌ/, l**o**t /ɒ/, f**oo**t /ʊ/, **a**noth**er** /ə/), five long ones (i.e., fl**ee**ce /i:/, p**a**lm /ɑ:/, th**ou**ght /ɔ:/, g**oo**se /u:/, n**ur**se /ɜ:/), and eight diphthongs (f**a**ce /eɪ/, pr**i**ce /aɪ/, ch**oi**ce /ɔɪ/, g**oa**t /əʊ/, m**ou**th /aʊ/, n**ear** /ɪə/, squ**are** /eə/, c**ure** /ʊə/). American English, on the other side, is characterized by having six lax vowels (i.e., /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ʊ/, /ə/), four tense ones (i.e. /i:/, /ɑ:/, /ɔ:/, /u:/), five wide diphthongs (i.e., /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, g**oa**t /oʊ/, /aʊ/), and two retroflex vowels (i.e., r-colored) (i.e., anoth**er** /ɚ/, n**ur**se /ɝ/). Some major pronunciation differences of vowels, consonants, and word-stress placement are summarized below:

- The vowel /æ/ is similarly pronounced in both accents like in 'm**a**t', 'f**a**t', 'h**a**t', but in words ending in a fricative consonant (i.e., /f/ /v/ /θ/ /ð/ /s/ /z/ /ʃ/ /ʒ/ /h/) and without having /r/, it is pronounced /ɑ:/ in British English like in 'h**a**lf', 'p**a**st', 'p**a**th' (qtd in Finegan, 2008, p. 351).
- Unlike RP standard English, there is no vowel /ɒ/ in GA. In words, such as 'h**o**t', 't**o**p', 'b**o**ther', it is pronounced /ɑ:/, "b**o**ther rhymes with f**a**ther", for instance (qtd in Daniel, 2011, p. ix)
- The vowel /u/ occurring after alveolar consonants (i.e., /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/ ) like in the words 'n**ew**', 't**u**ne', 'd**u**ty' is pronounced as if "they were spelled *noo*, *toon*, *dooty*" (qtd in Finegan, 2008, p. 351), but in British English accent, it is pronounced /ju/ as if spelled 'you'.
- The intervocalic consonant /t/ occurring between a stressed and an unstressed vowel is usually pronounced as a flap [ɾ] in American English, for example, the word "la**tt**er" is pronounced as if spelled "la**dd**er" (qtd in Finegan, 2008, p. 351).
- As regards word stress differences, the British pronounce the words **ga**rage, **fi**llet, **ba**llet, **a**dult by placing the stress on the first syllable, but the Americans tend to place it on the second syllable (qtd. in Finegan, 2008, p. 351).

As to English speakers of other languages (i.e., non-native English speakers), their accent is influenced by their mother language. Jan Volín and Radek Skarnitzl (2018, p. 2) assert, “The sound of their English is influenced by the sound structures of languages they have learned beforehand.”

In India, for example, where English is taught as a second language (Pingali, 2009, p. 17) , it is spoken with a distinctive accent, which can be challenging to understand if the ear is not used to it. Although Hindu people used to speak several English variants, they were reduced thanks to medium and higher education to a more general variety and an acceptable standard called General Indian English (GIE) (Pandey, 2019, p. 301) . So, compared to RP English, GIE pronunciation is characterized by the substitution of some phonemes for others that are generally the reason for misunderstanding (Pandey, 2019, p. 301). Some features of GIE and RP English vowel and consonant differences are summarized below.

- Citing Pingali (2009, p. 19), GIE is non-rhotic, which means that the consonant sound /r/ is not articulated, but pronounced in sentences if occurring in final word position and followed by a vowel sound, such as in “*The car [r] is here, the player [r] indicates his pleasure*”. In this example, /r/ is not pronounced in the words “*here*” and “*pleasure*”.
- Citing Pramod Pandey (2019, p. 301) , there is no difference between the consonant sounds /v/ and /w/, and both are replaced by the labio-dental approximant /ʋ/. For example, they say *verse* instead of *worse* and *vent* instead of *went*.
- Vowel sounds /ɒ/ is not articulated and it is replaced by /a/, e.g., h**o**t is pronounced /h**a**t/ (qtd. in Pingali, 2009, p. 25).

- Besides the five long RP vowels, GIE has two more ones /e:/ and /o:/ to replace diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/, for example d**ay** *and* n**o** are spelled /de:/ and /no:/, respectively (qtd. in Pingali, 2009, p. 25).

As to the Chinese's English pronunciation, especially the people from northern and central China, one of its major features causing misunderstandings is "the addition of a vowel after word-final consonants" as cited by Zhichang Xu, Deyuan He, and David Deterding (2017, p. 22) , according to studies made by Deterding (2006), Schneider (2011) and Li and Sewell (2012). For example, in the first sentence of the given example, the vowel /ə/ is added to '*and'* for a duration of 78 msec while in the second, [ɪ] is added to the word college.

- "my father mother (.) and [ændə] my two brothers"
- " i want to be a college [kɔlɪdʒɪ] teacher"

The omission of word-final plosives is another characteristic of the Chinese's English accent. In the example provided below, the person did not understand the mode of the transport taken to arrive home because the respondent (sentence 3 F2) spelled the verb '*take'* as /taɪ/, perhaps the speaker wanted to say *by* [bai] instead of [tai] according to Zhichang Xu *et al.,* (2017, p. 23).

- *1* F2 ... if have a seven day holiday i will go home
- *2* Int how far away is your home from nanning
- *3* F2 three (.) **take train** [taɪ treɪn] three (.) hours
- *4* Int three hours. by train? or by bus
- *5* F2 er by train by train
- *6* Int okay {F2:60}

Zhichang Xu *et al.,* report (2017, p. 24), based on Riney *et al.*'s study (2005), that Chinese English speakers tend to confuse between the consonant sounds /l/ and /r/ occurring in a consonant cluster. Therefore, words such as "club", "from", "college", and "family" can be heard [craʊd], [flɒm], [kɒrɪdʒ] and [fæmri], respectively.

For developing oral communication skills for business negotiation, diction and accent require careful attention in the BE course design. Thus, it is worthwhile exploring how it is possible to help non-native English speakers overcome miscommunication problems that occur due to mispronunciation. Stanton outlines (2009, p. 18)

> Diction is the way in which you say or pronounce words, and it is required. To some extent it is affected by your accent. Someone from the north will have different diction from someone who comes from London or the South. Diction depends on 'articulation' and enunciation', which are terms used to describe how you pronounce words. (Stanton, 2009, p. 18)

To overcome the problem of misunderstanding due to mispronunciation and mishearing, ear-training exercises are a good working solution not only to improve pronunciation but listening skills either. This type of activities helps learners to recognize and discriminate new and unfamiliar sounds. In the context of ESP course design, Vanya Katsarska (2018, p. 156) , citing Barbara Clarck (2017: 45) who carried out an aviation English research project, emphasizes the importance of training learners to understand different English accents. Katsarska (2018, p. 156) asserts, "it is imperative that they are well-trained and prepared to attune their ears to the range of accents that they will encounter during their flying career." Moreover, the author (2018, p. 156) conceiving the importance of implementing ear training activities in ESP classes

> Another recommendation of aviation linguistic experts which comes naturally with the joint international aviation English course is that aviation English classes include training to understand different accents heard in English and to address variations in intonation, rhythm, and pauses that native and nonnative English speakers have. (Katsarska, 2018, p. 156)

Ear training exercises, therefore, involve listening to recordings, asking students to listen to sounds contrasts, identifying, comparing and discriminating sounds, and distinguishing minimal pairs. To this line, Byram (2004, p. 490) illustrates with exercises in a form of games, such as Bowen and Marks's (1992, p. 361) "Bingo-like game" for sound discrimination, or Taylor's 'yes/no game' (1993, p. 87). These exercises involve "reading contrasting sounds or words aloud to a class and asking them to decide what has been uttered" as outlined by Byram (2004, p. 490).

As far as the business negotiation language course is concerned, ear-training activities are necessary to improve pronunciation and prevent mishearing. Possessing good listening and speaking skills, then, entails being able to differentiate between the sound system of the target language. In this vein Tara Chand Sharma (2008, p. 232) , "One can begin to speak in the target language accurately only when clearly perceive the distinguishing features of the sound system of the language being learnt and also when he can discriminate among unfamiliar and overlapping sounds in it." Emphasizing the importance of managers' command of both speaking and listening skills to be effective communicators, Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2006, p. 246) outline

> In business transactions that involve face-to-face interaction between individuals or groups of individuals, it is not enough to be able to talk, speak, discuss, converse, argue, or negotiate an issue. A manager should be able to converse or discuss persuasively, effectively and convincingly. But to do so he must know the skills of oral communication. (Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi, 2006, p. 246)

## 1.5.2 Written Communication Skills

Although the present research work addresses the business negotiation genre with an emphasis on the development of oral communication skills (both speaking and listening), it is worth providing an overview of the written communication skills, as this form of communication is the most crucial and efficient of all the forms of business communication, especially in contract negotiations. This overview will highlight the significance of written communication in ensuring clarity and precision during contract negotiations, where misunderstandings can lead to costly disputes. Proficiency in business writing allows parties to convey relevant information to the reader in a clear, concise, and effective manner. By understanding these skills, professionals can enhance their overall effectiveness in business negotiations.

Proficiency in business writing is an important aspect of efficient communication in professional contexts in general, and in contract negotiations in particular. Establishing the oral agreement in a legal document requires the incorporation of well-defined terms and conditions to reduce ambiguity, prevent misunderstandings, and ensure that all parties understand and agree to the terms, thereby promoting transparency among them. To do so, the possession of a large vocabulary, knowledge of grammar and style, and understanding of terminology that the reader can easily grasp is necessary.

As a general rule and to be in pace with the fast-improving world, good communication skills, both oral or written, are a means to share thoughts and opinions with others using English as the lingua franca for doing business. For this reason, BE users must be equipped with the various aspects of the language, such as grammar, phonology, syntax, and morphology. Then, business negotiation demands competency in communication and the English language. Though knowledge of the language is primordial, it does not systematically mean the ability to use it accurately and tactfully for business purposes; a different skill that might not be learned academically. For this reason, companies are constantly offering training courses to their managing staff for either learning or developing their skills in communication and language. In this line Leena Sen (2009, pp. 69-70)

> Knowing English language is one thing, but to be able to use it for the purpose of communicating a thought precisely and tactually for business purpose is a different skill that one has to learn. Business communication, both oral and written, demands a lot more competency in language and communication skills than one generally associates it with. […]. The sensitive touch to language is neither taught in schools nor developed in colleges. Perhaps, this is why companies keep holding training programs on communication to enable their managers to unlearn, learn and re-learn their skills in language and communication. (Leena Sen, 2009, pp. 69-70)

## 1.6 Conclusion

Chapter one examined business negotiations from a linguistic perspective, defining it as a business-spoken genre that necessitates the mastery of both oral communication and English language skills, which are crucial for career advancement and company success. Along with the mastery of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary, these skills along with speaking skills, such as asking questions, ensuring clear understanding, bargaining, and using persuasive language are worth consideration in the BE negotiation course. On the other hand, listening skills consist of being active listeners and being able to overcome miscommunication problems in the negotiation meeting that often occur due to mishearing the other party's talk as a consequence of the mispronunciation of some sounds. As a solution, ear-training exercises can be helpful when it comes to improving both speaking and listening skills.

So to speak, a strong command of the language used in negotiations is crucial for effective oral communication. Language does not only allow negotiators to convey their ideas and intentions clearly, but it also plays a significant role in building rapport and establishing trust between parties. However, it is important to recognize that language alone is not sufficient for successful business negotiations. Cultural factors heavily influence how individuals perceive and interpret verbal and non-verbal cues. In addition, improving listening skills also necessitates observing and interpreting the counterpart's body language. At this level, a comprehensive study of the negotiation genre from an intercultural perspective is worth considering. By understanding cultural differences, negotiators can avoid misunderstandings and bridge communication gaps. This means that cultural awareness is an important element in ESP training as it contributes to developing intercultural competence for negotiating effectively in English.

# Chapter two:

# Business Negotiation from an Intercultural Perspective

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## 2.1 Introduction

Developing a strong command of the negotiation genre allows individuals to effectively convey their intentions and understand their counterpart's messages. This entails recognizing subtle cues such as facial expressions, gestures, and tone of voice. Therein, the meaning of a communicative act in business negotiations happens to vary from one culture to another. Cultural norms and values play a significant role in shaping the way individuals communicate and interpret nonverbal cues, thereby affecting the negotiating process. For instance, a gesture that may be considered polite in one culture could be seen as offensive in another. Similarly, the tone of voice and eye contact used during negotiations can convey different meanings depending on the cultural context. Understanding the cultural differences and norms of the other party allows for fostering a more collaborative and productive negotiation process. Therefore, intercultural competence becomes essential in navigating through potential misunderstandings and conflicts that may arise during negotiations.

This research work recognizes the importance of addressing this issue in order to enhance effective communication and achieve successful business negotiations across cultures. To this end, chapter two provides a comprehensive study of the negotiation genre from an intercultural standpoint. In order to understand the impact of culture on business negotiations, it is essential to examine the various aspects that contribute to this relationship and assess the relationship between culture and language within the concept of intercultural communication, henceforth IC. The relationship between culture and language within IC is inseparable when it comes to business negotiations because both linguistic and intercultural competence are vital for achieving successful outcomes.

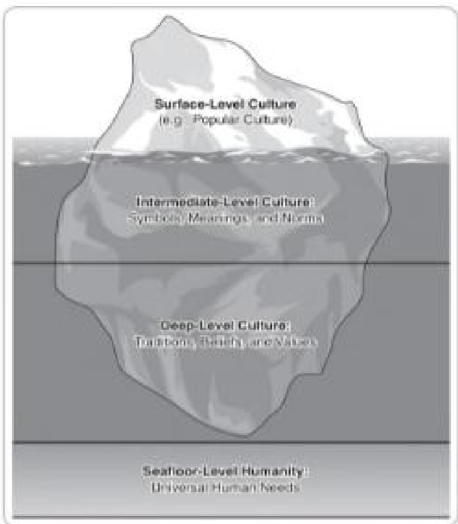
## 2.2 Business Negotiation: A Cross-cultural Business Communication

Over the years, many theories arose to conceptualize the relationship between culture and communication. As stated by William B. Gudykunst and Bella Mody (2002, p. x), for some scholars, culture is viewed as everything that is human made (Herskovitz, 1955), as equating communication (Hall, 1959), as a shared system of competence in design and principles varying between individuals (Keesing, 1974), and as a system of meanings (Shore, 1996; Sperber, 1996).

As it is sometimes reputed to be a vague, blurred concept, culture originates from the Latin word ‘*cultura*’ or ‘*cultus*’, of which the root means ‘*an activity*’ with a set of related meanings, such as training, adornment, fostering, and worship to mean ‘*a condition, a state of being cultivated’* (Freilich, 1989, p. 2), cited in Stella Ting-Toomey and Tenzin Dorjee (2018, p. 14). For Ting-Toomey and Dorjee (2018, p. 14), culture is an enigma with both abstract and concrete elements, while Fiora Biagi and Lavinia Bracci (2020, p. 32) view it as an ambiguous and polysemous concept applied to many disciplines, and which has been always used as a meaning of several aspects of human behaviors, traditions, and artifacts. In the same line, Deanna D. Sellnow, Kathleen S. Verderber, and Rudolph F. Verderber (2021, p. 31) , stating Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2012), define the concept as “the system of shared values, beliefs, attitudes, and norms that guides what is considered appropriate among an identifiable group of people.” This system develops with similar people’s life experiences.

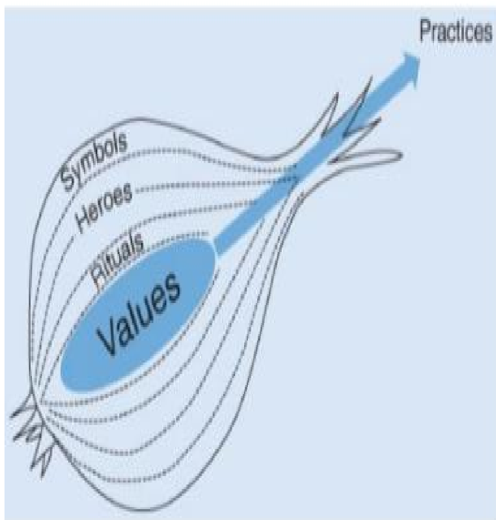
Biagi and Bracci (2020, p. 32) report that since 1950, the concept has attracted the attention of many scholars, to name Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) who identified more than 160 different definitions of the term used in different academic and non-academic fields. Later, many scholars, experts and practitioners used a number of conceptual metaphors to underline a representation of culture and grasp its meaning, for example Andrade's (1984) '*iceberg metaphor'*, and Hofstede *et al.*'s (2010) '*onion metaphor*' (see Figures 2.1 and 2.2). Andrade (1984) conceptualized culture in a complex frame of reference, including traditions, beliefs, values, norms, symbols, and meanings that people share to varying degrees when interacting. This frame with the core aspects of culture is represented in an iceberg of two parts: a visible part or the upper most layers that all can see and hear (i.e., cultural artifacts and verbal and nonverbal signs), and a hidden part or deeper layers hidden form our view (i.e., traditions, beliefs, etc.) (Biagi & Bracci, 2020, p. 32) . Hofstede *et al*., (2010) on the other side, as cited by Biagi and Bracci (2020, p. 32) , succeeded to conduct the most influential study in defining culture and its dimensions by developing the onion metaphor, which visualized culture as made of many layers from outer circles representing what is observable to inner layers representing its core values. Therefore, a correct matching of cultural values and norms with their respective norms, meanings, and symbols results in an in-depth understanding of culture.

**Figure 2.1** Andrade's iceberg metaphor




**Source**: Ting-Toomey and Dorjee (2018, p. 15)

**Figure 2.2** Hofstede *et al.*'s onion metaphor




**Source**: Hofstede (2001, p. 11)

In addition to the aforementioned definitions, María Dolores López-Jiménez and Jorge Sánchez-Torres (2021, p. 1) report other scholars' descriptions of culture and from different perspectives, (i.e., anthropology, sociology, psychology, linguistics, and communication). For instance, Hannerz (1992) views culture as "ideas, experiences, feelings, and meanings that members of a society create", while for Schwartz (1992), it is "offshoots of experience, learned or created by individuals of a group", and for Matsumoto (1995), "a combination of shared attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviors". Similarly, Thomas (1996) conceives the term as "a system of the structural positioning of people", and Spencer-Oatey, (2008) as "a general ensemble of basic assumptions and values, beliefs, norms, procedures, and conventions which are shared by a group of people". Therefore, these descriptions contributed in understanding the meaning of the term (Lopez-Jimenez & Sanchez-Torres, 2021, p. 1).

For Jean Claude Usunier (2003, p. 99), culture in its nature is both learned and forgotten. Ralph Linton (1945:21), as stated by Usunier (2003, p. 99), views the term as the configuration of learned behavior including component elements shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society. Charles Mitchell (2009, p. 4), by giving a more formal definition, conceives culture as "a set of learned core values, beliefs, standards, knowledge, morals, laws, and behaviors shared by individuals and societies that determine how an individual acts, feels, and views oneself and others". In other words, "a shared system of attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviour" as defined by Robert Gibson (2002, p. 7). Mike W. Peng (2022, p. 66) argues the fact that although hundreds of definitions of culture exist, it is worthwhile to consider the definition of Geert Hofstede, who is an expert in cross-cultural communication. Indeed, Geert Hofstede (2001, p. 9) believes culture being "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another".

In fact, culture is a reflection of a society's personality, by its dynamism and elasticity as a concept taking on different shades of meaning in terms of one's perspective (Ting-Toomey, 1999, p. 9) . Compared to humor, Frank Kardes, Maria Cronley, and Thomas Cline (2015, p. 393) view that culture is easy to recognize, but difficult to define. Although it can be given countless definitions in various disciplines (e.g., anthropology, sociology, and social psychology) as patterns existing in the collective minds of a society, it is, consequently, an abstract, fragile, and dynamic thought as a system of culturally influenced values, which involve "a set of beliefs about what is important, useful and desirable." (Kardes, Cronley, & Cline, 2015, p. 419). Similarly, Sellnow *et al*., (2021, p. 31) believe that values are at the heart of any culture, because they outline the commonly accepted standards of what we can consider as appropriate or not.

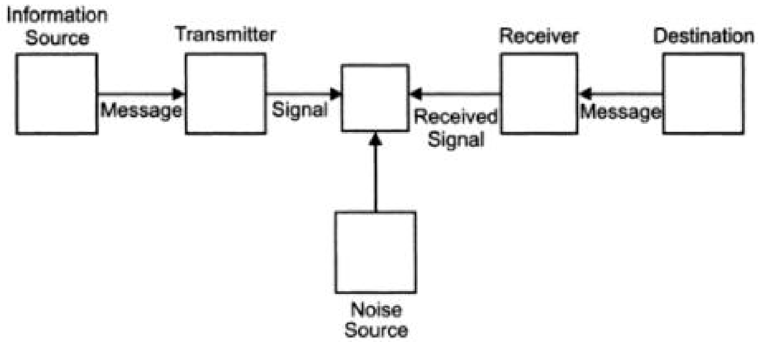
In all, it is worthwhile to consider cultural values and norms. According to Ting-Toomey & Dorjee (2018, p. 16) , citing Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), the values logically explain the individuals' attitudes to distinguish between good or bad behaviors, desirable or undesirable practices, and fair or unfair actions. The cultural norms, for the authors (2018, p. 16) citing Olsen (1978), refer to "the collective expectations of what constitute proper or improper behavior in a given situation". Consequently, one's ignorance of these norms and values leads to unintentional clashes between people. Finally, it is clear that culture serves many functions, including communication, which mutually affect each other since there is coordination between the two components of cultural communication (i.e., norms and values). In this vein, Ting-Toomey and Dorjee (2018, pp. 19-20) stating Hall (1959),

> […] culture is communication and communication is culture. It is through communication that culture is passed down, created, and modified from one generation to the next. Communication is necessary to define cultural experiences. Cultural communication shapes the implicit theories we have appropriate human conduct and effective human practices in a given sociocultural milieu. (Hall, 1959 qtd. in Ting-Toomey and Dorjee, 2018, pp. 19-20)

Communication, on the other hand, is also known as a fluid concept since it may have different interpretations. It is the process by which signs and symbols are used to express meanings. It occurs when meaning is assigned to a verbal or non-verbal act of another person, either directly conveyed when people are physically together, or indirectly through some interposed mechanisms or persons, as in the case of mass media and telephone conversation (Sarbaugh, 1993, p. 2). For Tony Schirato and Susan Yell (2005, p. x), communication can be understood as the practice of producing and negotiating meanings occurring under specific social, cultural and political conditions. Moreover, they (2005, p. x) view culture as all the communication practices and systems of meanings, thus, both concepts constitute an entity varying from a culture to another.

Communication is considered as a composed message through words or signals, addressed or delivered, to be finally received, read or decoded. It is, then, based on a number of factors, namely sender, encoding, message, channel, receiver, decoding, response, context, and noise. This means that the idea or the feeling coming from a source (sender) is encoded to produce a message transmitted by means of a medium called the channel to be decoded by the receiver, who for exchange produces a response (Figure 2.3). All the communication, in which the message can be distorted because of noise, occurs in a context known as the environment (Gibson, 2002, p. 9).

**Figure 2.3** Shannon and Weaver model of communication (1949) (qtd. in Uma Narula, 2006, p. 26)




Both concepts, i.e., culture and communication, are embedded in IC giving result to the notion of *'interculturality'*. For a better description of interculturality, Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009), cited by López-Jiménez and Sánchez-Torres (2021, pp. 1-2) , provide four common patterns characterizing culture: "(a) it reveals itself through different types of regularities", "(b) it is connected to social groups, although two individuals form the same social group do not share exactly the same cultural characteristics", "(c) it has an effect on the group's behavior and the interpretations of that behavior", and "(d) it is required and/or constructed through interaction with others".

As reported by López-Jiménez and Sánchez-Torres (2021, p. 2) , scholars attributed different meanings to the word intercultural, to name only "between cultures" (Hall, 1959), and "every interaction/communication among members of two social/cultural groups" (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). Additionally, the term has become the core interest of foreign and second language teaching and learning over the past 30 years (Lopez-Jimenez & Sanchez-Torres, 2021, p. 2). The IC emerged as the development of the communicative competence concept; henceforth CC, which was later reinforced by Byram's (1997) concept of intercultural communicative competence, henceforth *ICC*, to be the aim of foreign and second language teaching (Byram, 1997, p.

3). It is then through the IC concept that the notion of interculturality has witnessed a development in language teaching and learning (Lopez-Jimenez & Sanchez-Torres, 2021, p. 2).

From a communication point of view, IC occurs when the sender and receiver are from different cultures, and it deals with face-to-face communication between people from different national cultures. It also involves comparative studies of face-to-face communication across cultures, which is a prerequisite for its understanding. International communication is another research area, and it implies communication based on power and process of influencing, especially in fields such as, politics and economy, in which it deals with "the study of the state and transnational corporations as media institutions, message genres, message content and how it is articulated with group goals, development models, and sectorial needs" (Gudykunst & Mody, 2002, p. x).

Naturally, communication varies across cultures. William B. Gudykunst (2003, p. 1) , through his distinction between cross-cultural and intercultural aspects of communication, explains that cross-cultural communication deals with comparisons of communication across cultures, whereas IC involves communication between people from different cultures. IC for Sellnow *et al.,* (2021, p. 31), stating Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2012), refers to "the interactions that occur between people whose cultures are so different that communication between them is challenging."

Consequently, an effective intercultural communicator is the one who is first able to understand the meaning of culture, identify cultural differences, and finally realize their effect on communication. As regards the scope of the present study, promoting international business exchange constitutes one of the basic benefits of IC in business negotiations. Then, to understand the effect of cultural diversity on international business relationships, it is worthwhile to examine the relationship between culture and communication, which is of paramount importance to ensuring business negotiation success. To this end, the terms intercultural business communication and intercultural business negotiation are used to refer to international communication between business parties from different cultural orientations who use English as a medium of business negotiations.

Previously defined in Chapter 1, and from a linguistic standpoint, business negotiation is a give-and-take dynamic process of concessions and compromises to increase opportunities for obtaining a better deal. For this reason, it requires preparation and planning. When it exceeds national boundaries to be at an international level, negotiating becomes one of the most challenging tasks in business (Gilsdorf, 1997). As a task, managers, who are constantly engaged in the purchase of opportunities in the global market, spend more than half of their time negotiating (Adler N. J., 1997). To say, a huge number of international business deals are negotiated every day through the use of communication methods such as face-to-face discussions, video conferencing, e-mails, letters, or virtual negotiations.

From an intercultural standpoint, other aspects of international business negotiations deserve a great deal of interest. They involve the perception of the parties' relationships and the development of the negotiation process because of existing cultural differences, putting negotiators in a challenge whose success is contingent on their flexibility and ability to grasp these differences in order to handle the meeting consequences.

In the last decade, the scope of international business negotiation research has attracted considerable attention among researchers who have conducted studies on the verbal or non-verbal aspects influencing business negotiations. One can name Weis's (2006) distinction between micro-level and macro-level negotiations. The former level involves bargaining between individuals, such as buying-selling transactions. The latter level includes large-scale bargaining, such as transactions between companies. One can also find Nadler's (1997) study, which drew attention to three microbehaviors demonstrating managers' ability for relationship building: turn-taking, use of non-verbal signs to show understanding such as nods, and unconsciously matching verbal and non-verbal communication such as body language and vocalics. Moreover, Charles Mitchell (2009, pp. 5-8) made a distinction between eight cultural components that influence business: "language", "religion", "conflicting attitudes", "manners and customs", "arts", "education", "humor", and "social organizations". Similarly, James P. Neelankavil and Anoop Rai (2009, p. 41), who view culture as a learned behavior affected and learned by experiences, made a distinction between eight cultural components: "language and communication", "social structure", "religion", "values", "attitudes", "customs", "aesthetics", and "artifacts". Therefore, knowledge of these components and understanding how each one is related to the whole help people involved in international business understand the meaning behind their partner's behaviors. The present study particularly emphasizes the component of language and communication since it is considered one of the defining expressions of culture used for the communication of ideas, thoughts, emotions, and decisions both verbally and non-verbally. In this respect, "Language is more than just spoken and written words. Non-verbal communication, gestures, body language, facial expressions all convey a message" (Mitchell, 2009, p. 5).

As economic sector prosperity imposes coping with the demands of the business world, company managers need to possess the appropriate communicative assets to negotiate and be a part of this line of competitiveness. Jill E. Rudd and Diana R. Lawson (2007, p. 3) outline, “Today, more than at any time in history, nations, organizations, and companies must be prepared to negotiate in the global market not only to thrive, but to survive.” In sum, business communication practices can be delivered either verbally or non-verbally, thereby making IC in business negotiations based on two important elements: verbal and non-verbal communication.

## 2.3 Communication in Business Negotiation

People communicate all the time, both verbally and non-verbally, to convey thoughts and meanings. In negotiations, however, 93% of the perception will originate from the voice tone and body language. In a comparison of the relative importance of spoken words, facial expressions and tone of voice, Albert Mehrabian (1967), who is a pioneer of non-verbal language research, conducted two research studies. The first study demonstrated that the tone of voice carries more meaning than the words themselves, while the second one approved that facial expressions produce more accurate responses than voice tone (Azam & Chan, 2016, p. 220). A combination of data from both studies resulted in the 7-38-55 rule of communication. The rule means that 7% of information is conveyed by words, 38% by voice changes, and around 55% is transmitted by non-verbal language.

Regarding business negotiations, encounters tend, whether in a conscious or unconscious, controlled or uncontrolled manner, to use non-verbal language (i.e., facial expressions, posture, gestures, eye contact, and/or modulation of voice, etc.) in addition to words. Non-verbal language observation is important because it sheds light on the other party's physical and emotional position and its evolution during discussion. Affecting spoken language, body language can either weaken or reinforce spoken words, thereby determining their credibility. In this line, Donald W. Hendon, Rebecca Angeles Hendon, and Paul A. Herbig (1996, p. 62) believe that negotiators express emotions and statements non-verbally by means of gestures, voice tone, or facial expressions, whose interpretation is much more important than words. Similarly, Sellnow *et al.,* (2021, p. 31) view that communication exchanges consist of more than verbal messages. The authors (2021, p. 31), stating (Knapp, Hall and Horgan, 2014), explain that non-verbal communication is made up of all the messages that people send in ways exceeding spoken or written language.

As evoked earlier about business negotiation, which is a field of business communication that implies people from different cultures interacting with English as a medium language, much interest is devoted to verbal and non-verbal language. For this reason, cultural aspects of communication relevant to the business negotiation genre are considered and approached to measure their significance. This will highlight the necessity of possessing intercultural skills as assets for ensuring business negotiation success, and avoiding failures caused by misinterpretations and misunderstanding problems. To begin, it is better to explore the relationship between verbal and non-verbal aspects of language to convey meanings, and how they may differ from one culture to another.

Indeed, scholars identify two forms of communication: verbal and non-verbal (e.g., Hammersley & Reid, 2000; Means, 2010, 2019; Adler *et al.* , 2017; Tang, 2019).

For Keow Ngang Tang (2019, p. 63), stating (Tang, 2015), communication involves sending messages by means of symbols, signs and contextual cues to express meaning, create similar understanding, and influence actions. Verbal communication implies interaction with words and can be formal or informal, external or internal, spoken or written with language as the most common medium. Non-verbal communication involves the messages sent without or in addition to words (Means, 2019, p. 68). Keow Ngang Tang (2019, p. 65), however, identifies three types of communication: verbal, non-verbal and written. By classifying communication into verbal and non-verbal, Ronald B. Adler and Russell F. Proctor II (2017, p. 212) view that each type can be identified as vocal and non-vocal language. Adler's and Proctor's II (op cit) classification is illustrated by Table 2.1.1.

**Table 2.1.1** Adler's and Proctor's II model for communication types (2017, p. 212)

| | **Vocal Communication** | **Non-vocal Communication** |
|---|---|---|
| **Verbal Communication** | Spoken words | Written words |
| **Nonverbal Communication** | Vocal tone, rate, pitch, volume, etc. | Gestures, movement, appearance, facial expression, touch, etc. |

Verbal communication can be learned systematically and gradually, whereas, the non-verbal one is difficult to study because of its lack of structure, as it happens to be more spontaneous with more reliable cues and signals used to support the verbal ones. Quoting Richard Hammersley and Marie Reid (2000, p. 26)

> Nonverbal communication augments verbal communication and can even replace some of it, as when a gesture or a facial expression is used instead of a word. It is also used to synchronise and manage conversation. These functions are important but in the context of group communication we can largely take them for granted. More important perhaps is the emotional information that non-

verbal signals convey about how people feel, what sort of people they are and how they get along with us. The impression we form of others is to a great extent based on non-verbal communication. (Hammersley and Reid, 2000, p. 26)

In line with this, Marc Helmold, Tracy Dathe, Florian Hummel, Brian Terry and Jan Pieper (2020, p. 165), stating Ekman and Friesen (2015), report that verbal and non-verbal messages are interdependent. They (2020, p. 165) identify six important steps to explain the influence of non-verbal language on the spoken discourse:

(1) to stress the outspoken words,

(2) to repeat what people say or think,

(3) to substitute words,

(4) to regulate speech,

(5) to contradict what people say, and

(6) to complement the verbal content of a message.

As spoken language, non-verbal one includes the processes of encoding and decoding. The former process refers to the act of information production like gestures, facial expressions, and body movements. The latter process is their interpretation from received sensations as given by the encoder (Helmold *et al.,* 2020, p. 165). Non-verbal language, which is also known as body language or silent language, plays a considerable role in communication in general and intercultural business negotiations in particular. Communication specialists estimate that body language counts for two thirds to three-fourths of all communication (Novinger, 2001, p. 4) . For Shuang Liu, Zala Volcic, and Cindy Gallois (2015, p. 178), non-verbal language is about communicating without the use of words. This, in fact, implies the use of non-spoken symbols, such as gestures and voice tone to communicate a message. Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, p.

99) conceive non-verbal communication “the wordless message received through the medium of gestures, signs, bodily movements, facial expressions, tone of voice, colour, time, space, style of writing and choice of words”. For Thomas Means (2019, p. 68), the messages conveyed through non-verbal symbols have a strong impact on receivers, indicating how important the sender’s message is. Robert Gibson (2002, p. 9) argues that the exchange of meanings between sender and receiver does not occur only verbally but also by the use of non-verbal factors, such as gestures and facial expressions; however, the message received can differ from the one that was sent.

Juliane Krueger (2005, p. 2) argues that despite the existence of a variety of approaches in the study of non-verbal communication, there is not any agreement on its definition because of its ambiguity given its general meaning, which entails “communicating without words through multiple communication channels. These channels involve gestures, space or time.” Adler and Proctor II (2017, p. 220), on the other hand, view that although both verbal and non-verbal messages are open to multiple interpretations, non-verbal messages are still more ambiguous.

Although the majority of the literature, according to Laurie R. Weingart and Mara Olekalns (2004, p. 143), focused on verbal behaviors, research has revealed that 135 distinct gestures and expressions of the face, head, and body are catalogued with 80% of head gestures, including nine different ways of smiling. Krueger (2005, p. 3) reports that for a long time, verbal and non-verbal ways of communication were studied separately, but in the mid-nineties of the last century, a greater number of researchers have been interested in their interrelationship. According to Claude Cellich (2012, p. 176), studies on the effectiveness of communication reveal that body language accounts for 55% of the message received. Thus, for an in-depth understanding of non-verbal language worthiness in a business negotiation language course, an insight into non-verbal language categories and their meaning given their different culturally-related interpretations is provided in order to search for solutions that help negotiators avoid communication misunderstanding and misinterpretation. André Iland (2013, p. 10) states "Once you know how to be able to read the person's body language, and then be able to use what you have read to your advantage, you will find that negotiating will be so much easier for you, and you will get what you want with less effort and struggle on your part."

### 2.3.1 Non-verbal Language Categories

In general, people communicate messages non-verbally in an instinctive manner. For Hendon *et al.* (1996, p. 61) , "Nonverbal behaviors are more likely to be used unconsciously and spontaneously because they are habitual and routine behaviors." This includes a wide range of codes. According to Claude Cellich (2012: 183), by working simultaneously, these codes are divided into seven categories: (1) body Language (i.e., gestures, body movement, facial movement, and eye contact), (2) vocalics or paralanguage (i.e., tone, volume, and sounds which are not words), (3) touching, (4) space use, (5) time use, (6) physical appearance, and (7) artifacts (i.e., person-associated objects, such as a desk, book, or car). Likewise, Richard Hammersley and Marie Reid (2000, p. 24) classify non-verbal communication into seven types of signals: (1) proximity, (2) posture, (3) body behaviors, (4) facial expressions and gestures, (5) gaze and eye contact, (6) speech quality, and (7) self-presentation. The authors (2000, p. 24) believe that the quality of people's voice (i.e., tone, pitch, clarity, pace, speech disturbances such as pause fillers like 'um', 'er', hesitations, and omissions), their appearance, and dress all communicate meaning.

For Frank Kardes, Maria Cronley, and Thomas Cline (2015, p. 404), non-verbal communication involves body language and interpersonal spacing. Its origin belongs to the Greek word '*kinein*' meaning '*to move',* and it refers to the silent movements of body parts divided into four components: (1) facial expressions (e.g., scowls, smiles, and stares), (2) gestures (e.g., hand and arm signals), (3) postural shifts (e.g., leaning forward or crossing one's arms), and (4) touching (e.g., slapping and caressing). Varying with culture, touching involves how people prefer standing and facing each other. In some cultures, such as the Arabs, Africans, and Latin Americans, people in business prefer to stand within 18 inches of the other party as a sign of confidence, while the personal space of the Germans, Nordics, and Asians is, in general, 36 inches (Kardes, Cronley, & Cline, 2015, p. 405).

In fact, messages can be conveyed non-verbally through signs and clues. For Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, pp. 99-100) , messages exist in two forms: meta-communication and kinesic communication. Meta-communication, which can be intentional or unintentional, is an implied meaning conveyed through the choice of words, the use of paralanguage, including pitch, voice loudness, speech breakers such as 'er', 'ah', 'uh' and hesitations, and prolonged gaps, pauses, or silence. Kinesic communication, also known as body language or body talk, involves the communicator's non-verbal behaviors in the form of body movements like gestures, winking, smiling, postures, styles of dressing, and grooming, in order to support or contradict the verbal message. Thus, the non-verbal sign usually, along with the verbal one, communicates the total meaning of the message, thereby making coexistence between non-verbal and verbal modes of communication possible. To explain this point of interrelationship, Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, p. 100) provide examples of kinesic communication to demonstrate how a non-verbal act can provide additional meaning to words (see Table 2.1.2).

**Table 2.1.2** Some examples of Kinesic Communication (Chaturvedi & Chaturvedi, 2011, p. 100)

| *Non-verbal Acts* | *Possible Unspoken Idea* |
|---|---|
| A senior looks at his watch while you are talking. | "Your time is over, go away." |
| A person winks after saying something. | "Do not believe what I just said." |
| An executive is always late for meetings. | "I am always very busy." |
| | "I am not bothered about your time." |
| A speaker prefers to speak from the floor rather than the dais. | "I want to show my sense of equality with you (the audience)." |
| | |

Believing that non-verbal symbols affect spoken messages, Thomas L. Means (2019, p. 71) makes a distinction between five types of non-verbal symbols. These types are (1) body language (e.g., facial expressions, gestures, and posture), (2) touching (e.g., shaking hands, back slapping, and placing a hand on someone's shoulder), (3) space, (4) time as punctuality and respecting deadlines, and (5) paralanguage to mean voice qualities and speech rate.

As regards intercultural business negotiation, non-verbal signs are used strategically to persuade the other side, establish rapport, or show trustworthiness. Recent research has proven that it might be difficult for liars to coordinate their facial expressions with their words and the emotions they would like to communicate; for example, a 'No' can be accompanied by a nodding 'Yes'. They [liars] also sometimes forget to add gestures, pitch variations, raised eyebrows, and widened eyes, which are made naturally when telling the truth (Harvard Law School, 2014). Nevertheless, in the business negotiation context, honesty should be evaluated by asking clear and direct questions without counting only on the non-verbal signs.

Marc Helmold *et al.* (2020, p. 164), who argue that feelings are directly related to behaviors and emotion use, which is inappropriate in business negotiation although happening unconsciously, provide eleven elements of non-verbal communication based on Helmold *et al.*'s, (2019) and Schranner's (2006) studies. These scholars recommend the use of emotions, but in a targeted and situational condition, for example, to exert pressure on the opponent. The elements are listed as follows:

- "Upright or casual posture"
- "Closed or folded legs"
- "Attitude of the hands"
- "Fixed or facial expression"
- "Comfortable or uncomfortable standing"
- "Spontaneous smile"
- "Drooping corners of the mouth"
- "Hectic movements"
- "Sweating and/or blushing"
- "Touching of body parts such as nose, arms or ears"
- "Adjusting clothes such as tie or the suit"

Non-verbal language can be an obstacle in business interactions because its interpretation requires the utilization of sense organs in order to opt for the main clues, such as a smile, eye contact, or firm handshake, to name a few, thus giving them meaning through a filter of knowledge, opinions, and emotions. Then, the negotiator can respond in the same manner by selecting the correct gesture for the right situation. Pervez N. Ghauri (2003, p. 212) views that non-verbal communication is one of the issues affecting face-to-face negotiations because it can interfere in cross-cultural interactions; thus, every behavior or attitude should matter in the negotiation process. In this vein,

> Everything is important. Effective negotiators are fully aware of the existence of all these factors and of the fact that they are able to use them to their advantage. One word of caution: an individual gesture must be approached cautiously. It is clusters of behavior that provide the most accurate of and greatest amount of nonverbal meanings. (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 62)

In sum, through body movements and voice, negotiators send messages as signs to enrich the spoken language. By observing those signs, they can obtain a more or less realistic impression of the business partner's mood, feelings, opinions, expectations, intentions, and more. However, the inability to read non-verbal language is a problem arising in business negotiations and is viewed as an obstacle that can change the course of the negotiation, thereby affecting its results. For this reason, a good negotiator must manage his or her non-verbal language and understand the other sides' perspectives in case both are on the same page or in conflict.

### 2.3.2 Non-verbal Language Interpretation and Misinterpretation

Non-verbal signals are interpreted by means of all the senses (Means, 2019, p. 68) . As far as the business negotiation field is concerned, hearing and sight are the senses required; therefore, effective listening skills are paramount in this type of interaction. As has already been discussed, non-verbal and verbal signs are interpreted in relation to each other, often making non-verbal signs a means for verbal ones' reinforcement, contradiction, substitution, or control. For example, if someone says '*That's fine'* with a stained voice looking away from the other party, both the verbal message and the voice tone are conflicting, hence the receiver believes the non-verbal symbol. An agreement, for instance, can be expressed through a smile, and this means that the non-verbal sign replaces the verbal one. Nodding in agreement when someone is speaking may be interpreted as encouragement to continue speaking (Means, 2019, p. 69). Figure 2.4 shows examples of gestures and the different meanings they may convey according to Means (2019, p. 72).

**Figure 2.4** Gestures with their possible conveyed meanings (Means, 2019, p. 72)

**FIGURE 3-2** Gestures communicate ideas and feelings.

| GESTURE | MEANING |
|---|---|
| Crossed arms | Concentration or defensiveness |
| A hand against your head | Forgetfulness |
| Trembling or fidgeting hands | Nervousness |
| Nail biting | Nervousness, stress, or insecurity |
| Leaning toward a speaker | Open attitude |
| Nodding | Agreement, confirms listening |
| Folding your arms or shaking your head | Disagreement or a closed attitude |

Yet, cultural differences in non-verbal communication sometimes lead to misunderstandings because behaviors that have the same meaning in one culture can be interpreted differently in another. As a matter of evidence, Adler *et al*. (2017, p. 224) provide a set of behaviors with their intended interpretations in terms of the interactants' cultural differences. Some of these interpretations are selected in Table 2.1.3.

**Table 2.1.3** Some examples of non-verbal behaviors with their culturally different interpretations (Adler *et al.,* 2017: 224)

| BEHAVIOR | PROBABLE IN-GROUP PERCEPTION | POSSIBLE OUT-GROUP PERCEPTION |
|---|---|---|
| Avoidance of direct eye contact (Latino/Latina) | Used to communicate attentiveness or respect | A sign of inattentiveness; direct eye contact is preferred |
| Aggressively challenging a point with which one disagrees (African American) | Acceptable means of dialogue; not regarded as verbal abuse or a precursor to violence | Arguments are viewed as inappropriate and sign of imminent violence |
| Silence (Native American) | Sign of respect, thoughtfulness, and / or uncertainty /ambiguity | Interpreted as boredom, disagreement or refusal to participate |

Consequently, the meaning associated with different body language signs can be classified according to Ekman and Friesen, as cited by Krueger (2005, p. 3), into four types:

**(1) Emblems**: a physical image that communicates an idea, e.g., the so-called "ring gesture"; a circle formed with thumb and index with the other fingers stretched out to mean 'OK' in US culture, but in Japanese culture this means a coin,

**(2) Illustrators:** non-verbal messages used to depict and elaborate verbal cues to facilitate understanding, e.g., hands and arms movements for something's shape, size, frequency or speed representation used especially to show enthusiasm or full involvement in discussion,

**(3) Body Manipulators**: unintentional touching acts of own body or object, e.g., jewelry, buttons, or hair, that can mean nervousness, anxiety or boredom,

**(4) Regulators:** e.g., nodding, maintaining eye contact, or gestures that function as "turn-yielding" or "attempt-suppressing signals" (Krueger, 2005, p. 3).

By adding a fifth type named **(5) Facial Expressions** (i.e., a reflection of thoughts and feelings by means of smiling, frowning, blushing or many other expressions), Chaturvedy and Chaturvedy (2011, pp. 102-3) argue that some body movements, postures and physical activities like shaking, tapping, looking at the watch, and others can be negatively perceived. Some of their illustrations are summarized in Table 2.1.4. These gestures, therefore, must be avoided in negotiations especially when solutions are required.

**Table 2.1.4** Examples of body movements and their interpretations (Chaturvedi & Chaturvedi, 2011, p. 104)

| Body movement | Example | Interpretation |
|---|---|---|
| Gestures | • Keeping hands in pockets<br>• Covering the mouth with hands when speaking<br>• Scratching<br>• Biting nails<br>• Tapping foot<br>• Crossing arms or legs<br>• Having a slumped posture<br>• Looking at the ceiling<br>• Blinking a lot<br>• Clicking pens | •Nervousness |
| | • Staring and pointing at someone<br>• Showing a fist<br>• Folding both arms | •Aggressiveness |
| | • Shaking hands too hard<br>• Standing too close<br>• Yawning<br>• Setting hair when listening or speaking<br>• Starting to gather and fold papers before the end of the meeting | •Rudeness |
| | • Closing eyes<br>• Bending head backwards<br>• Looking at the tip of the nose<br>• Waving glasses or key ring when talking | •Showing self importance |

As regards body language interpretation in IC, Cellich and Jain (2012, p. 183) provide examples to explain how their aspects vary cross-culturally. For example, maintaining eye contact in US culture is a sign of interest in what the other is saying, but the Japanese people consider this behavior a sign of rudeness and an intrusion into the others' privacy. North Americans, for example, speak loudly when getting upset. The Chinese people, however, maintain a prolonged silence. Physical closeness between people, such as holding hands and hugging people of the same gender is not valued in American culture. Yet, this can be viewed as a sign of friendship in other cultures. For space use, which can often be embarrassing because of people's different perspectives, Latin American, Italian, French, and Middle Eastern societies prefer to maintain short distances, unlike the Americans, Germans, Chinese, and Japanese, who prefer more space to feel comfortable. Time use relevance in negotiations among societies, for instance, is perceived in terms of three attitudes: "(a) keeping appointments, (b) pursuing the meeting agenda, and (c) devoting time to unrelated items" (Cellich & Jain, 2012, p. 184). Unlike some societies, the US and Anglo-Saxon ones value time deeply and prefer to avoid its waste on unrelated issues.

Indeed, communication is a vital part of business negotiations. When it is effective, it results in efficiently realized work, quickly solved problems, effectively made decisions, and achieved targets. However, the misinterpretation of non-verbal symbols results in communication failure, thereby affecting the business operation. To sum up, both verbal and non-verbal modes of communication are important to interact cross-culturally, and because they are both part of an individual's culture, it is worthwhile to evaluate how cultural differences can affect the encoding and decoding of messages, be they verbal or non-verbal.

## 2.4 Cultural Effect on Business Negotiation

In intercultural business negotiation, importance is given not only to the hard facts, such as negotiating, drafting, signing, and implementing agreements and joint ventures, but also to the soft facts, such as the value of the human and the social relationship between the parties involved (Usunier, 2003, p. 97) . This implies that business negotiation is a communication process where interdependent parties from diverse cultures interact through signs, symbols, and behaviors to resolve business conflicts, reach an agreement, or build long-term relationships. The parties involved, who belong to different social groups, have different ways of communicating (Adair & Brett, 2004, p. 158) . In another sense, business negotiations happen to be culturally affected; for this reason, it is worthwhile to understand and measure this influence on the process of negotiating.

As a society's way of life that involves behavior, symbols, skills, heroes, knowledge, motives and many other elements, culture does not fit into a neat, compact, and manageable model because of the uniqueness of each society, according to Neelankavil and Rai (2009, pp. 40-1). Given the importance of the relationship between culture and dealing with cross-cultural business affairs, businesspeople find it difficult to understand culture's influence on society. This in fact results in international business failures due to ignoring and/or not understanding the basic cultural patterns of a country (Neelankavil and Rai, 2009, pp. 40-1). In this vein, Xiangling Li (1999, p. 19), quoting Janosik (1987), identifies four distinct approaches in the negotiation literature. Each approach implies a connection between culture and behavior: "culture as learned behavior" (i.e., focus on what negotiators do rather than on what they think), "culture as shared value" (i.e., observation of how a participant will behave), "culture as dialectic" (i.e., analysis of individual variation and changes over time), and "culture in context" (i.e., understanding the relationship between behavior and social context). Consequently, culture can impede the flow of communication, thereby influencing the parties' cooperation in different ways, such as through language problems, price bargaining, and culture collisions. Alan McCarthy and Steve Hay (2015, p. 117) argue that "culture may influence the other party's behavior". Therefore, it subjects the business negotiators to the risk of cultural misunderstanding that may unintentionally result in a disrespect of the other side's culture, destroying the entire co-operation.

Similarly, Xiangling Li (1999, p. 17), citing Faure and Sjöstedt, considers that culture, with its many functions, may be both an obstacle and a facilitator in an interaction. Culture is seen as an obstacle because of the cultural models and differences that alter signals. In business negotiations, these differences can be the reason for misunderstandings, thereby negatively affecting the perceptions and expectations that parties have of each other. It is a facilitator when parties are culturally similar and share the same values. Francis Cherunilam (2021, p. 83), stating Mitchell (2009, p. 4),

> A society's culture is passed from generation to generation, and aspects such as language, religion, customs, and laws are interrelated, i.e., a society's view of authority, morals and ethics will eventually manifest itself in how an individual does business, negotiates a contract or deals with a potential business relationship. Understanding the cultural context and mindset of a potential foreign business partner or competitor can help in developing sound strategy for negotiations and deal-making. What once seemed mysterious may become more predictable, and can ultimately be used to your advantage. (Mitchell, 2009, p. 4)

When doing business internationally, people come into contact with others speaking different languages and living in different cultures. This is, in fact, a challenge successful communicators like to take on. Then, having a sense of observation, the willingness to learn how to deal with these differences, and turning them to their own advantage are the characteristics of a successful negotiator. Mitchell (2009, p. 66) argues that communicating effectively is not reliant on knowing the language alone but on having some understanding of thought patterns, values, societal norms, and how individuals from different cultures process information.

Cultural dimensions indeed have an influence on international business communication. In this line, Neelankavil and Rai (2009, p. 47) provide four frameworks of cultural classification used to assess and understand cultural variations across countries. Although these models do not provide all answers on cross-cultural issue management, they may help international companies assure successful cross-cultural communication management among their employees. The four models are “Hofstede’s cultural dimensions”, “Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s value orientation”, “Hall’s low-context high-context approach”, and “Ronen and Shenkar’s cluster approach”.

Gert Hofstede (1989), whose cultural classification model received most attention for study and discussion, proposes five dimensions of culture, namely “individualism-collectivism”, “power distance”, “uncertainty avoidance”, “masculinity-femininity”, and “long-term/short-term orientation”. Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodtbeck (1961), who were the first to describe a dimension-based framework to identify cultural differences based on past versus future and beliefs in individual versus group, propose six cultural dimensions: “human nature”, “relationship to nature”, “human relationship”, “activity orientation”, “concept of space”, and “time orientation”. However, Simeha Ronen and Oded Shenkar (1985, p. 435), as stated by Neelankvil and Rai (2009, p. 58) , divide culture into nine clusters in terms of cultural similarities between countries: “Anglo (7 countries)”, “Arabs (6 countries)”, “Far eastern (8 countries)", "Germanic (4 countries)", "Independent (4 countries)", "Latin American (6 countries)", "Latin European (5 countries)", "Near Eastern (3 countries)", and "Nordic (4 countries)". Finally, Hall and Hall (1990) identify three cultural dimensions: context, space, and time.

In the literature, many works result in the fact that understanding the business negotiation concept varies in each culture as it plays an important role in indirectly influencing the negotiating process (e.g., McCall & Warrington, 1990; Graham & Sano, 1990). According to Usunier (2003, p. 103), culture works through two basic groups of factors: "the situational aspect of the negotiation" including "time and time pressure, power and exercise of power, number of participants, location, etc.", and "the characteristics of the negotiators", such as personality and cultural variables. On the other hand, Bikal Dhungel (2008, p. 4) distinguishes between four types of cultures, namely "monochromic cultures", "low-context cultures", "high power distance cultures", and "collectivist cultures". For Dhungel (2008, p. 4) , negotiators of monochromic cultures value time and prefer to spend the meeting at setting time limits for the agenda items. They also do not give importance to interruptions during the negotiations. Low-context culture negotiators, however, prefer to share more information at the negotiation table, in contrast to high-context culture negotiators. In high-power distance cultures, only high-ranking people participate in the decision-making, while in collectivist cultures, an agreement is required from all the team members to end the negotiations. According to Michele J. Gelfand and Jeanne M. Brett (2004, p. 214), "agents in collectivistic cultures, generally see themselves as connected and embedded in their constituent groups". Moreover, other important issues also vary across cultures, such as bargaining and final agreement. Robert Gibson (2002, p. 62) outlines

> The practice of bidding - to what extent it is acceptable to bargain, and what form the bargaining should take – varies widely across cultures. Even the final agreement can vary from being a contract which is being legally binding in every detail, to a general statement of cooperation, with the precise details changing according to changing circumstances. (Gibson, 2002, p. 62)

Related to the scope of the present study, which attempts to approach BE as far as business negotiation language is concerned, interest is directed to Hall's context-culture dimension: high-context and low-context cultures. With this approach, Hall succeeded in providing an analysis of the negotiators' characteristics in a simple and general manner.

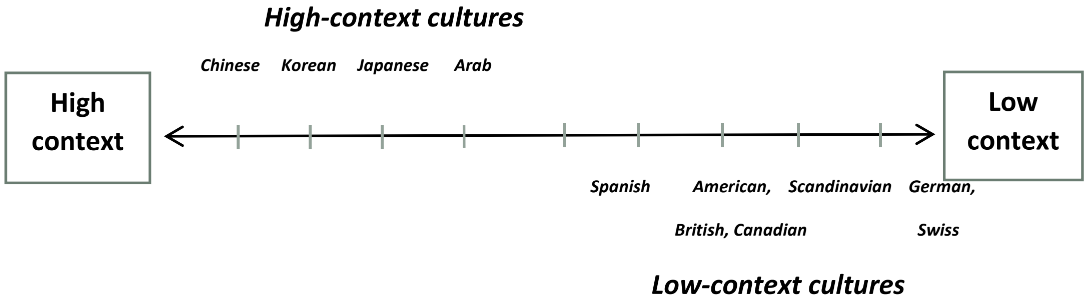
### 2.4.1 Context-Culture Dimensions

As the background against which business negotiations take place, context is the most straightforward approach undertaking the classification of cultural differences in terms of low and high context cultures (Peng, 2022, p. 71) . For Guffey and Loewy (2022, p. 88) , culture has a strong effect, and context is one of the most important cultural dimensions, and yet the most difficult to be defined. Neelankavil and Rai, (2009, p. 56), stating Edward T. Hall (1976), an anthropologist who made the "high-context" and "low-context cultures" distinction explaining the use of language and the way information is gathered, believe that the context dimension of culture has influence on communication, data collection and decision. Communication in low-context culture societies, such as many European countries, and the United States, is characterized by directness in the talk. This means that people avoid small talk and prefer to use words precisely for the expression of their thoughts. In contrast, high-context cultures, such as the Asian, Latin American, and Arab countries, use both words and contexts as a means for message expression. In other words, the situation and status of the person are as important as the communication itself. In this vein,

> In low context cultures, the words used by the speaker convey precisely what the speaker has in mind. Hence, in obtaining information in a low-context culture, only firsthand information is considered relevant. Communication in low-context societies is direct and people avoid small talk. Many European countries and the United States are considered as low-context cultures. (Neelankavil & Rai, 2009, p. 56)

Similarly, Maria Lai-Ling Lam (2000, pp. 2-3) , based on Cohen's (1991) distinction between high and low context cultures, considers that both concepts refer to a continuum between two extremes in cultural differences. By providing explanations founded on Hall's (1976) and Vaill's (1994a) works, Lai-Ling Lam (2000, pp. 2-3) believes that the context or non-verbal aspects of communication are heavily important in a high context. This means that the element of context, including social and economic status, formality, and informality of situations and tasks, greatly governs the negotiators' behavior. Yet, a low-context culture depends more on explicit verbally expressed communication, which means that contracts are used by low-context culture negotiators in order to define relationships but by high-context culture negotiators to reflect relationships. Figure 2.5 demonstrates Peng's (2022, p. 71) classification in a spectrum of eight countries aligned on a continuum from higher to lower-context culture.

**Figure 2.5** High-context versus low-context cultures spectrum by Peng (2022, p. 71)




Similarly, Guffey and Loewy (2022, p. 89) classify nationalities from lower to higher context culture as it is demonstrated in Figure 2.6.

**Figure 2.6** Context culture classification by Guffey and Loewy (2022, p. 89)


For an in depth understanding of the impact of culture, Xiangling Li (1999, p. 19), quoting Faure and Sjöstedt, identifies five fundamental elements of negotiations: "actors, structure, strategy, process, and outcome", thereby improving the understanding of the process itself. For Mitchell (2009, p. 66), the distinction between cultures in terms of high-context or low-context takes place when it comes to listening and information processing. Mitchell (2009, p. 66), by referring to both cultures as "task-oriented" or "relationship- oriented", explains that low-context culture individuals, such as the United States and Germany, like giving many details and sharing knowledge relatively with those they are communicating with. On the contrary, high-context culture individuals, such as Asia and Latin America whose communication is likely to be imprecise, give more importance to relationship building before starting the business. For this very reason, negotiators must establish what cultural orientation their potential business partner possesses. This will help them decide on the right communication method and strategy in order to exploit the maximum of business opportunities.

Communication in business negotiations relies on two approaches: questioning for sharing information and using proposals. In other words, negotiators generally focus on how they can obtain the information they need about the other party's interests and priorities without giving up too much information about theirs; hence, it is essential to know this data to create value in the negotiation (Thomson, 2005 qtd. in Brett & Gelfand , 2006, p. 187).

The literature comprises many studies that demonstrate and confirm the value of information sharing in western cultures. This value enables the creation of joint gains by tackling the approach of asking questions in order to attain a complete understanding of negotiation tradeoffs, thereby making proposals and capturing those tradeoffs. In fact, one can find the report of Brett and Gelfand (2006, p. 187) on a number of research studies, (e.g., Weingart & Olekalns, 2004; Pruitt & Lewis, 1975; Putnam & Wilson, 1989; Thompson, 1991; Weingart, Thompson, Bazerman and Carroll, 1990; Weingart, Hyder and Prietula, 1996; Olekalns, Smith and Walsh, 1996; Olekalns and Smith, 2000, 2003).

Additionally, Brett and Gelfand (2006, p. 187) reported other studies on IC (e.g., Adair *et al.,* 2001; Rosette *et al.,* 2004; Adair, 2004; Adair and Brett, 2005). These works identified that information is extracted in non-western cultures through the approach of making proposals, either single-issue or multiple-issue, and drawing inferences about the other party's priorities from the statements of proposals and counterproposals. Stating Adair and Brett (2005) on using proposals in a high context setting, Brett and Gelfand (p. 188) argue, "It is a highly sophisticated inferential search routine that is effective in identifying joint gain."

Furthermore, a significant number of cross-cultural studies contrasted high- and low-context cultures, such as the US culture, with other countries' cultures. One can cite the study of Adler, Braham, and Graham (1992), which demonstrated that the US negotiators tend to use a higher number of "no's" than the Chinese. Adair, Okumura, and Brett's (2001) work showed that, unlike Japanese negotiators, US negotiators are engaged explicitly in more direct information exchange. When asking questions about priorities, negotiators directly respond to the other party's offers. Adair and Brett's study (2005) found that low-context culture negotiators share information directly during the negotiation at a higher rate than high-context negotiators. In this vein, Brett and Gelfand (2006, p. 188) say, "Sharing information directly in negotiation is consistent with the low-context, "say what you mean" communication style that is persuasive in western cultures." However, other research works (e.g., Olekalns and Smith, 2003) indicate that information sharing alone is insufficient to generate joint gains unless the other party's payoffs are understood (qtd. in Brett & Gelfand, 2006, p. 188).

Affected by the social setting or context, Frank Kardes, Maria Cronley, and Thomas Cline (2015, p. 405) also subdivide ICs into high- and low-context cultures. The authors (2015, p. 405) explain that low-context cultures emphasize explicit messages using precise words with an independent meaning from the situation and people involved. In contrast, high-context cultures communicate messages more implicitly with words, whose meaning may change with the communication circumstances.

Impacting international business negotiations, Jean Claude Usunier (2003, p. 97) reports that many researchers (e.g., Faure and Rubin, 1993; Graham *et al.*, 1994; Foster, 1995; Cohen, 1997; Herbig 1998; Brett and Ukumara, 1998; Schuster and Copeland, 1999; Bazerman *et al,.* 2000; Saner, 2000; Adair *et al.,* 2001; Adler, 2002; Wade-Benzoni *et al*., 2002) conducted empirical studies attesting the evidence that cultural knowledge and skills are essential in IC. These works explained that because people are culturally different, they do not necessarily have the same behaviors, attitudes and understanding of the negotiation concept. Yet, being unaware of this fact may result in a cultural misunderstanding and lead to a breakdown of the negotiation process. In this vein,

> In fact, people with different cultural backgrounds often do not share the same basic assumptions (…), and this has an influence at several levels of international business negotiations: the behavioral predispositions of the parties; their concept of what is negotiation and what should be an appropriate negotiation strategy; their attitudes during the negotiation process which may lead to cultural misunderstandings and undermine trust between the parties; differences in outcome orientation. (Usunier, 2003, p. 98)

As regards the communication tool and foundation of every culture, language is interdependently related to IC. Therefore, business negotiators who are adept at communicating across cultural boundaries are those who first gain a deeper understanding of their own culture and how it differs from their counterparts before making the necessary adjustments and adopting new attitudes while dealing with them. K. Aswathappa (2010, p. 223) argues that languages are either high or low context placed.

As the current study bears the importance of failure avoidance in comprehending the cultural differences in business negotiations, examining various communication styles that may result in cultural misunderstandings is worth making it clear. Then, some examples are provided, making a comparison between high-context and low-context cultures, given both verbal and non-verbal communication aspects. The countries are chosen on the basis of Algeria's international business relations.

### 2.4.2 High-Context Vs. Low-Context Culture Negotiators

In a comparison between low- and high-context cultures, Guffey and Loewy (2022, p. 89) explain that in low-context cultures (e.g., North America, Scandinavia and Germany), communicators are less dependent on the context of the situation and the shared experience to convey meanings. Taking words literally, they prefer the message to be clear, objective, professional, and efficient. In contrast, communicators of high context (e.g., Japan, China and Middle Eastern countries) are expected to be intuitive and contemplative, and may not take words literally. They deduce the meaning of the message in terms of either the situation context, the relationship between communicators, or non-verbal cues. For example, a Japanese may say 'yes' but mean 'no'. In this situation, other cues such as the context, the time taken to answer, the voice tone, the facial expressions, and the posture would indicate whether the 'yes' means acceptance or refusal. Table 2.1.5 summarizes the differences between high-context and low-context communicators in a comparison made by Guffey and Loewy (2022, p. 89).

**Table 2.1.5** High-context versus low-context communicators (Guffey & Leowy, 2022, p. 89)

| ***Low-Context Cultures*** | ***High-Context Cultures*** |
|---|---|
| Tend to prefer direct verbal interaction | Tend to prefer indirect verbal interaction |
| Tend to understand meaning at one level only | Tend to understand meanings embedded at many sociocultural levels |
| Are generally less proficient in reading nonverbal cues | Are generally more proficient in reading nonverbal cues |
| Value individualism | Value group membership |
| Rely more on logic | Rely more on content and feeling |
| Say no directly | Talk around point, avoid saying no |
| Communicate in highly structured, detailed messages with literal meanings | Communicate in sometimes simple, sometimes ambiguous messages |
| Give authority to written information | Understand visual messages readily |

Similarly, Hall and Hall (1990) provide a model of information sharing attitudes in terms of context (see Table 2.1.6) (qtd. in Barmeyer, Bausch, & Mayrhofer, 2021, p. 47)

**Table 2.1.6** High- Vs. low-context information by Hall and Hall (1990)

| **Information: Context** | |
|---|---|
| **High context cultures** | **Low context cultures** |
| Indirect, playful and ambiguous transmission of information<br>Implicit communication is faster. Only participants who already have prior knowledge (context) understand information correctly. | Direct, detailed and clear transmission of information<br>Explicit communication is slower.<br>All participants have a similar level of knowledge. |

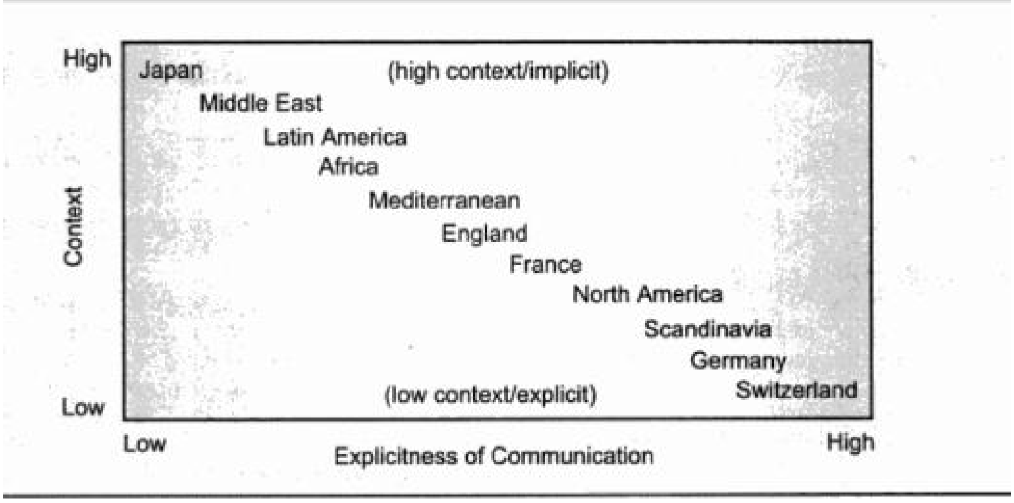
Source: Barmeyer, Bausch, & Mayrhofer (2021, p. 47)

In the literature, Brett and Gelfand (2006, p. 187) report that many communication researchers studied negotiators' communication styles in relation to the context-culture dimension (e.g., Hall, 1976; Gibson, 1998; Gudykunst, Matsumoto, Ting-Toomey, & Nishida, 1996) and found that western cultures use low-context communication. This latter involves direct information sharing at the negotiating table with a communication style built on persuasiveness. The authors (2006, p. 187) outline, "Low-context-communication is direct; meaning is explicit and on the surface of verbal or non-verbal behavior. Interpretation of low-context communication requires familiarity with verbal and non-verbal behavior, but it does not require familiarity with the context or situation in which the behavior occurs."

Low-context culture members, such as those from North American and Western European countries who are more individualistic, usually communicate by giving face value without much dependence on implicit conditions or assumptions. As regards their conceptions of contract, time, and attitudes, they perceive the contract as a crucial instrument binding both parties, tend to be confrontational and direct, can change decisions quickly, and prefer shallower, short-term relationships based on explicit communication with all the information in the message.

As regards language use, K. Aswathappa (2010, p. 223) explains that high-context members' words are stated indirectly and implicitly. This makes communication involve several meanings to be read and interpreted according to the situation where it occurred, such as the use of incomplete sentences and silent periods, which require the other party to interpret what is not said. In contrast, low-context people use explicit words to convey direct meanings, thereby making communication clear without needing to interpret the situation to understand the meaning of words. Figure 2.7 demonstrates Aswathappa's comparison between high- and low-context language countries (2010, p. 223).

**Figure 2.7** Contrasting communication patterns in low- Vs. high-context cultures (Aswathappa, 2010, p. 223)




For example, when doing business with the US negotiators, lawyers are involved in the negotiations to help remove the context, and a clear contract is primordial with no reading between the lines. They start business directly, clearly stating their wants. They like a competitive environment, and their defined objective lies in attaining a legalistic contract with a focus on short-term, results-oriented relationships with a variety of partners. Sometimes, their words are perceived as tough and insensitive because they negotiate with confidence and do not appreciate delays and hesitation, which are considered signs of incompetence, while keeping direct eye contact is perceived as a sign of openness, honesty, and assertiveness. Their negotiation approach is based on mutual problem solving. Decisions and results are expected to be made and obtained at the negotiation table. While coming to the end of the negotiation, they say "anything is OK unless it has been restricted" (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 32).

English negotiators, whose culture is extremely low-context compared to the Americans', are very formal, polite, reserved, and mannered. They give immense importance to protocol and proper etiquette. Their negotiation behavior is characterized by the soft sell, for which the nuances of communication are also important. In other words, they expect the counterpart to provide a prompt answer when asking a question or making a statement.

The German negotiators, who are also of low-context culture, have a formal protocol that includes dress, posture, and manners, along with the seriousness of the negotiation purpose. For instance, they tend to use a handshake at the beginning and end of meetings. They are detail-oriented, punctual, planned, well organized, and very face-conscious. They prefer distant relationships with the other party's team and are very concerned with the precision of the written word (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 31).

In high-context cultures, such as those in Asian and Arab countries, which are more collectivistic, communication is reliant mostly on unspoken conditions or assumptions considered to have the same value as the words used (Peng, 2022, p. 71). They value traditions, foster long-term relationships, rely on non-verbal signs, tend to be non-confrontational, and are slow to make a change in decisions. For this reason, high-context culture negotiators give tremendous importance to relationship building. They prefer to understand their counterparts as persons and resolve important issues in informal settings than to opt for technical solutions at the negotiation table (Lai-Ling Lam, 2000, p. 3) . Unlike low-context culture negotiators, they have a polychronic perception of time as fluid, which means working on a number of tasks at once. Moreover, they do not give much importance to punctuality, and deadlines are not considered if they do not affect costs. However, some high-context culture countries, such as Japan, have both polychronic and monochromic time perceptions.

The Japanese are always interested in foreign cultures. They prefer harmonious interactions that minimize conflict to the benefit of social agreement, although they are strongly aware and knowledgeable of their basic interests. For this very reason, they like building relationships with their partners built on friendship and trust at business dinners and lunches before going to the negotiation table (Hawrysh & Zaichkowsky, 1990, p. 42, qtd. in Usunier, 2003, p. 107). For example, they never explicitly say "no" to a business request; instead, they express it through unenthusiastic answers such as "we will study it", or "we will get back to you later", or draw a breath between teeth saying something like '*s a h' or 'it is very difficult'* (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 72) . Here, the counterpart is supposed to understand and interpret this type of response as a rejection. When they say 'yes', it may mean 'no', or often 'maybe'. They favor less eye contact, fewer negative facial expressions, and more periods of silence (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 72).

The Arabs, who are known to favor face-to-face discussions, do not like expressing disagreements openly in a formal session. They prefer to use gentle behaviors or hesitation signals to hint at their disagreement, hoping the other party will understand the message. They rarely give a direct 'no' although they disagree. They favor body contact as a sign of insurance and good friendship, and looking closely into the other side's eyes is used as a cue to know if this one is telling the truth by the pupils' movement. As with Italians and Latin Americans, Arabs use their hands as a sign of emphasis and support for what they are saying. As with the Japanese, the Arabs give importance to both social and negotiation processes; in other words, they combine negotiations with social activities in order to demonstrate their hospitality. Moreover, to avoid creating a bad impression, the other party should choose the right time to discuss business with them.

Chinese do not prefer to involve lawyers until the very last phase of contract drafting. They give importance to building relationships before getting down to the negotiating table. For this reason, western countries spend much time in establishing relationships to win the Chinese company managers' trust. They rarely show emotions, and the level of relationship does not change either in success or negotiation failure. Sometimes, laughter is used as a sign of an embarrassment response to show that they do not understand the other party's point or simply do not want to reply (Hendon, Hendon, & Herbig, 1996, p. 72). Unlike North Americans, they avoid long, direct eye contact to show politeness and respect.

In this respect, Gibson (2002, p. 62) states that Casse and Dol (1985) identify three types of negotiations: (1) negotiation based on compromise, (2) negotiation based on synthesis to mean that all ideas are taken into consideration; and (3) negotiation based on synergy, which means that the result is greater than the sum of the parts. The authors (1985) summarize, in relation to negotiations as shown in Table 2.1.7, the cultural differences of the Japanese, North Americans, and Latin Americans into five assumptions, including emotions, power, decision-making, social interaction, and persuasion (qtd. in Gibson, 2002, p. 62).

**Table 2.1.7** Cultural assumptions summary by Casse and Dol (1985)

| | **CULTURES** | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ASSUMPTIONS | JAPANESE | NORTH AMERICA | LATIN AMERICA |
| 1 Emotions | Emotions are valued, but must be hidden. | Emotions are not highly valued. Transactions with others are mostly unemotional. | Emotional sensitivity is valued. Interactions can be highly emotional and even passionate. |
| 2 Power | Subtle power plays. Conciliation is sought. | Power games are played all the time. Litigation, not so much conciliation. To be strong is highly valued. | Great power plays. To be stronger than the others is particularly valued. |
| 3 Decision making | Group decision making. | Teamwork provides inputs to decision | Decisions are made by individuals in charge. |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | makers. | |
| 4 Social interaction | Face-saving is crucial. Decisions are often made on the basis of saving someone from embarrassment. | Decisions are made on a cost/benefit basis. Face-saving does not openly matter. | Face-saving for oneself is critical to preserve honor and dignity. |
| 5 Persuasion | Not very argumentative. Quiet when right. | Argumentative when right or wrong. Impersonal when arguing. Practical when presenting arguments. | Passionate and emotional when arguing. Enjoy a warm interaction as well as lively debate. |

Source: Gibson (2002, p. 62)

So to speak, cross-cultural business negotiation requires both verbal and non-verbal communication proficiency, which is a more complex process because it involves people from different cultures interacting through a foreign medium. At this level of the discussion, intercultural competence, including IC skills, is one of the assets that effective business negotiators need to possess and develop through training on reading the other party's verbal and non-verbal messages in order to know how to use them to their own advantage and to be in charge of the overall communication.

## 2.5 Business Negotiation and Intercultural Communication Competence

Studies proved that the field of IC has witnessed significant development over the past 75 years (Beamer , 2017, p. xiv). The first decade of this period (i.e., from the 1940s to the 1950s) has witnessed the works of the cultural anthropologists Clyde, Florence Kluckhohn, and Fred Strodtbeck, who created the criteria explaining the societal values for the illumination of social interaction styles between culturally different people. The next two decades (i.e., from the 1950s to the 1970s) have witnessed Edward T. Hall's works, which involve the framework of the context-culture dimension and its effect on communication with time and space perceptions in different cultures. The next four decades have witnessed the works of scholars from other disciplines, to name psychology, linguistics, and training. For example, one can find William B. Gudykunst "theorizing about IC", Edward C. Stewart "Contrast Culture Method, American Cultural Patterns", John C. Condon "Semantics, Communication", Milton Bennett "Linguistics, Intercultural Training", Young-Yun Kim "International Negotiations", Stella Tin-Toomey "Identity Negotiation", Judith N. Martin "Communication", and Geert Hofstede "Cultural Dimension". After that, the IC study continued its expansion with a number of research works, such as the ten-year study of the 'GLOBE' research project made by Robert House and other researchers (i.e., Global Leadership Organizational Behavior Effectiveness). This work examined the importance of IC competence in global business to determine the characteristics of a global leader. In line with this, Beamer (2017, p. xv) states that Mansour Javidan *et al.,* (2016) conceive of the global leader as "someone who is able to handle complexity, risk and ambiguity in a fast-paced and multicultural environment successfully, because he [/she] possesses knowledge about cultural differences and mindfully reflects on behaviors, attitudes, values and beliefs while interacting with others."

As regards foreign language teaching*,* henceforth FLT, which is systematically concerned with communication, it contributes to the development of ICC through teaching and assessment. This enables learners to use English as a lingua franca to interact with culturally different people and with varying experiences for sharing information and sending messages, which are dependent on their perception and interpretation in another cultural context. As the linguistic skills, FLT also gives importance to the teaching of non-linguistic aspects of communication. In other words, as professional settings enquire cultural diversity, ESBP training needs to include IC programs giving value to non-verbal communication by enhancing cultural awareness, adaptation and respect to cultural differences. Argyle (1983, pp. 183-89), as cited by Michael Byram (1997, p. 13), identified eight dimensions of non-verbal communication: “Facial expression”, “Gaze”, “Gestures and other bodily movements”, “Bodily posture”, “Bodily contact”, “Special behavior”, “Clothes and appearance”, and “Non-verbal aspects of speech”. Additionally, the aforementioned modes of social skills can operate in four functions, namely “communicating interpersonal attitudes and emotions”, “self-presentation”, “rituals”, and “supporting verbal communication” to acknowledge that this cultural variation results in misunderstanding and confusion, and that it is difficult to acquire modes of other cultures. On the other side, Poyatos (1992) assuming that non-verbal communication skills can be taught suggested a syllabus and a methodology for a non-verbal communication course by taking into account the interrelationship between language, paralanguage and kinesics. However, both scholars [Argyle and Poyatos] did not provide answers to whether the learner needs to imitate the native speaker to acquire non-verbal communication skills or not. This means that non-verbal communication skills are difficult to acquire since they are unconscious behaviors and difficult to be controlled. Stating Byram (1997, p. 14),

> Yet precisely because many aspects of non-verbal communication, although learned within a given cultural environment, are unconscious, the language learner may not be able to control them, or wish to give up what feels like a part of their personality, to acquire the non-verbal communication of others. Here again, therefore, it is important that the leaner be able to see similarities and difference and to establish the relationship between their own and other systems, rather than imitate a native speaker.

In the same line of FLT enquiry towards research into cross-cultural communication competence, scholars such as Ruben (1989, p. 233) , focused on the study of communication problems encountered by business people from different countries. By working on projects described in terms of psychology, Ruben (1989, p. 233) offered a model of cross-cultural CC having different facets namely "(1) Relationship-Building and Maintenance Competence", "(2) Information-Transfer Competence", and "(3) Compliance-Gaining Competence". The researcher emphasizes that language, communication, and cultural rules knowledge is important to these skills. For Byram (1997, p. 22) , teaching for both linguistic competence and intercultural competence cannot be separated from each other. Since the 1980's, María Dolores López-Jiménez and Jorge Sánchez-Torres (2021, p. 1) report that the literature has witnessed extensive research studies in applied linguistics that highlighted the relationship between culture and language to devise a framework of reference. Yet, there are insufficient resources and guidance for teaching IC.

Leading successful international business, therefore, requires cultural knowledge and communication competence (CC). Conceiving the relationship between these elements in communication, Beamer (2017, p. xv) views that effective communication with similar and different individuals requires knowledge, understanding, and skills to interact successfully, requiring both familiarity and a willingness to learn. This is, in fact, not an easy task for business negotiators, who need to develop a certain level of ICC for global business. Apart from linguistic skills, nonlinguistic ones are also necessary for transmitting meanings correctly to clients preventing several problems. Mistakes and misinterpretations of body language can be a reason for ruining the business relationship. In this vein,

> Mistakes in cross-cultural communication often go unnoticed by the communicators, but these mistakes have the potential to cause damage to international relationships and negotiations. Mistakes or misinterpretations of subtle gestures of the hands and face, the use of silence, what is said or not said,

and the intricacies of dealing with age and status often provide pitfalls for international managers. (Aswathappa, 2010, p. 223)

Possessing the right intercultural skills and making use of the right non-verbal symbols to send messages to the other party help negotiators avoid communication failure. However, non-verbal communication, as aforementioned, is difficult to study as it is more spontaneous and less structured than the verbal one. According to Malti Agarwal (2010, p. 18) , “no textbook can teach you how to master the vocabulary of gestures and postures”. For Juliane Krueger (2005, p. 2) , “there is not one single universal nonverbal language. Nonverbal communication means different things to different people and different cultures and is therefore mainly responsible for misunderstandings.” Richard Hammersley and Marie Reid (2000, p. 34) believe that non-verbal communication can be improved by practice. Therefore, they suggest a list of four directives: (1) by developing skills in observing non-verbal communication, (2) by interpreting non-verbal communication in the context of the total situation, (3) by being aware of the possibility of misinterpretations, and (4) by practicing to become aware of and be able to manage your own non-verbal communication. On the other hand, Cellich and Jain (2012, pp. 183-5) provide some guidelines to help business negotiators adapt their communication strategies to the other side’s non-verbal behavior in relation to the negotiation situation. They are summarized as follows:

- Consider eye contact;
- Try to behave normally without using the other side’s aspect of vocalics (e.g. raised voice) to your advantage;
- Avoid touching at all, just the shaking hand is enough;
- Let the host set the distance limit with the guest adapting to the cultural traits of the host;

- Toward time, try to be adapted with the other party to the needs of each other through mutual respect and understanding;
- Respect the way the other party appears. People dress differently and have different customs regards physical appearance; and
- Avoid criticizing the host about his or her artifacts.

Then, body language, which matters significantly in business negotiations as it is a way of communicating meanings non-verbally either in a conscious or an unconscious way, happens to play a major role for business interaction success or failure. According to Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, pp. 108-9) , communication fails in business because of the absence of rapport and balance between the speaker and the listener. The authors (2011, pp. 108-9) argue the fact that the 30/70 ratio is the time that should be divided between speaking and listening. Devoting 70% to listening enables the negotiator to observe and study the speaker's body language, state of mind and feelings, and perceptions of our opinions (Chaturvedi & Chaturvedi, 2011, p. 109). Therefore, a communication breakdown can be prevented through knowledge of non-verbal communication skills. To say, knowledge of the body language use is essential in the business negotiation language training. For a worthy discussion, the authors (2011, p. 109) view that both listener and speaker should establish rapport through the use of similar body language, especially speed, tone of voice, pitch, words, gestures, eye contact, and time. For a common understanding, Chaturvedi and Chaturvedi (2011, p. 109) provide a list of steps that help parties overcome differences and concentrate on mutual verbal, and non-verbal aspects of communication. Some of these guidelines are selected and mentioned below:

- "Develop the habit of talking less and listening and observing others more."
- "Do not dominate the discussion."

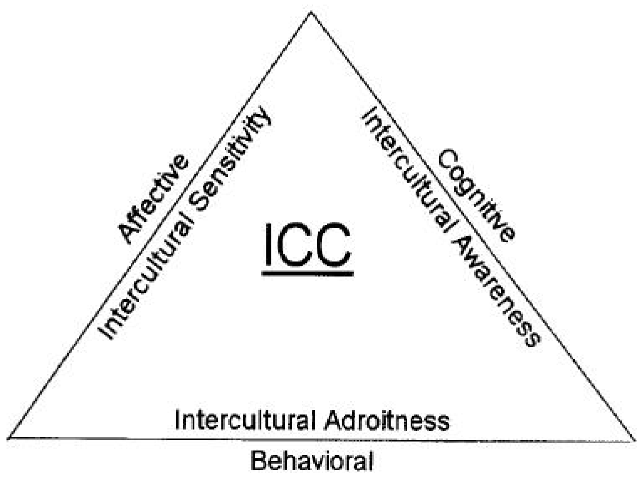
- "Maintain a natural pace of conversation."
- "Recognize the pace of others and match it as closely as possible."
- "Try to establish rapport during the first few minutes of the conversation."
- "Do not introduce any conversational issue before create this rapport."
- "Avoid harsh criticism. Try to see reason for differences of opinion and be tolerant of them."
- "Focus on similarities of ideas."

The ability to interpret the other side's communicative behavior based on the negotiator's cultural perspective is the key element in cross-cultural business negotiations. For this reason, researchers have examined how culturally different people perceive things differently, thus causing communication failure between parties. In this vein, Michael B. Hinner (2014, p. 297) reports the work of a number of scholars, to name Imahor (2010), who found that many business negotiations were unsuccessful between American and Japanese business managers because they neglected the context-culture difference, (i.e., low versus high). Other researchers to cite only Hoecklin (1995), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), Gibson (2000), and Schneider and Barsoux (2003) found that differences in time management, including contractual timelines and deadlines, caused problems in the negotiation progression. Moreover, Adair and Brett (2004), and Manrai and Manrai (2010) concluded with the fact that conducting and negotiating business across cultures requires giving consideration to cultural differences, and the same business negotiation happens to have different scenarios and schemata that have been developed by means of these cultural differences. In addition, Hinner (2014, p. 297) warns about the ignorance or unawareness of cultural differences being the cause of misinterpretations in the world of business; consequently, this requires intercultural competence in order to conduct communication behaviors effectively and achieve the target business result. The author (2014, p. 297), citing Chen (2007, p. 101), outlines

> To be interculturally competent, individuals must hold cognitive ability or intercultural awareness and affective ability or intercultural sensitivity to make accurate judgments, and further infuse these abilities to the behavioral level of interaction depending on different cultural contexts in order to achieve communication goals effectively and appropriately. (Hinner, 2014, p. 297)

Furthermore, Guo-Ming Chen (2007) views that intercultural competence is a multidimensional concept composed of cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of human interaction made up of four dimensions, namely “(a) personality dimensions, (b) communication skills, (c) psychological adaptation, and (d) cultural awareness.” Chen’s ICC aspects were embedded in a model showing three areas, where the cognitive area is represented by intercultural awareness, the affective area by intercultural sensitivity, and the behavioral one with intercultural effectiveness, which is also called effective adroitness (see Figure 2.8).

**Figure 2.8** ICC triangular model by Chen (2014, p. 19)



According to Chen's ICC model (2007), intercultural awareness can be gained in three stages: 1- awareness of the superficial cultural patterns showing the most visible cultural characteristics, 2- awareness of significant and subtle cultural differences, and 3- awareness of how another culture feels from the insider's perspective. Intercultural sensitivity, on the other hand side, involves individual's motivation to understand and appreciate cultural differences, while communication skills include their effective use (Hinner, 2014, p. 298) ; in other words, the ability to transfer knowledge of a cultural pattern into an effective communicative behavior. This model is a description of interculturally competent individuals, who, according to Chen (2014, p. 18) , "must possess the capacities of knowing their own and their counterparts' cultural conventions, demonstrating a positive feeling of acknowledging, respecting, and even accepting cultural differences, and acting appropriately and effectively in the process of intercultural interaction."

The study of IC, therefore, entails the study of individuals' cultural differences because their knowledge really makes a difference as encounters acquire the conceptual tools and skills to manage such differences in a creative way (Ting-Toomey, 1999, p. 3). For Jill E. Rudd and Diana R. Lawson (2007, p. 154), communicating interculturally in business negotiations means attempting to exchange information, interpret and understand the other side's cultural difference bearing to notice the fact that the communication process success is influenced by both: an understanding of general cultural knowledge and the negotiator's ICC.

## 2.6 Conclusion

Effective communication in business negotiations depends on correctly recognizing and interpreting non-verbal cues. In one culture, a head nod might signify agreement, but in another, it might just denote understanding. Thus, recognizing these cultural differences and modifying one's body language in accordance with them can significantly improve the outcome of negotiations. Therefore, by integrating non-linguistic aspects of communication into the BE course designed for business negotiation, learners can develop a deeper understanding of how cultural context influences meaning. This not only enhances their ability to effectively communicate in high- and low-context cultures but also promotes intercultural competence and fosters more successful negotiations.

To this end, a needs analysis is worthwhile to conduct in a professional environment, as it is an integral part of ESP studies. This empirical study will provide valuable insights into the specific challenges faced by Algerian company managers and executives when negotiating in English. By identifying the necessary skills for effective negotiation in the language, BE teachers can tailor their teaching methods to address these specific needs and enhance their linguistic and non-linguistic abilities in negotiation activities.

# Chapter three:

# Data Collection, Analysis and Interpretation

**Table of Contents**

## 3.1 Introduction

The fact that ESP is a learner-centered approach, has always aroused a persistent debate, as learners are very aware of their needs, and varied goals. As a result, needs analysis, henceforth *NA*, became one of ESP prominent distinguishing features, and contingent to the course design, which is a prerequisite to language learning. NA was a revolution in linguistics, as the ESP movement emerged in the 1970s (Yassi & Kaharuddin, 2018, p. 32) to witness a growth of English courses demands for language use (i.e., communicative purpose). Accordingly, ESP and NA are inextricably intertwined (Brown, 2016, p. 4) because the BE course content and its aim are both fixed by the learners' specific needs.

Pondering the necessity of non-native speakers' use of the English language in business negotiation, chapter three summarizes the practical part of the research work at hand. Literally, the empirical study was conducted within a professional environment to address the use of English for specific business purposes (ESBP). The study aimed to understand the specific challenges faced by a sample population of Algerian managers and executives when communicating in English and identify areas where they require training. The findings from this study will provide valuable insights for designing targeted language programs and resources to develop their negotiation skills in English.

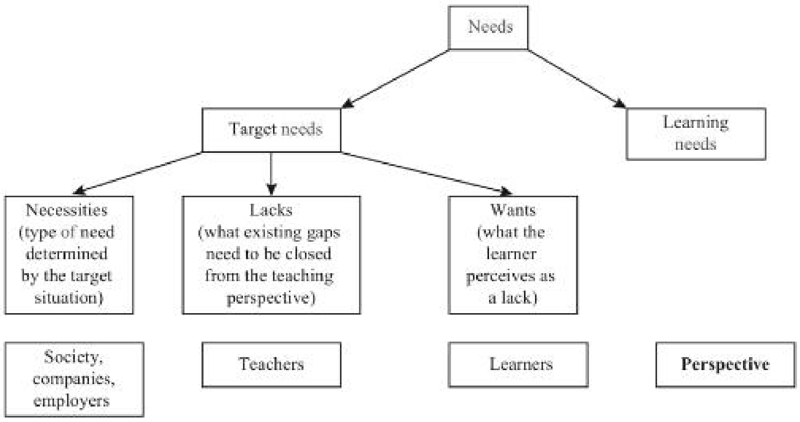
## 3.1 Needs Analysis as a Method of Data Collection

The process of NA is the basis for BE teaching. Byram and Hu (2013, p. 223), conceiving the importance of conducting a NA before to design the ESP course, say "ESP courses are based on an analysis of learners' needs in relation to the learners' target discipline, work place or profession. They aim to help learners enter or progress in their chosen disciplines and fields". Similarly, Brown (2016, p. 2), citing Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 389), views NA as a process of defining and organizing the learner's needs for language by priorities. This occurs with both subjective and objective information, collected by means of questionnaires, tests, interviews, observations, and others. For Rym Jamly (2016, p. 111), NA constitutes the theoretical basis of any ESP course content because it involves the exploration of learners' needs, and their purposes for learning, thereby enabling them to succeed in their learning, and meet the employment standards. In the same line of thought, Maryam Azarnooch, Mahboobeh Khosrojerdi, and Mitra Zeraatpishe (2018, p. 97), quoting Hyland (2006, pp. 73-4), argue "Needs analysis refers to the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means for establishing the how and what of a course. It is a continuous process, since we modify our teaching as we come learn more about our students." Therefore, NA is a process, which involves planning, gathering, analyzing, interpreting, using the data, and writing the report (Brown, 2016, p. 2).

Several scholars, (e.g., Munby, 1978; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Berwick, 1989; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Robinson, 1991; West, 1994; Allison *et al.,* 1994; Seedhouse, 1995; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Iwai *et al.,* 1999; Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Finney, 2002), recognized the importance of NA in designing the language course syllabus. NA is also a means to identify the specific language needs and goals of learners, ensuring that the syllabus is tailored to their requirements.

Since it implies a number of meanings, the word needs must be worth a great deal of interest to the needs analyst. For example, Brown (2016, p. 10) provides 14 synonyms for the term, and they are: “wants, desires, necessities, lacks, gaps, expectations, motivations, deficiencies, requirements, requests, prerequisites, essentials, the next step, and *x+1* (here *x* is what the students already know, plus the next step, or *1*)”. Based on Hutchinson’s and Waters’ (1987) distinction, Yassi and Kaharuddin (2018, p. 33) identify two types of needs: target and learning needs (see Figure 3.1). Target needs are divided into necessities, lacks and wants. “Necessities” refer to what the learner has to know according to the requirements of the target situation, “lacks” to what necessities are missing, (i.e., the gap between the present language proficiency and the target proficiency), whereas “wants” involve the learner’s perception of own needs as to personal and environmental demands. The learning needs, on the other hand, estimate the necessitated knowledge and abilities to attain the required degree of competence in the target situation. In line with business negotiation language, learning needs may include language proficiency, cultural understanding, and negotiation skills. By identifying and addressing these specific needs, learners can ensure that they are adequately prepared to participate in negotiation meetings effectively and achieve successful outcomes.

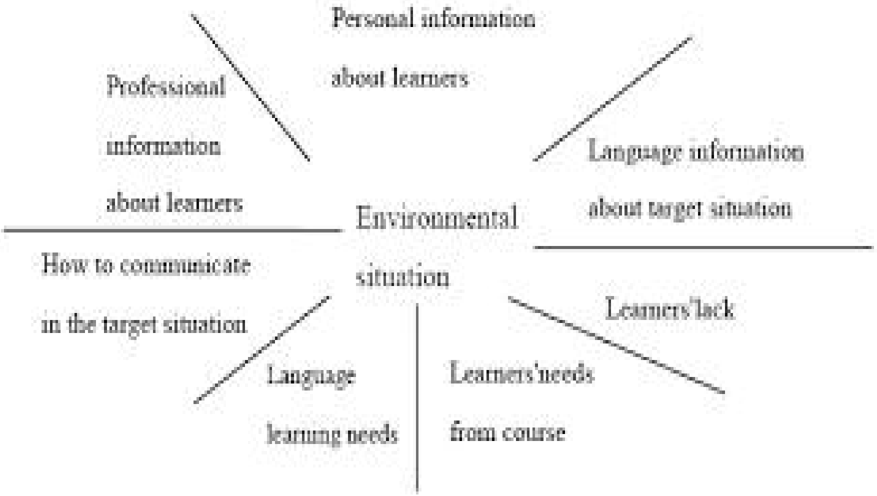
**Figure 3.1** Needs classification by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) (Huhta, Vogt, Johnson, & Tulkki, 2013, p. 11)



Other ESP scholars provided different models to categorize needs based on exploring different perspectives on the professional context for learning. For instance, Brindley (1989, p. 65) and Berwick (1989, p. 55) introduced the dichotomies of 'subjective / felt needs', and 'objective / perceived needs'. The former type involves the learner's perceived learning needs, whereas the second type implies the target needs perceived by the course designers. Brindley (1989, p. 63) also organized needs into "process-oriented" and "goal oriented", and both derive from learning and target situations, respectively. In addition to these types, Holliday and Cooke (1982), cited in Adrian Holliday (1994, p. 199), suggested the "means analysis". This type of analysis implies the assessment of the environmental situation where the course will take place.

Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John (1998, p. 124), on the other hand, succeeded to design a general and clear picture of the concept of needs and NA with their division in three types: "target situation analysis (TSA)", "learning situation analysis (LSA)", and "present situation analysis (PSA)". According to the authors (p. 124) and in match with the aforementioned classifications of needs, TSA includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs, in other words, the learners' knowledge analysis in order to identify their lacks. LSA involves the subjective, felt and process-oriented needs, whereas PSA is the assessment of the learners' strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and leaning experiences. Yassi and Kaharuddin (2018, p. 35) report that Dudley Evans and Maggie St John (1998, p. 125) described the aims of the three categories of NA through theoretical frameworks, as illustrated in Figure 3.2. All the aforementioned categories of needs became later landmarks in ESP teaching and NA studies.

**Figure 3.2** Needs classification by Dudley Evans and St John (1998) (Yassi & Kaharuddin, 2018, p. 35)




In line with the aim of the present study and on the basis of Byram's and Hu's (2013, p. 224) description of NA categories, chapter three presents an analysis of the target and present situation needs, which will help understand the sample population's current knowledge and linguistic ability. In other words, the results will allow for the identification of any gaps or areas for improvement that need to be addressed in language training programs. Additionally, understanding learner's present needs helps tailor the language course to their specific requirements and ensure that they are equipped with the necessary skills for successful business negotiations.

To assess the learning needs, the course designer should ask pertinent questions about the learners, institution, availability of resources, time and place where the course has to take place, and many other issues. For the target needs, questions on why, where and when the learners will need the language, and how it will be used, have to be addressed. For Xie Qing (2016, p. 27) , citing Duenk (1993), "to guarantee that workplace English training targets occupational-related needs, occupational analysis is recommended." Consequently, there are numerous ways to conduct the NA process, such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, and document analysis. For Sue-hong Gu and Ya-jun Yang (2013, p. 67) , the questionnaire and interview are the most commonly used methods for foreign language NA. Abuelgasim Sabah Elsaid Mohammed (2018, p. 160) reports that ESP scholars, (e.g., Basturkmen, 2010; Brown, 1995, 2009; Long, 2005; Hyland, 2006; Richards, 2001; Graves, 2000; Dudley Evans and St John, 1998; West, 1997), agree on the use of a variety of methods for data collection in NA, to name questionnaires, observations, interviews, and authentic spoken and written texts analysis.

## 3.3 Data Collection and Instrument

As a distinguishing characteristic of ESP studies and a precondition before designing the course content, NA denotes a process in which numerous techniques are employed to gather pertinent data about the setting and learners under investigation. Therefore, it is important to shed light on the environment and the target population that participated in the survey before describing the instrument used for data collection. The analysis addressed English language use and English learning needs in the context of business negotiation. Later, the findings are presented for interpretation, analysis and, discussion.

### 3.3.1 Environment

The environment for investigation was chosen due to the availability of data and personnel, who uses English for negotiating with foreign counterparts, both native and nonnative English speakers. Therefore, the target population involves managers and executives from six work places, specifically five companies and a research center. The five companies are SONATRACH (TRC/ RTO, ENG directorate and AVAL), PPG ALGERIA, TMM, SMT ALGERIA, and SYNERGY industry. The informants belong to different work areas: hydrocarbon production, painting distribution, seawater desalination, trucks and machines industry, and medical furniture industry, respectively. The sixth place of investigation is a satellite research center. As mentioned earlier, the NA process entails gathering information on the environment under research and the population's target and present needs. These data will help the researcher to uncover the informants' strengths and weaknesses as regards the use of English in business negotiations.

### 3.3.1.1 Companies and Research Center Profile

SONATRACH[2]; the Algerian National Company for Research, Production, Transport, Processing and Marketing of Hydrocarbons and their derivatives, was created in December 31st, 1962 under the decision N° 63/49131. At the international competitive level, it ranks among the 12 global oil companies and the first leader in Africa. The company main objective relies on the transportation and marketing of hydrocarbons and their derivatives, filtered and organized under four branches:

(1) **Upstream:** represents the activity of hydrocarbon research, exploration, development, and production.

(2) **TRC:** is the pipeline transport activity taking in charge the supply, installation, and commissioning of pipeline transport of liquid hydrocarbons and condensates facilities, and security systems.

[2] Source: https://www.institut-numerique.org/annexe-n1-organigramme-de-la-sonatrach-5028f58d3f798 published on 13/08/2012

(3) **COM:** is in charge of the development, and the application of the company's strategy in terms of marketing in the national, and international markets by means of trading, and shipping operations.

(4) **Downstream:** covers the development and the exploitation of natural gas liquefaction (LNG) plants, LPG (i.e. Liquid Petroleum Gas) separation, refining, and industrial gases.

As regards SONATRACH's partnerships, the company collaborates with well reputed companies in the international market, to name only 'Anadarko' (American petroleum company), 'Cepsa' (Spanish petroleum company), 'ENI' (Italian hydrocarbon company), 'Maersk' (Danish shipping company), 'Pertamina' (Indonesian petroleum company), and 'Talisman Energy' (Canadian stock company). This collaboration necessitates the use of English, as a means of business communication and correspondence. Obviously, this is an appropriate linguistic context to conduct a NA study. For this reason, the investigation was carried out at three SONATRACH-accompanying structures (see *appendix 1, p. 257*), which are situated in Oran, in the western region of Algeria: TRC / RTO, ENG and AVAL.

TRC / RTO is SONATRACH's pipeline transport activity, specialized in hydrocarbons transportation, from the production centers in the south to the demanding and processing poles in the north. Its activity covers a network of more than 22,000 kilometers with 53% dedicated to natural gas transportation. By giving priority to the exportation of this energy source, Algeria devotes huge sums of money to investments in international markets. The engineering directorate, *abbreviated ENG*, on the other hand, is the accompanying structure of SONATRACH projects and the thinking head of the AVAL activity. It is in charge of the elaboration of detailed engineering studies in addition to the achievement, development, and investment plans from the maturation and conception phases until the project concretization[3]. It is engaged in the negotiation process of SONATRACH joint ventures from the preparation phase until the contract signature. The activity AVAL, which is SONATRACH downstream business, is another accompanying structure in charge of the development, and the operation of natural gas liquefaction (LNG), LPG separation, and refining.

The second company is TMM Algeria. TMM is a supersized reverse osmosis (RO) plant situated in a region called Magtaa, localized in Mostaganem, around 80 km to the east of Oran. The plant is run by the Algerian Energy Company (AEC) in a sub-contract with two other firms: 'Hyflux' and 'Malakoff'. Hyflux is a Singaporean firm renowned for its ability to carry out large-scale desalination projects effectively, and is specialized in the design, building, operation and transfer of seawater into potable water. Malakoff is a Malaysian company specialized in power generation, water desalination and operation, and maintenance services. The three companies [AEC, Hyflux, and Malakoff] signed an agreeent to operate the plant for 25 years incorporating the Tahlyat Myah Magtaa joint venture.[4] Naturally, the English language is the communication medium between the staff of the three companies, for both business and technology transfer purposes.

The third company is called Pittsburgh Plate Glass (PPG) Algeria group[5]. PPG is a worldwide American company, which supplies paintings, coatings, optical products, special materials, and fiberglass. The company has been settled in Algeria since 2009,

[3] Source : La Revue AVAL SONATRACH. Edited by La Coordination Communication de l'Activité AVAL. N 8, may 2009
[4] Source: https://www.water-technology.net/projects/magtaa-desalination/
[5] Source: https://www.djazairess.com/fr/elwatan/344121

to work in the marketing of a wide range of paintings, such as Seigneurie, Guittet, Freitag, and Sigma. These trademarks are considered as number one in professional, indoor and outdoor paintings in Europe. This business context, then, requires from good to high English language proficiency level because the work is based on sales negotiations.

The fourth company is SMT Algeria (Swedish machinery and trucks company headquartered in Algiers with a branch in Oran). SMT is a joint venture between SMT group, and the Algerian group of heavyweight network RPL (Réseau Poids Lourds), which is a recognized distributor of Volvo construction equipment, and SDLG (Volvo trucks). The fifth company is called Synergy Industry. It is specialized in the import and export of para-pharmaceutical products, medico surgical equipment and supplies, spare parts, and consumables. Both companies [SMT Algeria and Synergy Industry] use English for the purchase of equipment, products and spare parts. Again, this work context involves sales negotiations.

The last setting is a satellite development center, henceforth *CDS*[6]. This center, which is located in Bir El Djir area in Oran, was launched in 2012 to function as an operational entity of the Algerian Space Agency (ASA). The ASA realization is a planned action in the National Space Program 2020, supposed to bring a certain impulsion to the process of mastering space technologies in Algeria. The CDS consists of modern infrastructures, i.e., workshops and laboratories, which are dedicated to the design and the assembly of satellites, as well as a means of environmental testing, and trials. The center's human potential includes Algerian engineers, researchers and

[6] Known as '*Centre de Developpement Special'* in French.

technicians. For the achievement of the National Space Program objectives, the ASA has carried out bilateral and multilateral co-operation actions, through the signature of three governmental cooperation agreements, with the space agencies of Argentina (CONAE), France (CNES), and Ukraine (NSAU). In addition, seven agreement and cooperation protocols were signed with the space agencies, and organizations of Russia (Roscosmos), China (CNSA), United Kingdom (UK Space Agency), Germany (DLR), India (IIRS), Syria (GORS) ), and Argentina (CONAE).[7] Thus, mastery of English is essential at work since the CDS work context involves scientific and technological exchanges as well as the negotiation of conventions and agreements.

As was previously mentioned, the research work was conducted in a setting that allowed for access to data collection and included a variety of managing staff who are, in one way or another, concerned with the use of English as a medium of business communication and negotiation language in particular. Despite targeting more businesses, only six institutions responded to the data collection tool. It is then rational to provide information about the target population.

### 3.3.1.2 Target Population

A sample population of 36 individuals, including managers and executives, accepted to participate in the survey. These informants are experienced people who are demanding and aware of their weaknesses and strengths while negotiating joint ventures in English. Their use of English for professional business purposes (ESBP) made them conceived as suitable subjects for conducting this type of research work, and make it possible to depict their needs for a tailored language-training program.

[7] Source : http://www.asal.dz/cooperationb.php

The majority of the informants, who belong to the five companies (SONATRACH, TMM, PPG, SMT, and Synergy Industry), involve engineers in the fields of electricity, electronics, hydraulics, metallurgy, chemistry, and mechanical and civil engineering. The other informants belong to the management field (finance, commerce, accountancy, etc.). The CDS staff, on the other hand, includes researchers in the fields of electronics, computer science, and space technology. The 36 participants, whose ages vary from 32 to 63 years old with a work experience ranging from 10 to 34 years, occupy the functions of managers, general managers, deputy general managers, sales managers, project managers, department heads, and technical directors. Their general English language proficiency diverge between elementary, intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced levels as Table 3.1.1 demonstrates. This confirms that this sample population consists of job-experienced users of English, who are in fact involved in business activities, starting from the reception of business offers, their analysis, technical comments, and invitations to tender, until meeting the partners. Thus, all these tasks require the use of ESBP.

**Table 3.1.1** Statistics on the participants' gender and language proficiency level

| | **Gender** | **General English proficiency** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **36 participants** | Male (29)<br>Female (07) | Elem. | Inter. | Up. Inter. | Adv. |
| | | 04 | 20 | 08 | 04 |

Table 3.1.1 demonstrates that a majority of respondents (32) possesses a good proficiency level of English varying between intermediate and advanced. The research revealed that the English proficiency of the 28 participants with intermediate and upper intermediate levels was acquired either at the university and/or from in-company trainings. The four participants with an advanced level are in fact two researchers from the CDS (project and general managers), who carried out Master's Degree studies in Great Britain, whereas the two others are general managers at SONATRACH. These four participants possess almost the longest work experience among the 36 respondents, i.e., 19, 25, 30, and 32 years, respectively. From the table above, one can also notice that four participants have an elementary level, which was acquired from secondary and higher education. Although these participants possess a work experience ranging from 19 to 25 years, they have never received any English courses, either at an individual or company expense. Questioning the use of translators during their negotiation meeting, the investigation revealed that their work context does not require negotiating all the time, and offers are sometimes agreed on without spending a long time bargaining, and settling disagreements.

As regards the participants' business partnership, except for those concerned with sales negotiations, i.e., PPG, SMT, and SYNERGY Industry, the rest of the participants collaborate with teams from different nationalities for the transfer of knowledge and abilities, such as engineering studies development, on-site project realization, or research promotion. This evidence attests the importance of English use as a medium of business communication between Algerian and foreign collaborators. The success of this partnership is mainly dependent on both professional and language abilities. For this very reason, English language proficiency is an asset required to attain high-ranking statuses, such as chief executives, high managers, or project managers.

### 3.3.2 English Learning Experience

Given the participants' prior English learning experiences, it is clear that they received general English instruction in basic education before accessing special purpose English, i.e., ESP, at the university in relation to their study area. For example, English was taught to science and technology students during their graduation years as part of the two common-core years' curriculum (i.e., EST), and then in the years of specialty, more specialized English (for example, English for engineering studies, English for electrical and mechanical engineering, English for chemistry, etc.) was provided. For the commercial science students, BE courses were also provided as part of the graduation-year curriculum. The research study found that there was no predetermined syllabus to follow and that the courses were primarily designed to focus on reading, writing, grammar, and learning technical vocabulary.

As regards the BE syllabus, "*Business Vocabulary in Use*" textbooks were used to teach vocabulary to commercial science students, whereas reading texts were selected from different sources. The lessons were selected from the textbooks as determined by the students' level, business field (i.e. management, marketing, etc.), and language needs. Business Vocabulary in Use is intended for BE learners to enhance business vocabulary and communication skills, suitable for both pre- and employed learners. The textbooks are regarded as essential resources for BE learners looking to improve their understanding and usage of business terms and expressions as they cover a wide range of topics, including, human resources, organizations, production, marketing, and finance with clear language explanations, practical examples, and exercises to help learners grasp the concepts effectively.

The methodology comprises five levels: Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Upper intermediate, and Advanced. The Elementary to Pre-intermediate textbook targets the expansion of learners' business vocabulary. The Intermediate to upper intermediate ones are used to help them improve their business vocabulary and develop business communication and professional skills, whereas the Advanced level textbook is designed for students and professionals seeking to improve their knowledge, use of business vocabulary, and business communication skills.

In general, the Business Vocabulary in Use syllabus offers a number of units. Their majority is thematic in search of vocabulary used in different business areas, while the rest of units emphasize the language of skills needed in business. The methodology is organized in such a way that each side-page contains content that specifically addresses one or more learning objectives. For each thematic or skill area, for instance, new vocabulary and expressions are introduced and explained on the left-hand page of each unit in a presentation that is divided into a number of concisely and clearly titled sections denoted by the letters A, B, C, etc. A series of facts about a typical word combination and related vocabulary grammar follow the vocabulary explanation. Through a series of exercises on the right-hand page, vocabulary understanding and use are tested and developed. The connections between similar or identical words used in various contexts are revealed by cross-conferencing between units.

Business vocabulary in Use elementary to pre intermediate offers fundamental, essential vocabulary used in business context presented in sixty-two units (see *appendix 2, p.258*). The book is divided into both thematic sections and skill-based units. The first forty-one units involve topics about vocabulary of business areas, such as "Business Travel", "Career", "Time", "Money", "Products", and "Services". The other twenty-one units present the language needed in business communication skills, such as "Socializing", "Presentations", "Telephoning", "Business writing", "Presentations", and "Meetings".

Business Vocabulary in Use intermediate consists of sixty-six units, which cover forty-six topics looking at vocabulary of business areas, such as "Jobs, People, and Organizations", "Marketing", "Money", "Finance and Economy", "Personal Skills", and "Culture". However, twenty units focus on the language of skills learners need in business, such as "Telephoning, Fax and Email", "Meetings", "Presentations", and "Negotiations" (see *appendix 3, p.262*).

Business Vocabulary in Use book for advanced learners not only covers essential business vocabulary, but it also offers practical exercises to reinforce the newly learned language. With an updated content, learners will gain insights into the latest technological developments, navigate the complexities of global relations, and understand current financial practices. Additionally, the book focuses on enhancing learners' abilities in key areas, such as working in international teams, a crucial skill in today's interconnected business world.

Academically speaking, the Business Vocabulary in Use approach focuses primarily on equipping learners with fundamental business English vocabulary and skills for everyday business communication, rather than delving into the intricacies of negotiation language. Therefore, it was deemed more appropriate to utilize the elementary to pre-intermediate book as a teaching resource, which aligned better with the learners' academic requirements. Obviously, proficiency in negotiation language would be more relevant at an advanced level of study.

As workers' English competence relates to their work status, demands for excellent communication skills happen to increase when the work responsibility does, especially for those who desire to reach a high-ranking job title. It is for this very reason that companies ponder the necessity of improving human resources language proficiency, which can be obtained only through in-company trainings. These courses can be organized with the collaboration of private language schools or the company's own training institutions, such as SONATRACH's business development center (CPE stands for "Centre de Perfectionnement en Enterprise"), and the Algerian petroleum institute (IAP stands for institut Algérien de Pétrole). The CPE provides courses in both technical and BE, but the IAP is specified in technical English, in addition to other types of courses in the different fields of engineering. Other multinationals prefer to send their staff to English-native-speaking countries, i.e., the UK or the USA, for a short training period, as it was the case for some of our participants.

As regards in-company trainings, such as in the case of SONATRACH's workers, the research revealed that the BE courses were provided and organized in terms of the learners' English level after the completion of a general English phase. In other circumstances, the course was directly provided following a hierarchy decision and/or the aim of the learners themselves. Generally, it was a 40-hour course planned according to the trainees' availability. When it comes to the training textbooks, the 'Market Leader' methodology was used to include three textbooks (i.e., one for the teacher, one for the student, and another for the practice), class audio and student's audio programs, and a DVD.

Unlike the Business Vocabulary in Use approach, the Market Leader methodology concentrates on integrating the actual world of international business into the language-teaching classroom. The Market Leader is a multi-level BE course (elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate) offering 12 units based on a variety of topics. The course is designed for, both students who want to develop communication skills and increase knowledge of the business world, and professionals, who desire to improve their communication competence and increase their career prospects.

The Market Leader BE course is provided in three levels, each with a specific purpose. The elementary textbook introduces BE; the pre-intermediate aims to develop learners' creativity in different business skills (e.g., meetings, marketing, and conflict management); whereas the intermediate reinforces acquired knowledge from the preceding levels by involving learners in debates for expressing opinions, giving arguments, and problem solving.

The Market Leader BE course consists of 12 units with an authentic content, and four revision units denoted A, B, C and D, and presented at the end of each unit. The unit is organized in five sections titled "Discussion", "Texts", "Language work", "Skills", and "Case Study". These sections intend to develop the learners' language and business communication skills, i.e. speaking, reading, listening, writing, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and telephoning, meetings, negotiating, socializing, etc.

It is important to note that Market Leader addresses the negotiation language skills in the three level coursebooks in the 'Skills' section. In the elementary book (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2007), one negotiating skill is addressed in 'Unit 7' (p. 68) (*see appendix 4, p.267)* to deal with problem solving skills, to name how to state the problem, explain the reasons and suggest a solution. In the Pre intermediate book (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2007), units two and ten are concerned with two negotiating skills, to name reaching agreement (p. 18) and dealing with conflict (p. 95) (*see appendix 5, p. 269)* , respectively. However, in the Intermediate level (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2010), negotiating is treated in units nine (p. 87) and twelve (p. 117), in the 'Listening' and 'Skills' sections, where learners are trained on how to be a good negotiator, the bargaining skill, and diplomatic language (*see appendix 6, p. 271)*.

For example, Unit 9, titled 'International Markets', trains learners' on strategic negotiation. In the Listening section, listening activities are meant to work on comprehension and run discussions around appropriate behaviors, tactics, and stages to attain objectives and win the negotiation. For practice in the 'Skills' section, learners are invited to use the language form (such as conditional sentences for bargaining) previously addressed in the 'Language Review' section, besides a list of useful language presented for role playing (*see appendix 7, p. 273)*. The activities provide a comprehensive approach to developing both language and professional skills, making them valuable for learners in search of enhancing their business communication abilities. However, it is crucial to assess whether the informants had prior exposure to a business negotiation language lesson or if they would benefit from a tailored course that caters specifically to their requirements. Upon initial evaluation, the Market Leader content appears promising as it covers various essential aspects of negotiation language.

To shed light on the participants' target needs and the abilities they have to develop for successfully negotiating in English, necessary data at the level of the aforementioned five companies and the research center were collected. Thus, it is useful to discuss details about the data collection instrument, including its design, the topics covered, and the types of questions.

### 3.3.3 Questionnaire

Before carrying out the needs analysis, the first thing that should be done is to determine the investigate object well. At the same time, it is necessary to design the research methods for the needs analysis. As for the needs analysis for foreign languages, the most commonly used methods are the Questionnaire and the Interview. As for the method of Questionnaire, it has been mostly applied in the needs analysis of the foreign language. The method of questionnaire is adaptable to the large-scale investigation of the needs analysis for foreign languages. (Gu & Yang, 2013, p. 67)

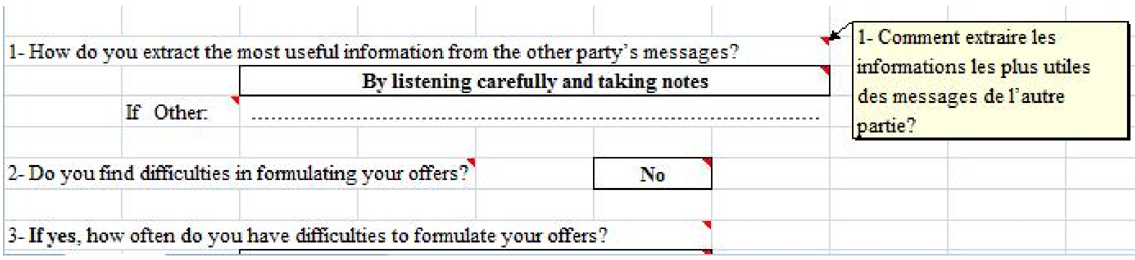
In ESP studies, Gu and Yang (2013, p. 67) propose four steps to conduct a NA study of a foreign language: (1) determining the investigate object, (2) designing the questionnaires, (3) collecting the materials, and (4) analyzing the information. Donald Ary *et al.* (2009, p. 379) suggest the use of interviews and questionnaires as techniques for data collection, of which the questions are sent to all the members of the sample group in charge of recording and returning responses. Similarly, Sonja Vandermeeren (2005, p. 166) considers the questionnaire as one of the many research techniques that can be used in investigations of language needs because it gives the researcher the opportunity to confront informants with open and closed questions.

The investigation technique used in this study was a structured questionnaire that was administered to 50 subjects to gather qualitative and quantitative data about their English language proficiency, learning experience, negotiation skills, and their familiarity with cultural differences in negotiation, to cite these only. This study attempted to assess their language lacks and wants to improve their business negotiation performance. Although a large number of informants were targeted, it was difficult to contact them directly because of their status and busy schedules. For this reason, the e-mailed questionnaire technique was used.

In general, the e-mailed questionnaire may have limitations, even though it guarantees confidentiality and sometimes elicits more truthful responses than would be obtained with a personal interview. For example, the questions may be misinterpreted because of the choice of vocabulary or the question formulation. Moreover, a low rate of answers can be returned in comparison to the number of subjects. In this sense, Vandermeeren (2005, p. 166) argues that sending questionnaires to companies requires a lot of persuasion, as the informants must be convinced to complete the questionnaire to increase the generally poor response rates. On the other hand, Christopher Boachie (2017, p. 340) , citing Dillman (2000), conceives electronic mail surveys to have both advantages and disadvantages. They ensure prompter returns of answers, fewer item non-responses, and more complete answers to open-ended questions. However, the researcher needs to have the email addresses of all the members of the target population.

Taking into account all these aspects and to avoid the problem of question misinterpretation and time consumption for responding and returning answers, the questionnaire was written in Excel c.xls format with a French version of each question. The translation into French appears once the respondent clicks on a red point at the corner of each column, as demonstrated in Figure 3.3. As mentioned beforehand, the questionnaire was sent to a large population of managers and executives, who were willing to participate in the data collection process. However, only 36 informants responded, the other participants have not returned their answers yet.

**Figure 3.3** Questionnaire sample indicating the French translation




The questionnaire comprises 30 questions varying from multiple choice, rating scale, open-ended, close-ended, and ranking questions *(see appendix 8, p. 274).* In addition to their easy scoring, these types of questions enable the researcher to obtain reliable and valid responses, thereby attaining the research objectives (Ekinci, 2015, p. 75). Thus, careful attention was paid to writing the questionnaire in a clear and simple form of language.

Close-ended questions with multiple-choice answers are known to be easy to complete because the respondent only has to select the appropriate answer. In addition, they help the researcher get an idea about the informants' knowledge, skill perception, and opinion (Barbazette, 2006, p. 44) . They also guarantee reliable answers, which relatively simplifies their analysis. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, are a means to obtain more elaborate and explicit answers, as respondents can answer in any manner they see appropriate, thereby resulting in more unexpected and insightful data (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 102). Yet, closed-item questions ensure a greater uniformity of measurement and, therefore, greater reliability.

Because of their easy and flexible analysis, rating-scale questions are the best choice when searching for the participants' attitudinal information (Brace, 2008, pp. 66-7) . Rating scales are the most popular items in research questionnaires (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, pp. 26-7) . Furthermore, they can be used for evaluation and measurement because they necessitate from the respondent to make an evaluative judgment of the target. Ranking questions, on the other hand, provide an idea about the informants' estimation of importance by ordering items according to their needs. Yet, they are not easy to process statistically (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 35). Except 'yes / no' and 'rating scales', the option 'Other' is added to the rest of questions as a space for reflection inviting the participants to add any new answers that do not appear in the list of choices. This option will help for the extraction of more valuable data.

The questionnaire covers topics about the participants' use of English in business negotiation including their knowledge of linguistic skills and nonlinguistic ones. Table 3.1.2 demonstrates the organization of the questions into six topics. Four topics wheel around the participants' present needs, whereas the two others around their target needs.

**Table 3.1.2** Questionnaire organization

| *Present situation needs analysis* | |
|---|---|
| **Thematic** | **Questions (from …. to ….)** |
| Knowledge of business negotiation language skills | From 1 to 12 |
| Knowledge of nonlinguistic skills | From 13 to 19 |
| Training experience as regards nonlinguistic skills | 20 |
| BE Learning experience | From 21 to 27 |
| ***Target situation needs analysis*** | |
| Informants' perception on receiving a BE course for business negotiations | 28 |
| BE Skills development for business negotiations | 29 and 30 |

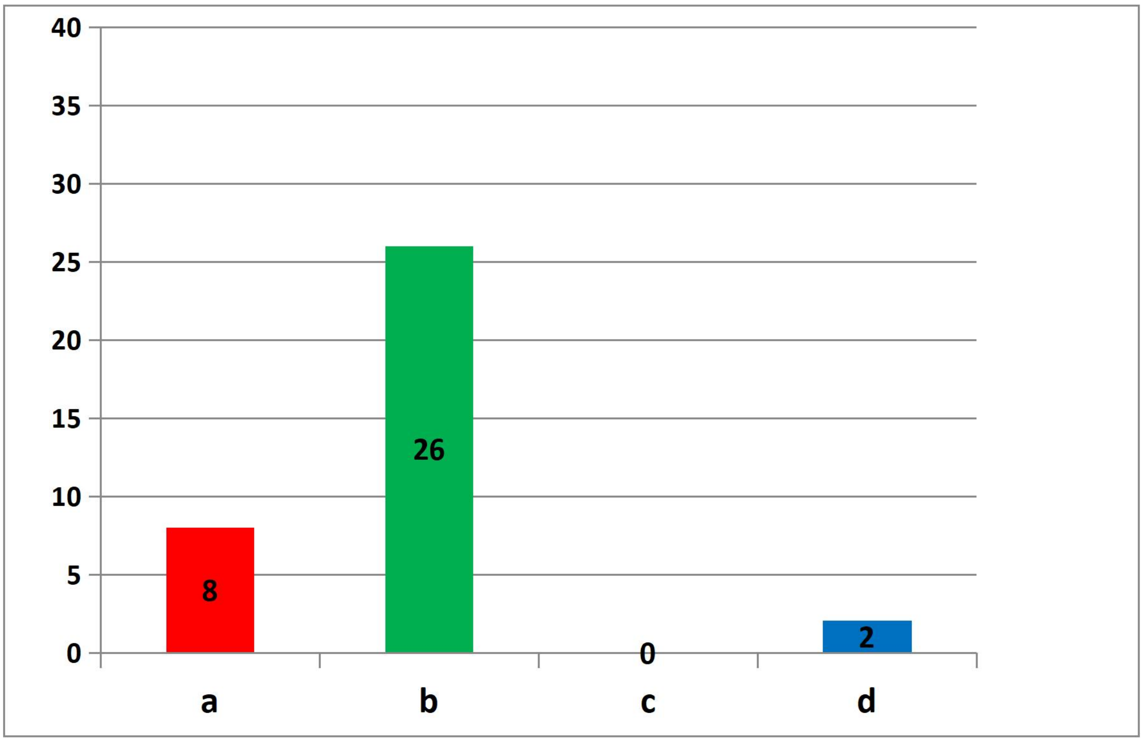
## 3.4 Results and Interpretation

In order to fully comprehend the patterns and themes that emerged from the responses of the 36 informants, it was necessary to read and analyze the results. This process involved identifying common trends and unique perspectives, which provided valuable insights into the research questions at hand. A combination of graphics and accompanying descriptions ensured a comprehensive and insightful analysis of the findings from the informants' answers. The pie charts provided a visual representation of the distribution of responses for the yes/no questions, allowing for a quick understanding of the overall trends. On the other hand, the bar graphs presented a more detailed analysis of the responses to other types of questions, displaying variations and patterns. Finally, the table format for the last question allowed for a comprehensive comparison of different categories or options chosen by the informants. To this end, the results are reported and organized into two parts: PSA and TSA.

### *3.4.1 Present Situation Needs Analysis*

This part involves the answers to twenty-seven questions. The findings are interpreted in fifteen bar graphs and twelve pie charts.

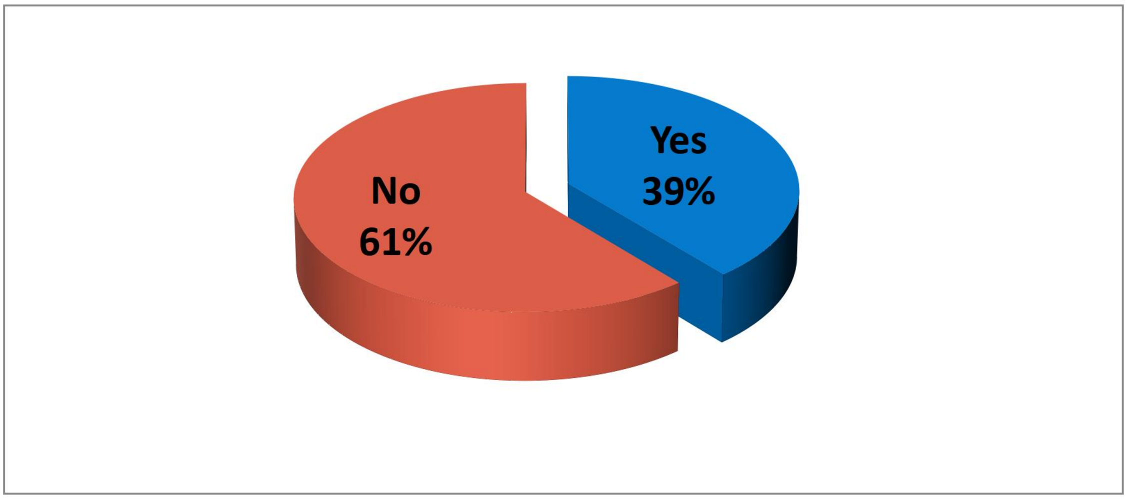
**Question 1:** How do you extract the most useful information from the other party's messages?




**Bar graph 3.1** the participants' choice of information extraction technique

Known to be important as a communication strategy, data extraction from the counterpart in business negotiations is assessed with this close-ended question offering a list of three answers and the option 'Other'. A majority of 26 informants selected answer **b** (*'by listening carefully and taking notes'*). This result provided evidence to their experience in business negotiations based on good listening skills. However, a small number informants (8) uses the asking question technique (**a-** *'by asking pertinent questions'*), which is another strategy that enables supplementary information retrieval to complete the collected data in the preparatory phase. Moreover, two participants chose the option 'Other', and wrote that they employ the three proposed techniques.

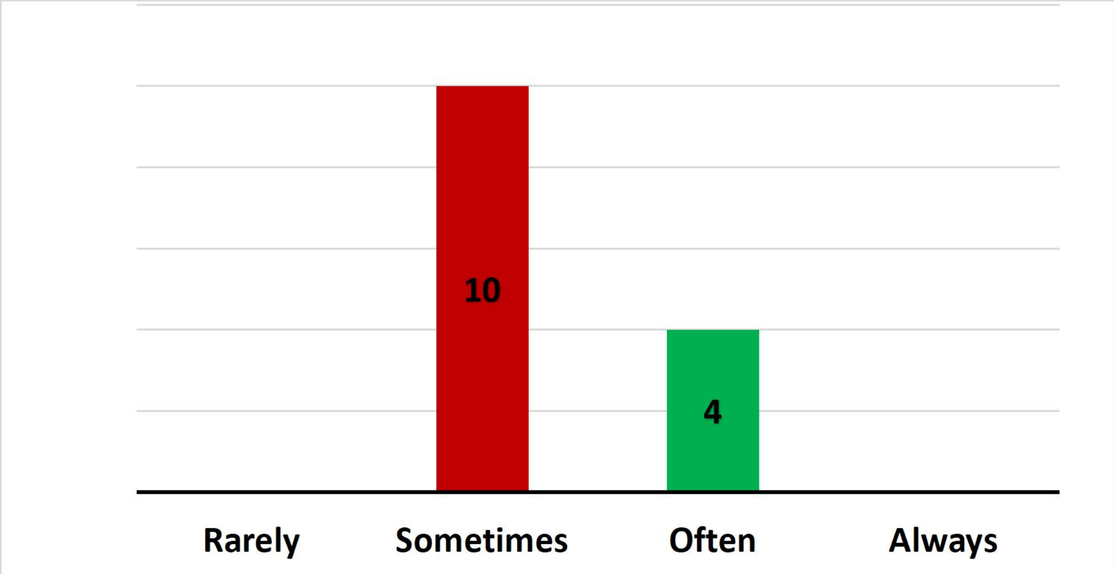
**Question 2:** Do you find difficulties in framing your offers in English?




**Pie chart 3.1.1** the rate of the participants' answer about difficulties to formulate offers

Known to be the basis of business negotiation success, the ability to make proposals and counterproposals appropriately in English is assessed in question two. The result demonstrates that the majority of participants, 22, do not have problems with this skill, while 14 do. The next question focuses on the fourteen informants to provide further explanations of this result.

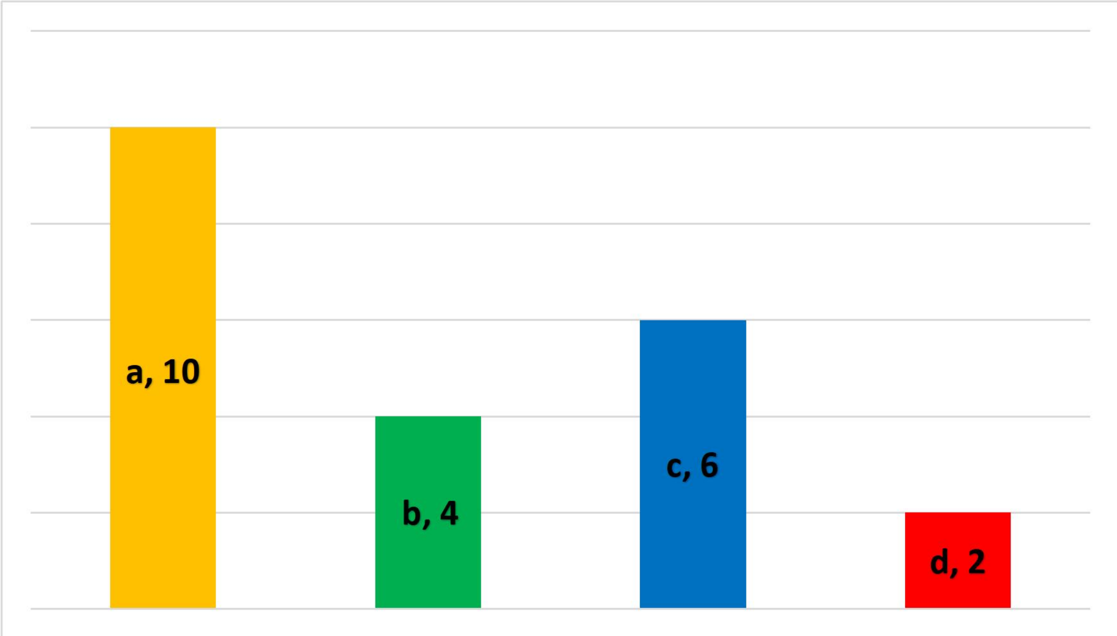
**Question 3:** If yes. How often do you have difficulties to formulate your offers in English?




**Bar graph 3.2** the respondents' frequency of difficulty in framing offers in English

It is clear that the ten informants, who sometimes cannot formulate their offers easily, are those who have an elementary level and lack general English language proficiency. Making offers in business negotiations requires the use of conditional sentences and modal verbs like 'could', 'would', or 'might' to express possibility or willingness. Additionally, improving general command of the English language will improve capacity to communicate effectively during these important discussions.

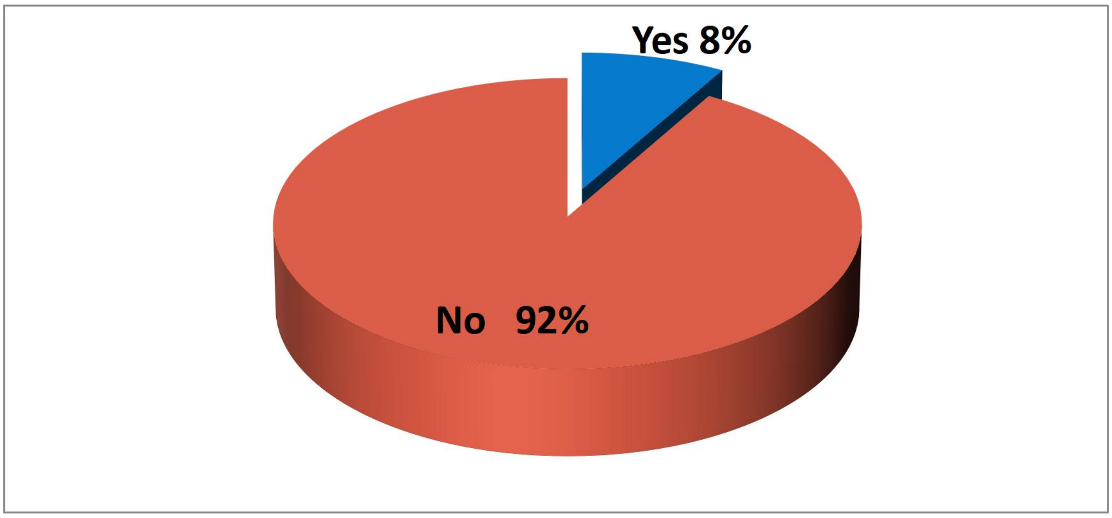
**Question 4:** If no. What sentence do you think best expresses an offer?




**Bar graph 3.3** the 22 respondents' sentence choice best expressing offer

Given a list of three proposals and the option 'Other', question 4 assesses the 22 participants' knowledge of how to express offers appropriately. It can be noticed that the 10 informants, who selected answer **a** ('*What if we agree to a two-year contract? Would you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory?'),* showed their preference to make a conditional proposal, which the other side can either accept, counter propose, or reject with no embarrassment. This gives the opportunity to make more conditional offers until a common agreement is attained. The other ten answers vary between **b** and **c** ('*We agree on a two-year contract except if you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory.' / 'If you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory, then, we agree on a two-year contract'*), and show that these respondents prefer to take a positioning bargaining approach. This decision, however, impedes the negotiation and leads to failure to produce a wise agreement. Two participants selected the option "Other" and proposed the following forms: (1) '*we expect you give us an exclusive distribution rights in your territory',* and (2) 'we *present to you our most competitive conditions against exclusive distribution rights from your part'.* Although these answers lack the conditional sentence form, they are similar to **b** and **c**. Moreover, the use of the verb '*to expect*' means that they do not give the other side the opportunity to explore other possibilities. Unfortunately, this may lead to a deadlock.

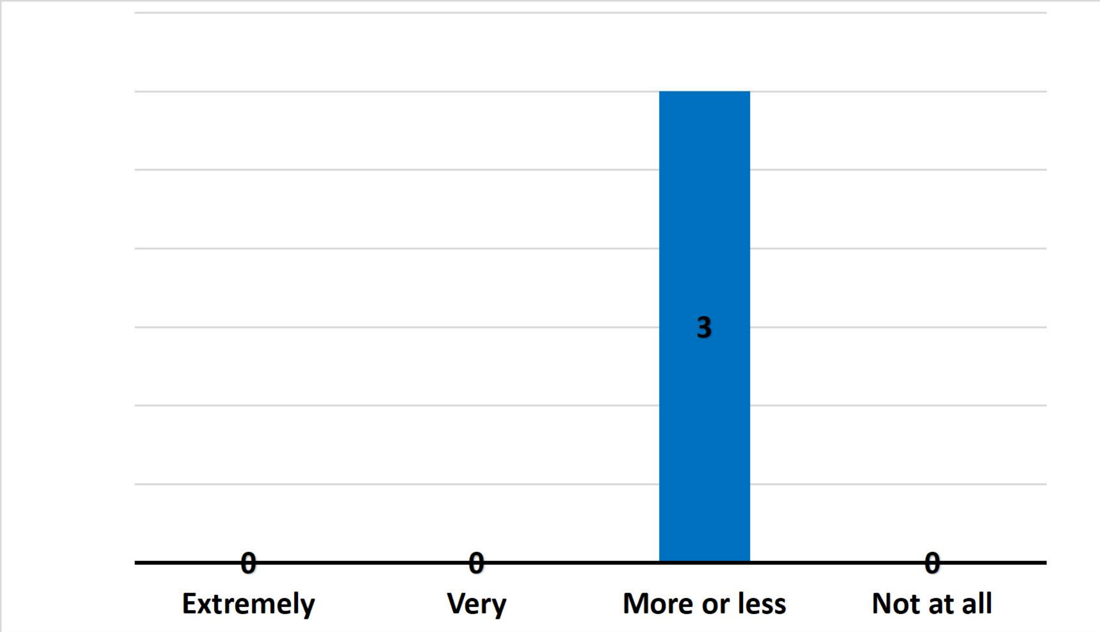
**Question 5:** Do you find difficulties in expressing disagreement appropriately without offending the other party?




**Pie chart 3.1.2** the rate of the 36 respondents if having difficulties to express disagreement appropriately

Question 5 also assesses the respondents' linguistic competence and negotiation skills. The result shows that almost all the participants (33) do not encounter any difficulty expressing disagreement without offending the other party. The answers to the next question provide further details about the three participants who have difficulties with this skill.

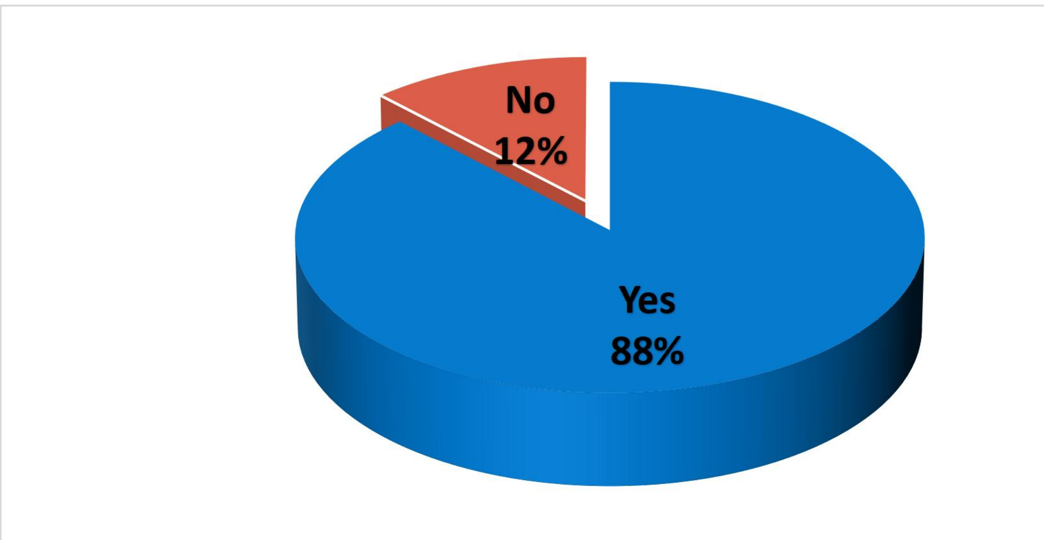
**Question 6:** If yes. To which extent do you find it difficult?




**Bar graph 3.4** the frequency rate of difficulty to express disagreement

From the three participants' answers to question six, it is understood that the difficulties are not encountered all the time. These respondents certainly have a lower level of English compared to the others. The next question is addressed to the thirty-three informants who believe they are able to express disagreement appropriately.

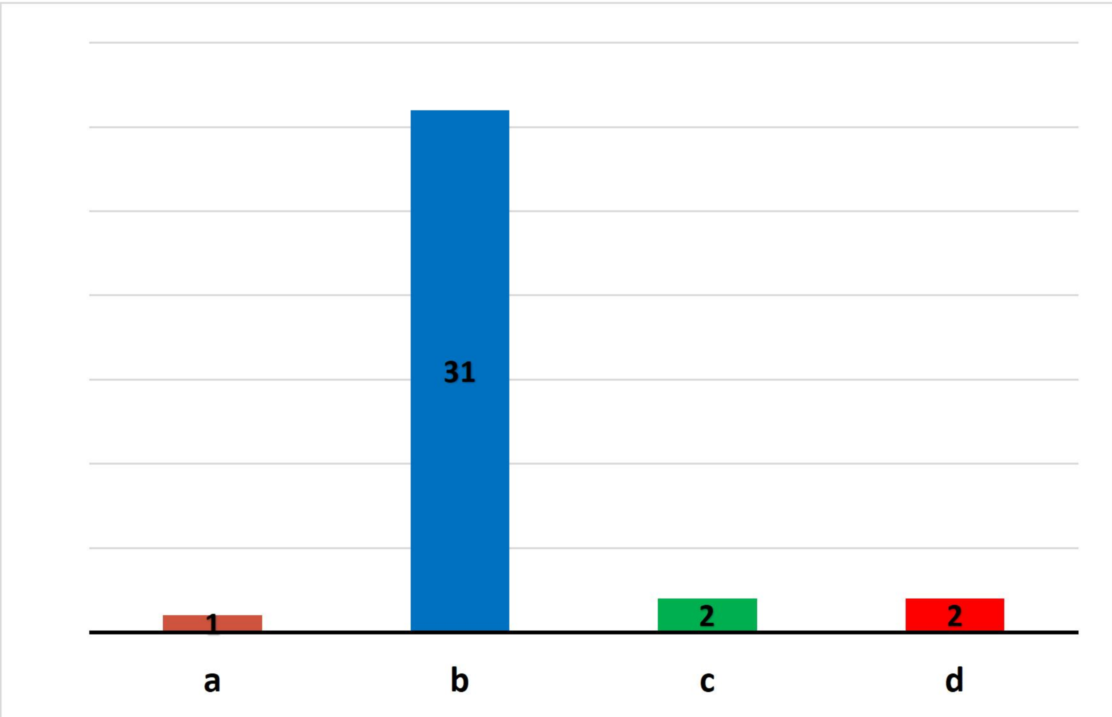
**Question 7:** If no. Do you express disagreement openly?




**Pie chart 3.1.3** the respondents' rate to express disagreement openly

Question 7 addresses the assertiveness of the 33 participants. Another important language skill in business negotiations. The results revealed that a significant number possess the ability to express feelings, ideas, and opinions in an open and confident way. They are able to show respect for the other party's opinions and ideas and make their own views clear and voices heard without losing their temper. Yet, four informants said they prefer to hint at disagreement rather than do it explicitly.

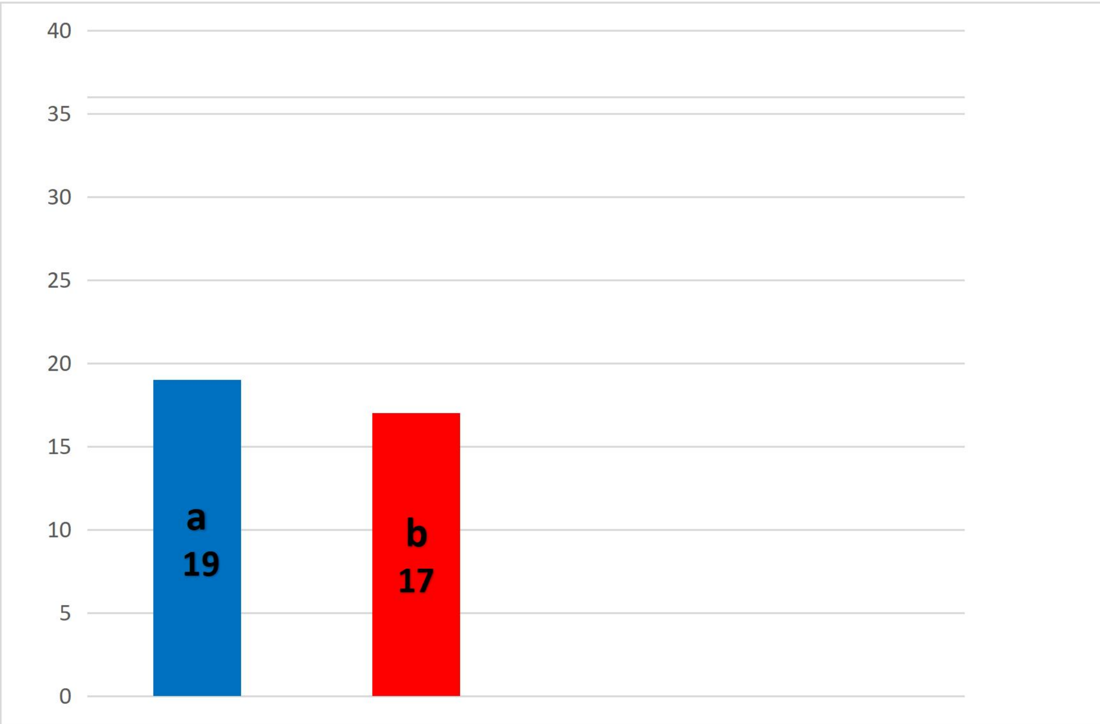
**Question 8:** How would you hint at your disagreement if you did not want to express it openly?




**Bar graph 3.5** the respondents' rate of choice to hint at a disagreement

This multi-choice question intends to assess the 36 participants' communication strategy for suggesting disagreement implicitly. The 31 respondents, who chose answer **b** (*'by a verbal signal such as "Ok, let's review our discussion points'),* expressed their preference for verbal signal usage. Skilled negotiators use this strategy to ensure a clear understanding. However, three participants selected answers **a** and **c** to express their preference for body language use (**a-** 'by *a gesture of body movement', and* **c-** '*by raising your tone of voice'*). This depends on the type of business negotiations they are embarking on. Generally, the use of only non-verbal language to hint at a disagreement may negatively affect the ongoing negotiating process. Moreover, two participants selected the option 'Other' and provided the following answers: (1) '*we regret to be unable to respond your request*', and (2) '*by clearly clarifying the disagreement issues'*. These answers are an explicit way to express disagreement, and not an indication.

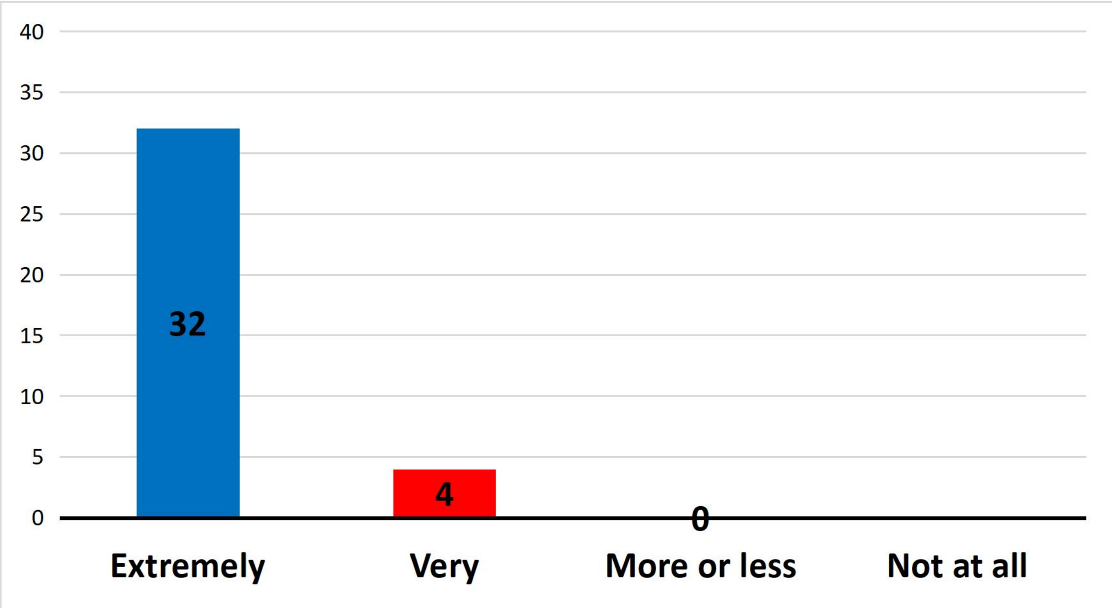
**Question 9:** Which sentence do you think best expresses a disagreement resolution?




**Bar graph 3.6** the respondents' choice rate of the best sentence expressing disagreement resolution

Question 9 also follows the purpose of the preceding questions in assessing the respondents' knowledge of appropriate language pattern to express disagreement. The result reveals that there is a minor difference in the rate as regards an important skill in business negotiations. Nineteen participants use assertive language against seventeen, who tend to use a weak, or blunt language. According to the literature, the experienced negotiator does not set the negotiation objectives within a fixed point, and what is called a below-average negotiator uses weak language.

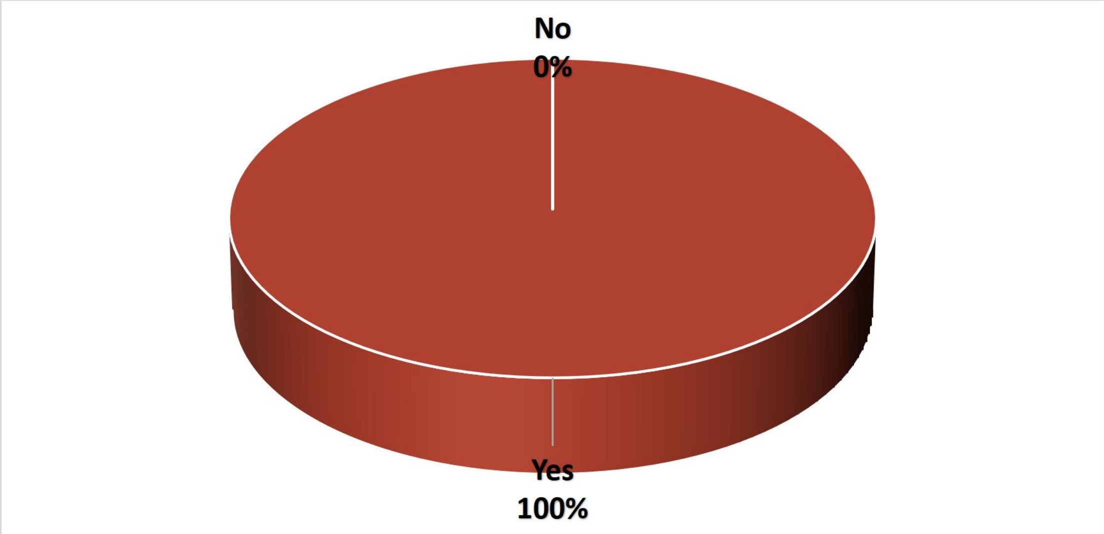
**Question 10:** How important do you think clear understanding should be ensured between parties?




**Bar graph 3.7** the rate of the participants' attitude towards ensuring clear understanding

Question 10 attempts to assess the informants' attitudes towards the third important skill in business negotiations: ensuring clear understanding. The result of this question indicates that all the participants bear in mind the importance of maintaining clear communication and avoiding potential conflicts. The findings from questions 11 and 12 shed light on the participants' proficiency in resolving any misunderstandings or misinterpretations that may arise during business negotiations.

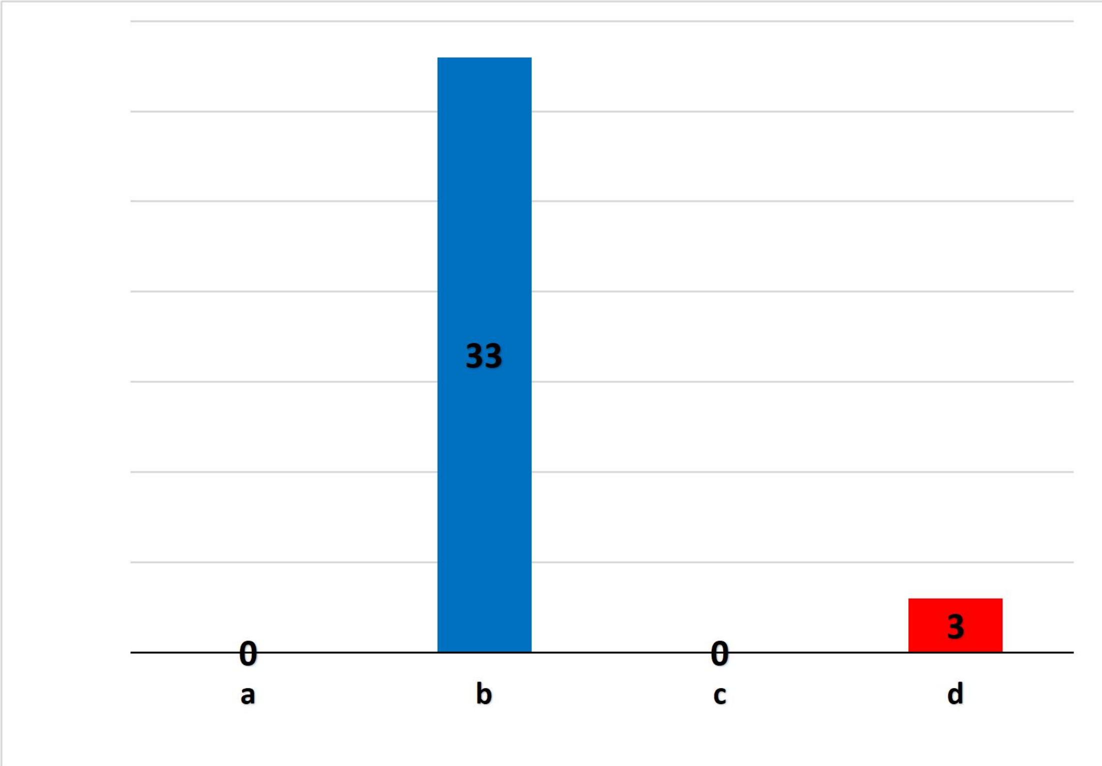
**Question 11:** Do you use techniques to avoid misunderstandings?




**Pie chart 3.1.4** the rate of the respondents' answer for ensuring clear understanding

The findings from question 11 demonstrate that all the informants use communication strategies to avoid the problem of misunderstanding. By using communication strategies, such as active listening, paraphrasing, and seeking clarification, negotiators can ensure that their message is accurately understood by the other party. This, in fact, reduces the chances of misinterpretation or confusion. Additionally, appropriate language use to prevent misunderstandings is one of the fundamental skills of business negotiations.

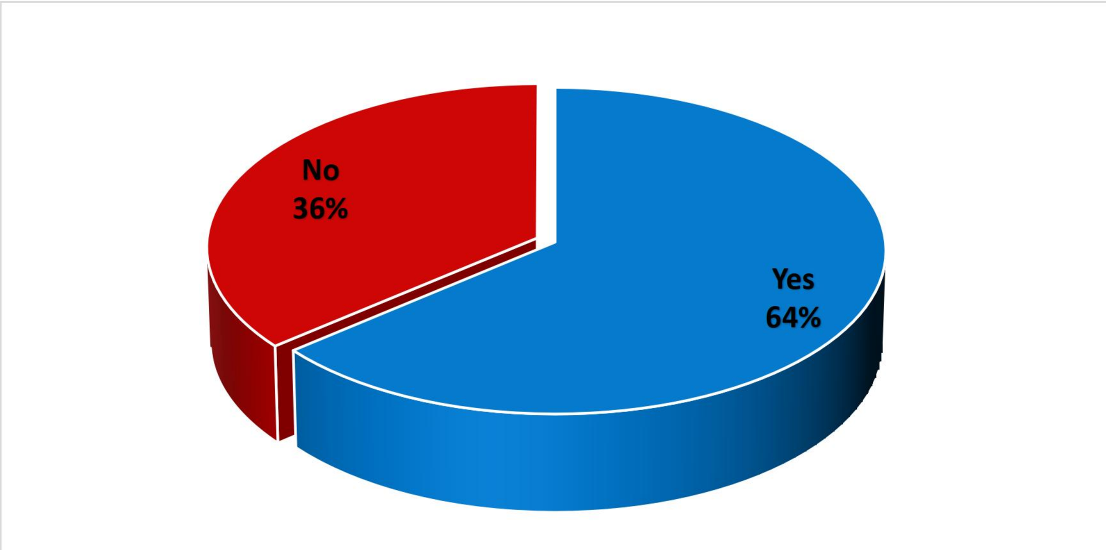
**Question 12:** How do you show the other party that you have clearly understood the message?




**Bar graph 3.8** the rate of the respondents' choice about misunderstanding settlement strategy

By offering three communication strategies to solve misunderstandings and misinterpretations besides the option 'Other', the findings from question 12 demonstrate that 33 participants selected answer **b** ('By repeating his statement, such as *"If I understand you correctly, what you are really saying is …'*). This choice reflects their use of restating, rephrasing, reframing, and summarizing techniques. In other words, they prefer to implicitly invite the other side to give other explanations or continue talking. Three informants, on the other hand, chose the option 'Other' and wrote the following: **(1)** *"We take note of your message and will come back to you with our response"*, **(2)** "*OK, it's perfect*", and **(3)** "*Right, everything is clear then*". It is clear that the respondents prefer the avoidance strategy instead of solving the problem. However, answers **a** and **c** (i.e., '*By using a body movement, such as thumb finger to the top or head nodding'*, and '*You do not think you need to show it'*) are inappropriate because they lead to communication deadlock. These attitudes convey the same meaning as the responses proposed by the three participants.

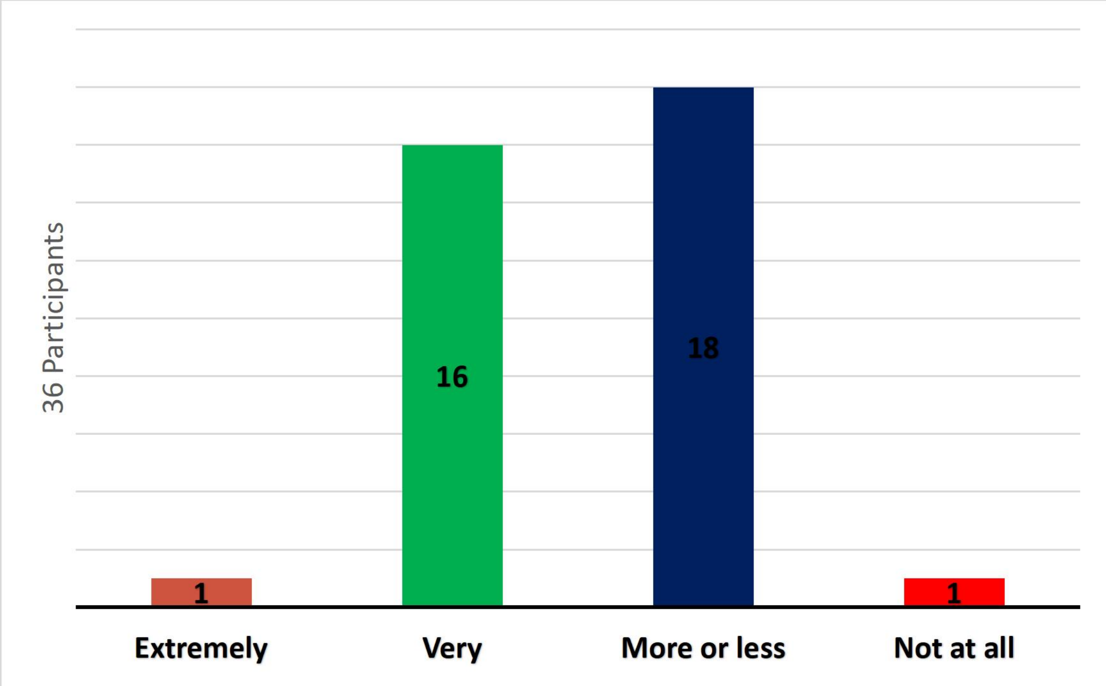
**Question 13:** Do you think about the cultural issues that may affect business relationships before receiving partners from a foreign country or before travelling abroad to meet them?




**Pie chart 3.1.5** the rate of the participants' attitudes towards cultural issues

The preceding questions focused on gathering information on the target population's linguistic competence. Question 13, however, addresses the 36 participants' intercultural competence and the importance of relationship building in business. The findings from this question show that 23 informants cared for the cultural orientation of the other party before meeting in the boardroom, compared to 13 who expressed their disinterest in this issue. The following questions attest to the evidence of their responses.

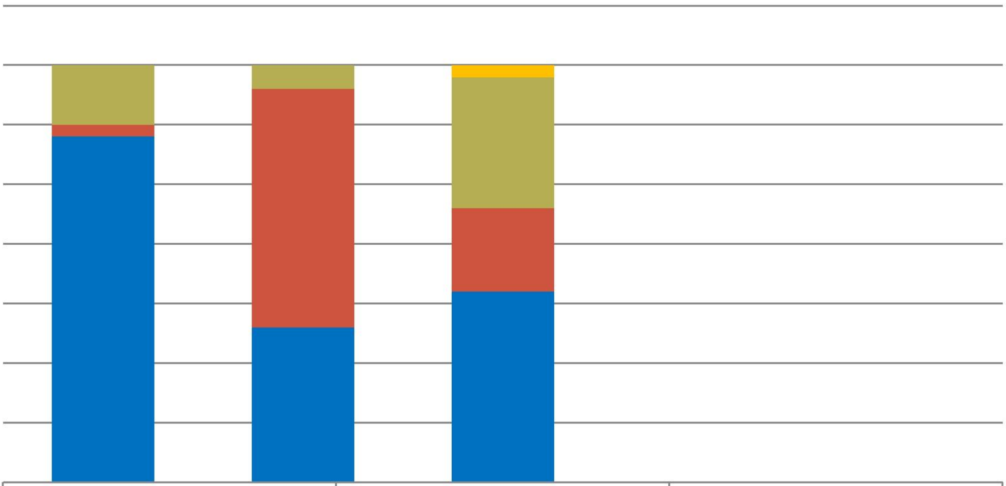
**Question 14:** To which extent do you think body language is important in business negotiations?




**Bar graph 3.9** the participants' attitude towards body language importance

Question 14 intends to know the 36 participants' frequency of interest as regards body language in business negotiations. Although 23 informants expressed a positive concern for cultural differences in the preceding question, opinions completely diverged in this one. These opinions are split into three types: neutral or uncertain (18 informants), worthy (17 participants), and insignificant (1 informant). Further details are provided in the next question. The 18 informants, who believe that body language is more or less important, might deal with a different type of business negotiation compared to others. One can cite the CDS and sales companies, for instance.

**Question 15:** You are discussing the terms of a proposed contract with the Chinese. How would you interpret these behaviors?

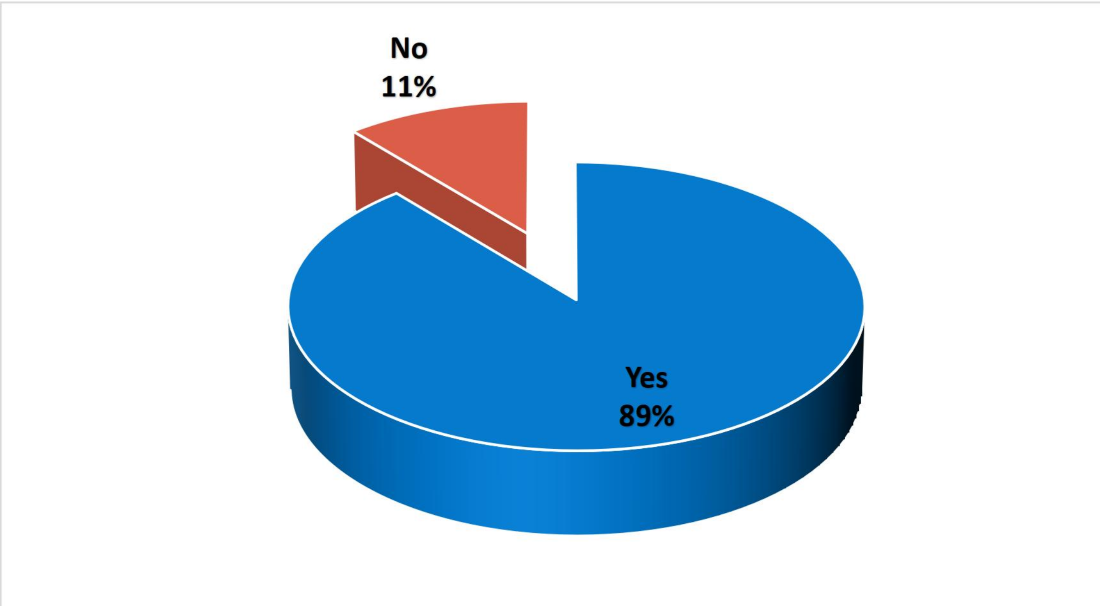


| | Eyes widening | Head nodding | Laughter |
|---|---|---|---|
| d | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| c | 5 | 2 | 11 |
| b | 1 | 20 | 7 |
| a | 29 | 13 | 16 |

**Bar graph 3.10** the respondents' interpretation of three body language examples

By presenting three different examples of behaviors that belong to Chinese culture, the 36 respondents' ability to read body language was assessed in question 15. The results show that by choosing **a** ('*an expression of astonishment*'), a large number of informants misinterpreted 'eyes widening'. Except for five participants, who, by choosing answer **c** ('*a politely expressed anger*'), succeeded to read correctly this nonlinguistic expression. As a sign of politeness and respect, the Chinese people avoid long, direct eye contact. This behavior can also mean interest, friendship, or confidence. Additionally, the majority of participants succeeded in quoting the right interpretations of 'head nodding', which are **a** and **b**, '*an expression of clear understanding*' and *'an expression of agreement or disagreement'*, respectively. For 'the laughter', only 11 participants were able to quote the right answer **c**, which signals an embarrassment response to show that you do not understand the other party's point or simply do not want to reply. Yet a higher number, accounting for 16 informants, consider this behavior a sign of agreement, while one participant perceives it as a sign of disrespect. One participant, who views this skill as not at all important in business negotiations, did not provide answers. These findings reflect the informants' lack of body language interpretation knowledge.

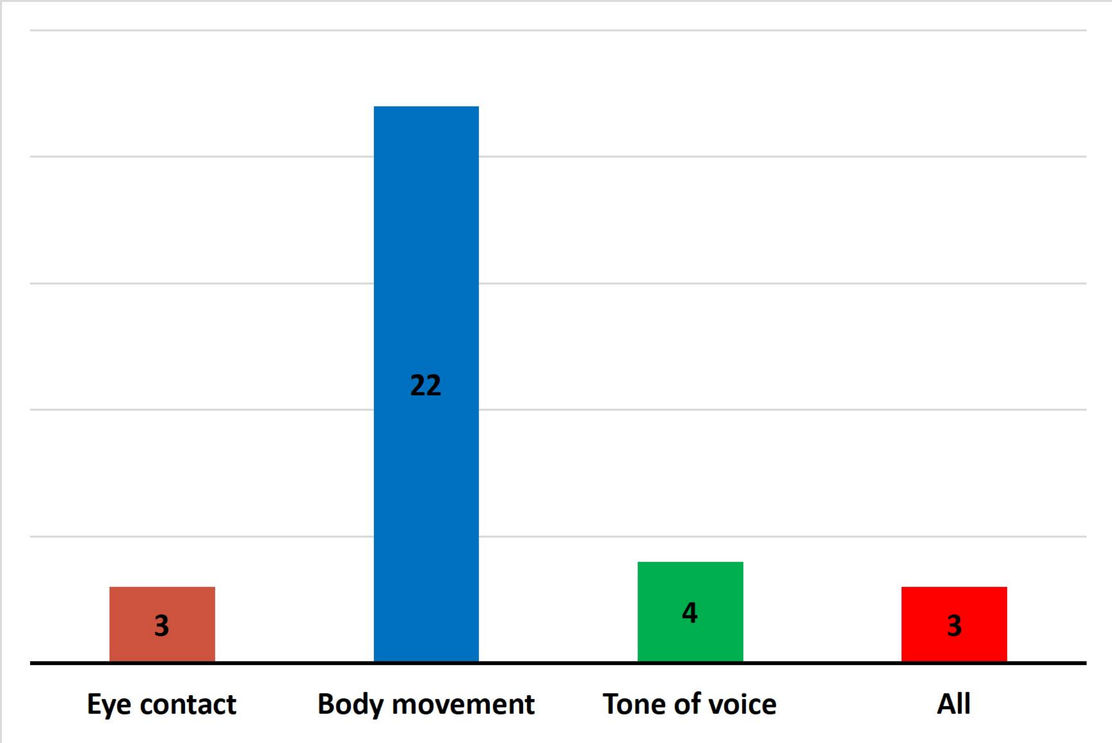
**Question 16:** Do you use non-verbal language to communicate a message (e.g., disagreement, refusal or disinterest) to the other party?




**Pie chart 3.1.6** the rate of the participants' of non-verbal communication use

Similar to the preceding questions, question 16 assesses the 36 participants' knowledge of non-linguistic skills. The result indicates that a significant number of respondents, accounting for 32, are aware of the use of non-verbal communication strategies to convey a message to the other party. The next questions provide further information on their use.

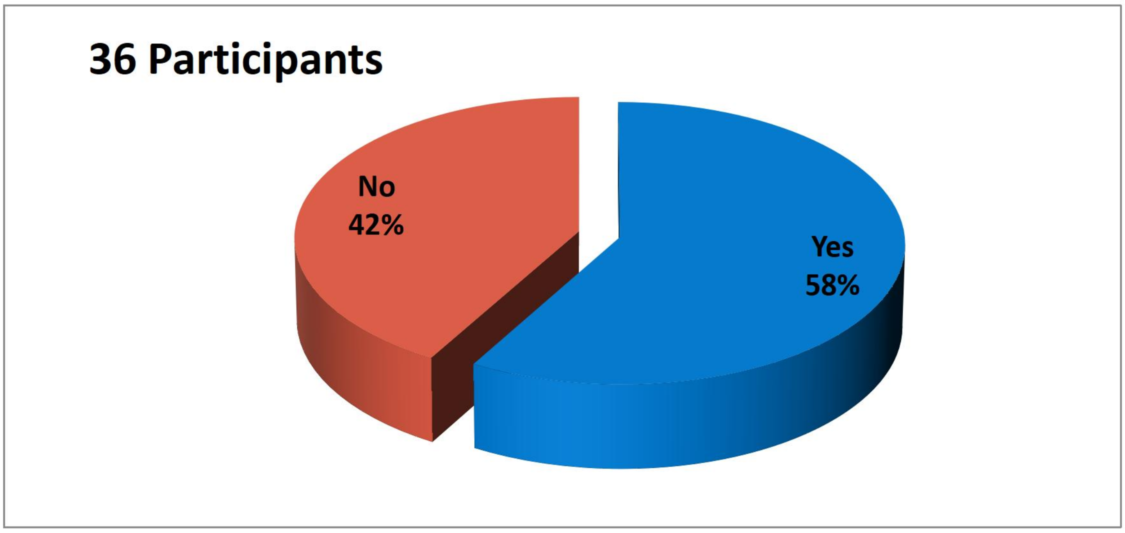
**Question 17:** What kind of non-verbal language do you use?




**Bar graph 3.11** the participants' choice of non-verbal communication techniques

Covering the same topic as the three preceding questions, the result of question 17 shows that the majority of participants (22) use body movement for expressing disagreement, refusal, or disinterest, compared to a minority between 4 and 3 informants, who prefer tone of voice and eye contact. In business negotiations, when one party wants to convey the aforementioned communicative messages, a body movement is used to reinforce the verbal signal. Moreover, four participants wrote that they do not use body language at all. As previously mentioned, some participants' answers are provided in relation to the type of business negotiations they deal with. It is interesting to notice that four other participants use all the techniques. These participants might have learned over time that incorporating body language in business negotiations can greatly enhance their communication effectiveness.

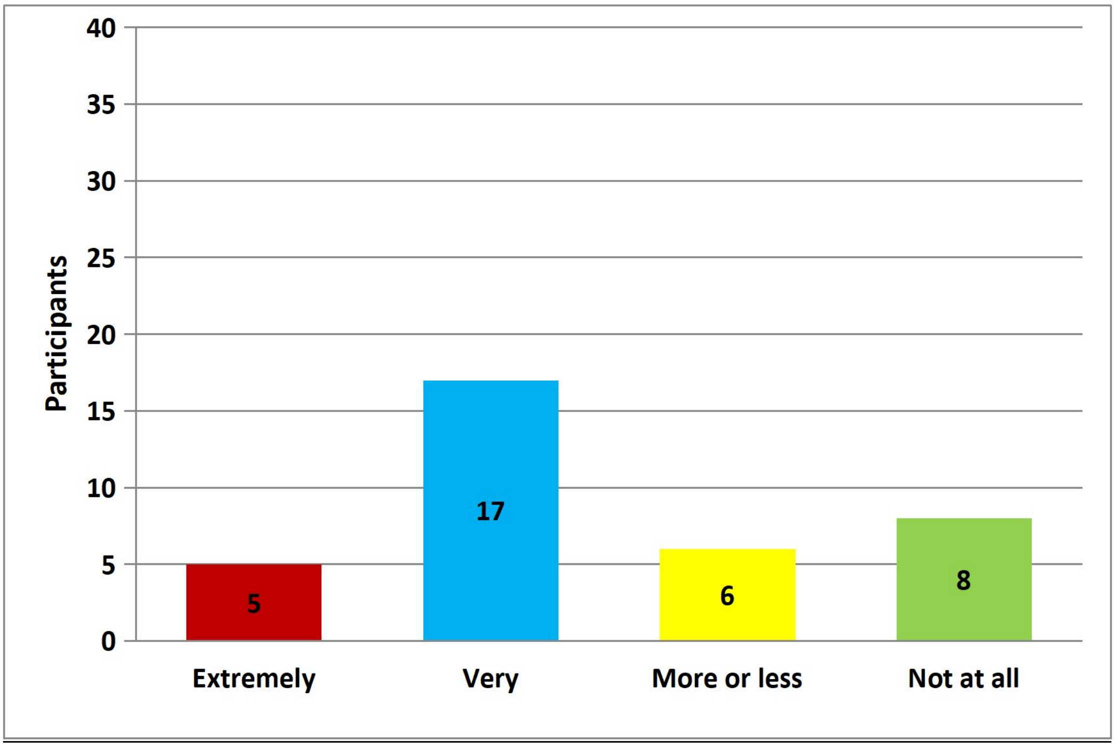
**Question 18:** Do you think that cultural differences can affect business partnership?




**Pie chart 3.1.7** the rate of the participants' opinion about cultural difference effect on business relationships

It is worth considering that cultural differences may also play a role in the varying use of body language among participants, as different cultures may have distinct norms and expectations regarding nonverbal communication in business settings. Although the rates are to some extent similar, the results of question 18 confirm some participants' ignorance of the impact of cultural variations on business relationships. This actually explains their misreading of body language and the disregard they showed for non-linguistic abilities. This suggests that a sizable portion of participants lack intercultural competence.

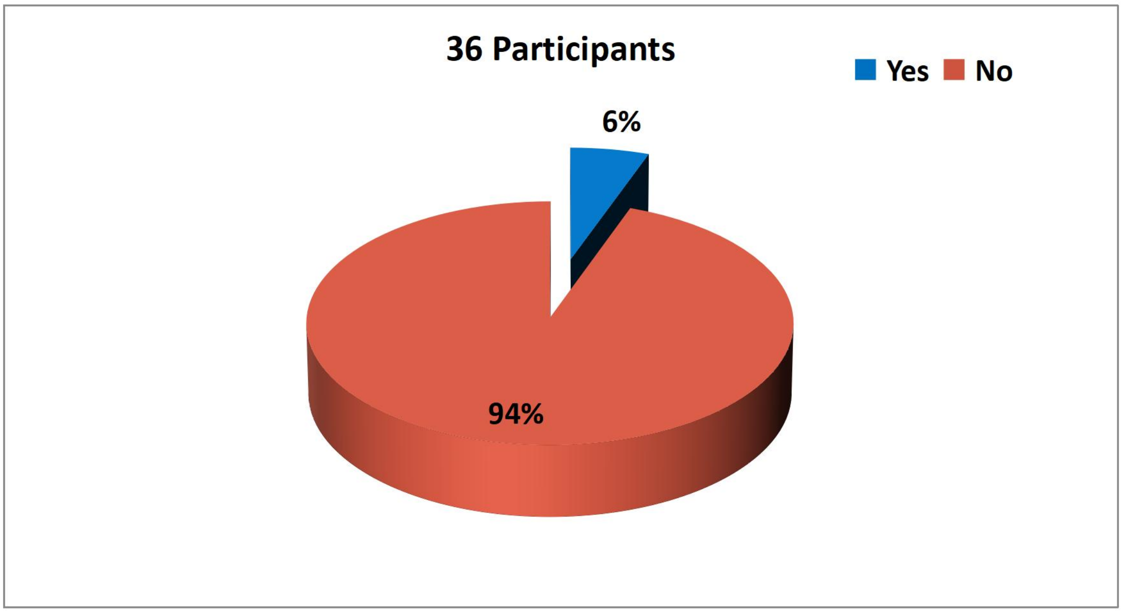
**Question 19:** To which extent do you think knowledge of verbal and non-verbal language is important in business negotiations?




**Bar graph 3.12** the rate of the participants' opinion about verbal and non-verbal language importance

By asking question 19, the researcher aimed to gain insights into the participants' perceptions of negotiators' abilities in both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of business negotiations. This information can help identify areas where ESBP learners may require further support or training to improve their skills in this crucial area of business communication. It is interesting to notice the decrease in the number of participants who answered that body language and use of nonverbal communication skills were more, less, or not at all important in the preceding questions. This decrease in the number of participants suggests that the questionnaire has successfully brought attention to the significance of body language and nonverbal communication skills in business negotiations. It is possible that the informants now recognize the impact these factors have on successful negotiations, leading to a shift in their perspectives.

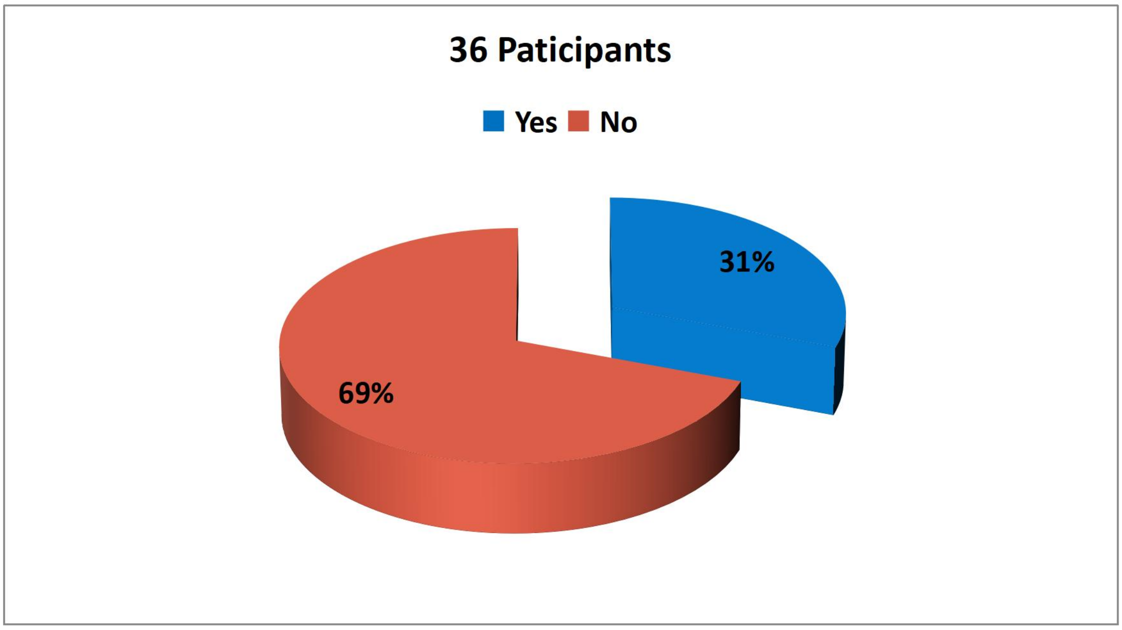
**Question 20:** Have you ever received a course on using and interpreting body language?




**Pie chart 3.1.8** the rate of participants' answers towards body language learning experience

The findings from question 20 highlight the importance of providing training on body language and intercultural communication to enhance the participants' understanding and effectiveness in cross-cultural interactions. The result shows that almost all the participants have never received any courses on how to use and interpret body language; only two did. These participants are general managers at SONATRACH. Again, these findings justify some participants' lack of intercultural knowledge through their misinterpretation of body language examples in question 15 and their disinterest regarding the other party's cultural orientation, expressed through their answers to questions 16, 17, 18 and, 19.

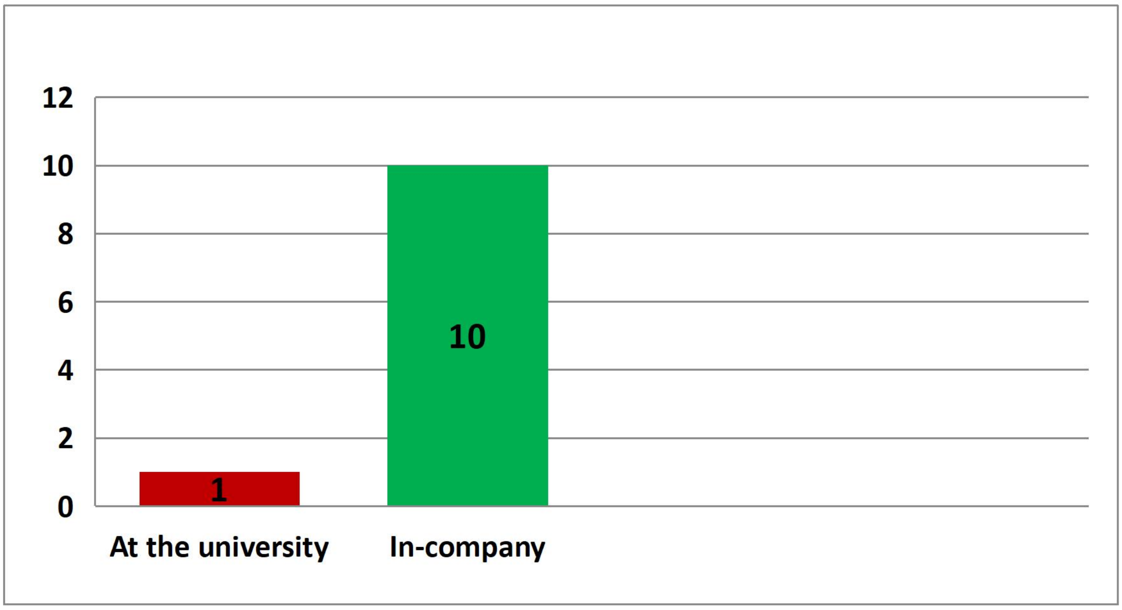
**Question 21:** Have you ever received a BE course?




**Pie chart 3.1.9** the rate of the participants about their BE learning experience

Question 21 attempts to collect information on the respondents' BE learning experience. The result indicates that 25 did not receive BE courses during their careers, which suggests a potential gap in their language skills and knowledge. Only eleven respondents answered positively, indicating a smaller percentage of individuals who have received formal BE training. The next questions aim to gather more specific data about the place and duration of the BE course that was provided to them, allowing for a deeper understanding of their learning experiences.

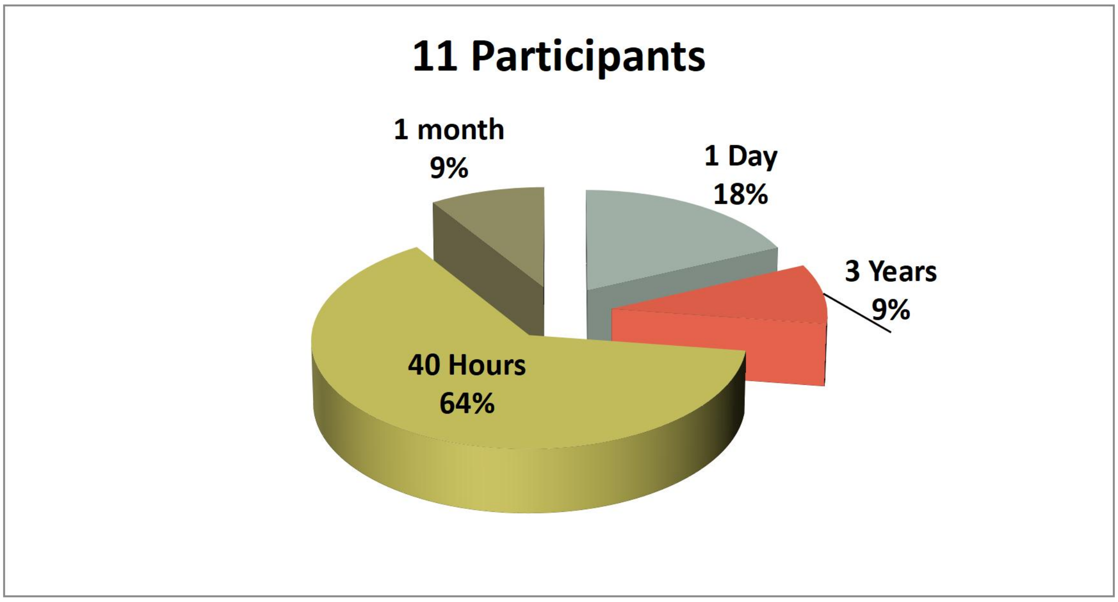
**Question 22:** If yes. Where did you receive your BE course?




**Bar graph 3.13** the participants' BE course learning context

The findings from question 22 demonstrate the importance of language workplace training to foster workers' knowledge and skills. One participant responded 'at the university' in relation to his business management graduation studies.

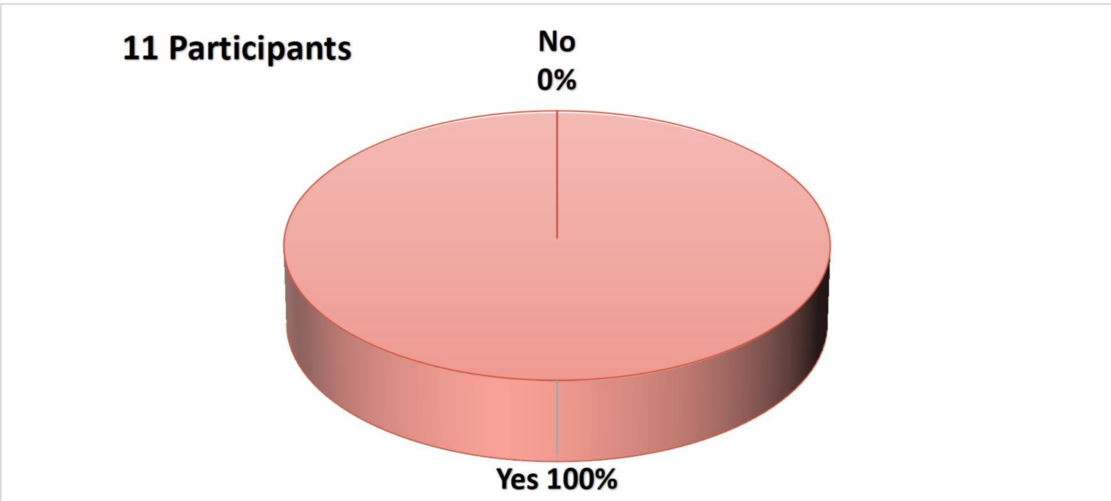
**Question 23:** Would you please mention the course period?




**Pie chart 3.1.10** the respondents' BE course period

As regards the in-company training, the findings show that a one-day BE course was afforded to the two PPG sales managers in the UK to explain the company's work requirements. It is clear that this course has more or less been a workshop. Seven participants from SONATRACH also carried out an intensive 40-hour course to complete one Market Leader level program. In addition, there are two participants: one is a CDS project manager who received a one-month course in the UK; the other, who graduated in management, actually works for TMM Algeria. This participant has studied BE for three years.

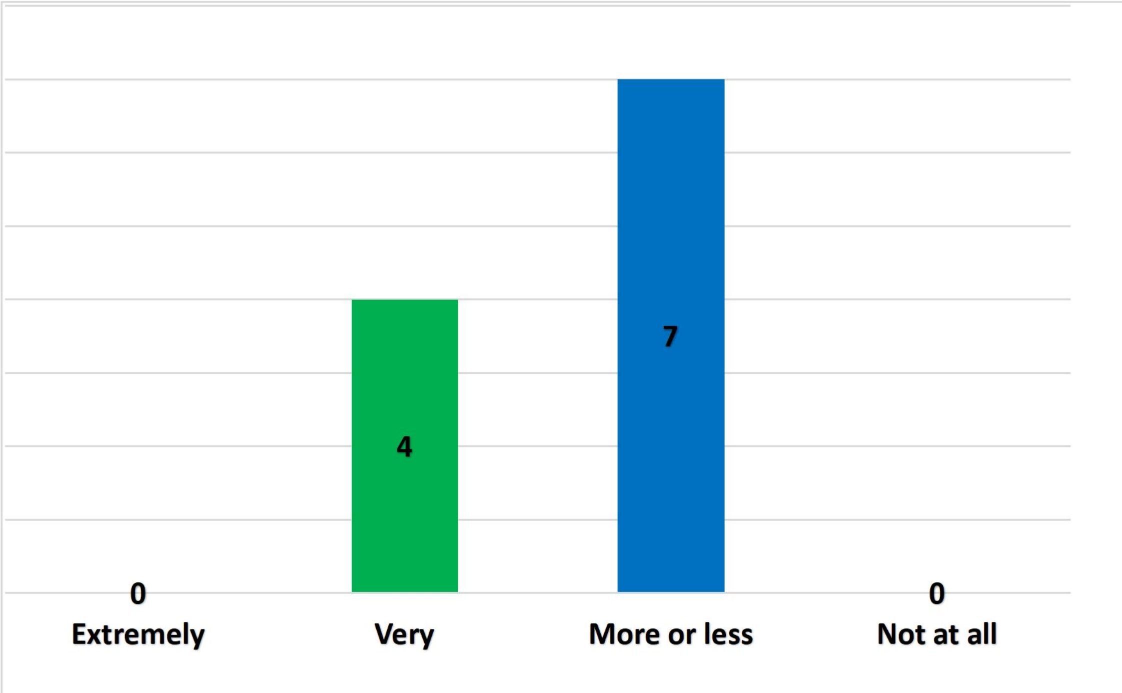
**Question 24:** Has the course been useful in your career?




**Pie chart 3.1.11** the respondents' opinion towards the BE course

Obviously, the 11 participants were satisfied with their BE learning experience and its profitability at the professional level. Thus, they attest to the evidence as to the importance of receiving workplace language training. Indeed, their knowledge and experience were shown throughout their answers. However, the assessment of their degree of satisfaction is worth the reliability of their answers.

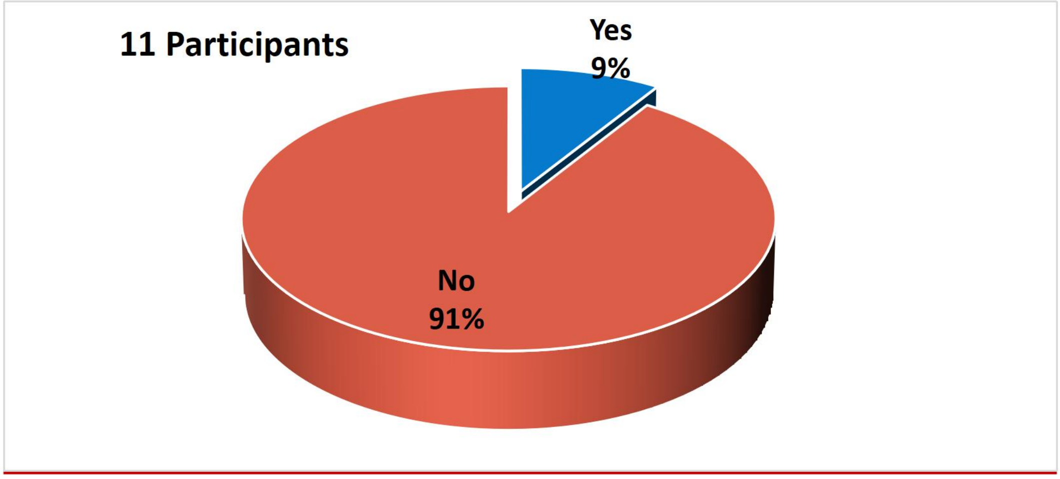
**Question 25:** If yes. To which extent has the BE course been useful?




**Bar graph 3.14** the 11 participants' frequency of satisfaction

The findings from question 25 demonstrate that 7 participants do not share the same perspective and believe they need to improve their BE knowledge and skills, with the exception of the two PPG sales managers, the CDS project manager, and the top executive from SONATRACH. These four respondents were quite satisfied with the profitability of their BE training.

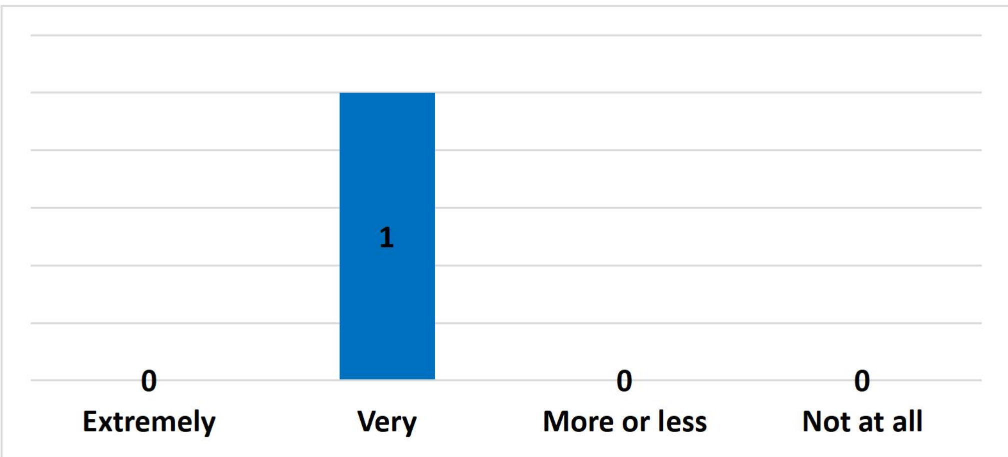
**Question 26:** Did the course train you on how to negotiate successfully in English?




**Pie chart 3.1.12** the rate of the participants' answer about negotiation language skills training

Question 26 highlights the eleven participants' BE learning experience for specific purposes. The result demonstrated that only one informant had taken a business negotiation language course. This is the CDS project manager who received a BE course for one month in the UK. Additionally, the courses received by the rest of the respondents were mainly based on general BE.

**Question 27:** If yes. To which extent did the course help you become efficient in negotiations?



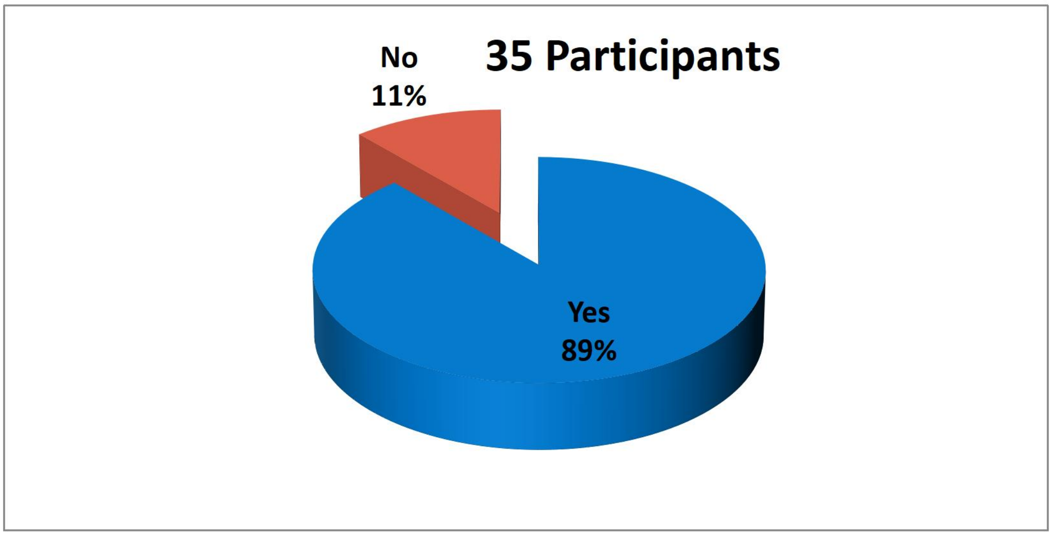

**Bar graph 3.15** the rate of the participant's frequency about BE course utility

Obviously, the course in business negotiation language provided the project manager with valuable insights into communication strategies and cultural awareness, allowing him to undertake international business negotiations with confidence. Overall, the results of this research highlight the tangible benefits of investing in language and communication training for professionals in global business settings.

## 3.4.2 Target Situation Needs Analysis

After the assessment of the 36 participants' present needs, the target needs are addressed through three questions, of which the findings are illustrated in a pie chart, bar graph, and table.

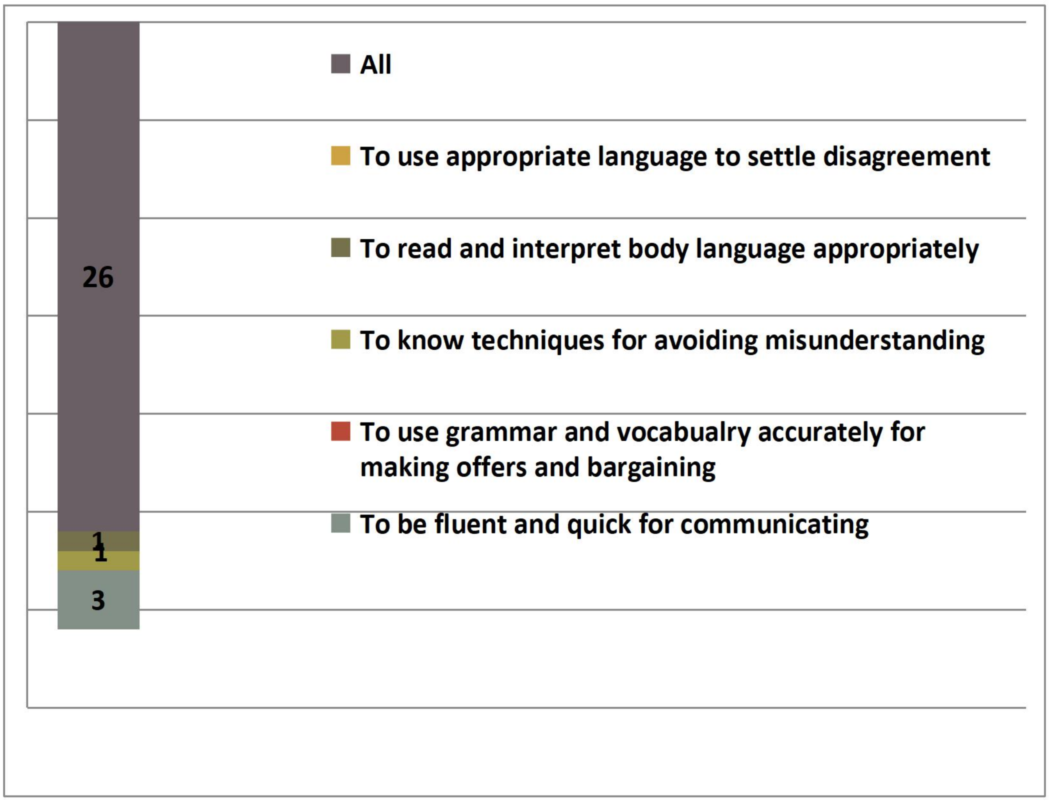
**Question 28:** If no. Do you think that receiving a course on how to negotiate effectively in English will be useful in your situation?




**Pie chart 3.1.13** the rate of the respondents' attitude towards receiving a BE course for negotiating

Question 28 was addressed to 35 participants, comprising 25 and 10 who had no prior experience with BE or negotiation language learning, respectively. The result indicates that the majority, 31, want to take a course on how to negotiate effectively in English. Four respondents, a minority, feel that their situation does not call for this type of training. They believe that experience, not a language course, may be used to strengthen one's negotiation skills.

**Question 29:** If yes. What competencies do you think you need to develop to negotiate successfully in English?




**Bar graph 3.16** the rate of the respondents' answer about their target needs

Question 29 targets the abilities the 31 participants need to develop in the business negotiation language course. These skills include not only fluency in the language used during negotiations but also the ability to understand and interpret nonverbal clues such as body language and facial expressions, adjust to different cultural contexts, and effectively persuade and influence the other side. Additionally, participants should develop effective listening skills to comprehend the other party's needs and concerns. The result indicates that 26 participants, or a majority, need to improve their language and nonlinguistic communication abilities in order to become more effective negotiators.

**Question 30:** From **1** to **5**, how would you order these skills from the most to the least you need to develop?

Analyzing the results of question 30 can provide valuable insights into the skills that respondents prioritize for developing language proficiency and enhancing their business negotiation abilities. However, only 30 participants answered this question. The result is summarized in Table 3.1.3. As the first position, **'a'** was selected by the greatest number of informants (10), followed by **'b'** (9), **'e'** (14),**'d'** (12), and **'c'** (24). It is clear that priority is given to the development of linguistic skills, including speaking, listening, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

**Table 3.1.3** the participants' ranking of the abilities they want to develop

| | | **1st** | **2nd** | **3rd** | **4th** | **5th** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **a-** | **To be fluent and quick for communicating** | **10** | 9 | 3 | 5 | 3 |
| **b-** | **To use grammar and vocabulary accurately for making offers and bargaining** | **9** | 4 | 9 | 6 | 2 |
| **c-** | **To know techniques for avoiding misunderstanding** | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | **24** |
| **d-** | **To read and interpret body language appropriately** | 7 | 8 | 3 | **12** | 0 |
| **e-** | **To use appropriate language to settle disagreement** | 2 | 7 | **14** | 6 | 1 |

After the completion of reporting the informants' answers, it is worth discussing the findings. This discussion allows for a deeper understanding of the collected data and provides an opportunity to analyze and summarize the results obtained from the scoring of the answers. Furthermore, it enables the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions and make suggestions based on these findings.

## 3.5 Analysis and Discussion

In line with the research questions of the current study, the questionnaire covered topics on the linguistic and nonlinguistic skills required in business negotiations, including active listening, asking questions, ensuring clear understanding, bargaining, and body language use and interpretation. The questions aimed to assess the participants' language proficiency and emphasize the difficulties they encounter when negotiating in English.

The survey revealed that the majority of managers and executives (30) identified a strong need for improving their negotiation language skills, particularly in cross-cultural contexts. The data highlighted the importance of developing effective communication strategies to overcome language barriers and enhance intercultural understanding in business negotiations. The participants also expressed a desire for more guidance on how to effectively use body language signals and interpret them in a cross-cultural context.

As to the participants' language proficiency, the results revealed that only eleven participants received BE courses, including ten for general purposes, although their work context requires the use of ESBP. However, 25 participants have not received any BE courses, either for general or professional purposes. The survey then revealed that 30 informants acknowledged that being able to effectively communicate in English is crucial for their career progress. They recognized the importance of not only mastering the language but also understanding cultural differences to negotiate diverse situations confidently. Despite being expressed implicitly, it is clear that the informants are aware of the importance of ensuring good communication between parties. Using language appropriately to avoid problems of miscommunication and misunderstanding is frequently the issue to which they give much importance.

Additionally, the findings from the 30 participants' answers uncovered their need to communicate fluently, and learn appropriate language patterns for making offers and counteroffers, bargaining without finding themselves in deadlock, expressing and hinting at disagreement without sounding offensive, and solving all types of misunderstandings. When it comes to intercultural knowledge, they need to learn body language appropriate use and interpretation.

The results also revealed a participant who has the necessary skills of a good negotiator. The CDS project manager's expertise in negotiation was evident through the responses that he provided. The training in BE not only enhanced this participant's language proficiency but also equipped him with the necessary communication strategies to negotiate with culturally different partners. This combination of skills and experience undoubtedly contributed to his success in the role. Thus, investing in ESBP training can significantly benefit individuals in achieving their career goals and improving their overall economic well-being.

## 3.6 Conclusion

Chapter 3 presented the empirical study of the present research work. To this end, a questionnaire was used to gather qualitative and quantitative data on the target and present needs of a sample population of 36 managers and executives from five companies and a satellite research center. Given their different fields of study, i.e., engineering, management, commerce, and science, the survey succeeded in shedding light on their linguistic and nonlinguistic needs to develop their negotiation language skills. The survey attempted to uncover the common difficulties faced when negotiating in English, such as expressing offers and counteroffers, hinting at disagreements, bargaining, asking questions to guarantee clear understanding, coping with cultural differences, and adapting their communication style. The findings justified the importance of ESBP training to help 30 participants overcome these challenges.

Overall, the NA process resulted in an in depth understanding of the participants' language needs and areas for improvement in their business negotiation abilities. These insights can be used to tailor language-training programs to address these specific needs. The results can also guide the development of targeted materials and resources to enhance the participants' overall language proficiency in this business context.

# Chapter four:

# The Business Negotiation Language Syllabus

## Table of Contents

## 4.1 Introduction

English has become the lingua franca in various industries such as science, technology, finance, and tourism, allowing businesses to effectively communicate and collaborate on a global scale. Its widespread use has led to the development of specialized English language training programs to address the demands of business professionals, who acknowledge the importance of being able to effectively convey ideas, negotiate deals, and build relationships in a professional setting. As a result, there was a growing demand for BE courses that focused on practical skills such as, presentations, meetings and negotiations. Teaching and learning ESBP have therefore become essential for increasing proficiency levels since great attention has been paid to the development of communication skills in English, both verbal and non-verbal.

In the context of business negotiations, language teaching programs should focus on equipping non-native speakers and job-experienced learners with the linguistic tools they need to effectively negotiate and achieve successful outcomes. These frameworks should also include training courses that are tailored to meet their job task requirements, allowing them to achieve a high level of proficiency in English. By designing specific training courses to address the learners' needs, they can develop both their language and negotiating skills simultaneously.

In this sense, chapter four provides the research work's contribution, in which all the concepts, theories, and data that were overviewed and collected in the preceding chapters are implemented to design a flexible language teaching framework. By considering BE teaching and learning in professional setting, the framework aims to address the specific language needs and challenges that arise in the context of business negotiation. This approach ensures that the language syllabus is tailored to meet the demands of the target population, enhancing its effectiveness and relevance.

## 4.2 Business English for Business Negotiation

As the needs of business professionals increased, so did the demand for BE courses for more specific purposes to develop further language competence by learning how to act and respond to the various constantly changing business situations simultaneously using the four skills of English. Thus, it is important to dip into BE teaching and learning that are relevant to business negotiation, i.e., ESBP, in addition to the methodological and pedagogical implications to be addressed in the design of courses and programs to meet the requirements of learners and fill knowledge gaps.

### 4.2.1 English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP)

ESBP courses are necessary due to the particularity of learners which is featured by their age, experience and needs, thereby influencing the linguistic considerations in the teacher's choice of contexts (e.g. texts), and lexis (e.g. grammar and vocabulary exercises). ESBP courses are designed for experienced learners who contribute their business knowledge and skills to the learning environment, thereby establishing the setting and carrier content. In this context, the teacher has a particular relationship with the learner, as both are experts in their fields: the teacher as an essential source of linguistic information, and the learner as an important source of business knowledge.

ESBP courses are therefore required and designed for job- experienced learners, who contribute to the language-learning situation throughout their professional knowledge and skills (Bosch Abarca, 2010, p. 101) ; however, these learners need the courses to develop their language skills (Stevanovic & Stankovic, 2015, p. 39). For this reason, the BE teacher has to consider various aspects in the design of the ESBP course. Understanding the learners' wants to be able to tailor the lessons that meet their specific needs and goals. This ensures that the learners remain engaged and motivated throughout the learning process. On top of that, using different teaching styles and strategies to help them respond to diverse learning preferences, and grasp the material more effectively. Furthermore, providing them with a wider range of activities to keep the lessons dynamic and interesting, allowing them to reinforce the notions being taught.

Teaching ESBP is based on developing one or two language skills with a focus on specific business communication events (Marjanovikj-Apostolovski, 2019, p. 36). In a comparison between EGBP and ESBP learners based on a significant number of parameters (e.g., job experience, age, needs, knowledge of the subject matter, motivation, business course expectations, and objectives), Priscilla Osborne (2005, p. 104) sheds light on the ESBP learners' awareness of needs through the specificity of their objectives. As they have gained some practical experience of English use on the job and often have highly specified language learning needs in relation to their job demands, these needs are relative to the development of one or two language skills, which are usually speaking and listening skills (*see appendix 9, p. 279*). Thus, the course typically emphasizes very specific tasks or activities, such as how to improve oral fluency or how to be able to understand their clients with various English accents (Wang & Fan, 2021, p. 2).

For effective ESBP teaching and learning, the collaboration of teachers and learners is necessary. This relationship is particularly important because it requires open communication, trust, and understanding to ensure that the materials provided are relevant and meaningful to the learners' specific professional contexts. Stevanović and Stanković (2015, p. 39) conceive three characteristics for BE: "it gives the teacher the opportunity to answer students' immediate needs for English", "it represents a strong connection with the day-to-day activities of real life", and "the teacher may build a special relationship with the students in order to find out more about their working lives and their particular needs regarding the English language."

In sum, ESBP, as all ESP branches and a BE component, is characterized by context, content and learners' specificity based on the elements of NA, syllabus design, course design, and materials selection and development (Ellis & Johnson, 1994, p. 3). ESBP courses include mostly specific work- related tasks or activities, it is therefore worthwhile to explore the roles to be played by the teacher in this context to attain the course objectives.

### 4.2.2 ESBP Teacher's Roles

Generally, when speaking about language teaching, the teacher is expected to have much knowledge than the learner, but in ESBP the situation is relatively different. For Evan Frendo (2005, p. 5), "the teacher knows about language and communication, but the learner often knows more about the job and its content." Consequently, a number of terms are used by ESP scholars to refer to the BE teacher, such as trainer and practitioner.

#### 4.2.2.1 Teacher and Trainer

In the context of workplace courses, the use of the terms 'training' and 'trainer' are viewed more proper than 'teaching' and 'teacher' (Ellis & Johnson, 1994, p. xiv).

Training involves what adults receive in a company context but teaching what young people receive in schools. Frendo (2005, p. 5) views that teaching and training are different in approach; teaching is person-oriented, whereas training is job-oriented because the trainer focuses on learners' needs and expectations in setting the course objectives for developing their specific skills and helping them improve their communicative competence in order to be more efficient in their work. Similarly, Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. xiv) explain that training deals with developing skills in using language as a means of communication. Additionally, Xie Qing (2016, p. 121) believes that workplace training is characterized by the combination of language skills with job requirements and that the trainer is expected to adapt the training methods to comply with the learner's needs, goals, and expectations, as well as the institution's educational and financial resources. However, teaching is viewed as a social practice that emphasizes students' predetermined goals and needs for second language proficiency (Qing, 2016, p. 34). For Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 13), the term "practitioner" is more appropriate because it encompasses the multifaceted nature of ESP teaching, which goes beyond traditional notions of a teacher's role.

As regards the BE teacher's profile, Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. xiv) suggest three types: "those with a TEFL background with or without university degree, those with a business background, and those with neither of the above i.e., native speakers of English working abroad for existential reasons." These different types of teachers provide a variety of perspectives and skills to the classroom. Those with a TEFL background may possess an in-depth knowledge of language acquisition theories and teaching methodologies, whereas those with a business background may have industry-specific expertise that might be beneficial to learners preparing for careers in business. Native English speakers working overseas may provide an authentic language experience as well as cultural perspectives. Thus, the combination of these different types of teachers can contribute to a complete and comprehensive learning experience for BE learners.

By eliciting these three types of BE teachers, Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. 26) emphasize the fact that the English trainer is above all a language teacher, whatever the background s/he may have. In the context of teaching English for professional reasons in Algeria, the language teacher with a TEFL background and university degree is the BE teacher and trainer. For this reason, the terms 'trainer' and 'teacher' are interchangeably used in the present research work.

### 4.2.2.2 Input Provider and Facilitator

Although opinions diverge on their definitions in relation to the learners' NA, the BE teacher is likely to accomplish a series of roles, such as language or input provider, facilitator, and materials writer. As an input provider, the trainer must to be well informed about the learners' field of expertise in order to attract their interest by creating a relevant context for the lessons. In the case of ESBP teaching, the trainer not only presents business concepts or instructs how to conduct business but also has to help learners develop language skills within the business context of their field of work. For Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 49), as stated by Bereczky (2009, p. 85), the ESP teacher's role as a provider of input and activities is traditional and most expected for pre-experienced learners' classes, whereas in the case of job-experienced learners, the teacher is a facilitator or a consultant, which means to be productive.

On the ESP teachers' role as a facilitator, Bell (1995, p. 5) , as stated by Bereczky (2009, p. 85) , chooses the term 'trainer' instead of teacher and argues, "Without this specific background the trainer would be in the same position as the learners, reaching for the dictionary." Bell highlights the importance of the trainer's expertise and knowledge in the subject matter. The trainer's deep understanding of the topic is a means to effectively support and guide learners, ensuring a more interactive and engaging learning experience. The trainer's role, therefore, encompasses more than simply imparting knowledge but also in facilitating learning and providing guidance. Other scholars view that there is a misconception on the fact that the ESP teacher has to be an expert in the subject matter (Ellis & Johnson, 1994, p. 17). Stating Stevanović and Stanković (2015, p. 40) "the teacher does not have to be an expert in negotiation strategies or management theory, but an expert in presenting language and explaining the language that will help the learner solve the language problems."

In the ESBP scenario, the teaching approach entails organizing the information delivered by the learners, who often provide the course materials in order to design the course content, which is the result of the negotiation between both sides (Bereczky, 2009, p. 85) . Thus, the best way to design an ESBP course is to start with the identification of the learners' specific needs. Once the needs are assessed, materials writing is another role to be played by the qualified BE teacher in charge of developing updated course materials in relation with the learners' context of work. Ana Bocanegra-Valle (2010, p. 159) views that BE teachers must be aware and familiar with the specialist knowledge relevant to the learners. They also have to keep learning materials updated with the latest innovations in the target discipline.

### 4.2.2.3 Materials Writer

The ESBP teaching context requires tailor-made materials because they are created to address the specific needs and interests of a particular group of learners. These materials are often developed by the teachers themselves or in collaboration with learners. They can be created or adapted from existing resources to provide them with a more personalized and relevant learning experience. In contrast, ready-made materials (i.e., published coursebooks) often cover a comprehensive curriculum and provide structured lessons and activities, which are pre designed to meet the needs of a wide range of learners. However, producing new tailored materials needs time, effort and resources (i.e., internet, company document, learners, etc.). Frendo (2005, p. 48) outlines, "they can be very time-consuming to prepare, and need skills and experience in materials writing, word-processing, graphic design, and the like."

The ability of writing or developing materials is an issue that has given rise to a diversity of opinions. For example, Jolly and Bolitho (1998), as stated by Bocanegra-Valle (2010, p. 159), view that materials writing requires professionally developed BE teachers in order to be less dependent on published materials. For Dudley Evans and St John (1998, p. 173), the ability to design effective course materials is a skill that only a small proportion of teachers possess. By asking the question on what can make a good materials writer, Roger Barnard and Dorothy Zemach (2003, p. 313) comment, "not all good teachers will make good materials writers". For the authors, as reported by Halina Sierocka (2014, pp. 54-55) , good materials writers should possess "an acceptable linguistic knowledge of the target language", "general teaching experience", "an interest in the learning/teaching process", "the ability to work with others", and "the ability to assess clarity and effectiveness of materials and respond appropriately". For ESP teaching in addition to these skills, writing useful materials requires teachers with experience, some degree of knowledge, and interest in the relevant specialism, as well as familiarity with learning materials available for the target discipline. Nevertheless, the most essential role is to be "good providers of materials" as outlined by Dudley Evans and St John (1998, p. 173).

It is important to note that materials writing is a key issue in BE teaching relevant to the ESBP course design. Yet, the selection of the teaching materials must follow a certain number of criteria, i.e., they must be authentic, credible, up-to-date, and attractive. Then, it is crucial for the BE teacher to choose the appropriate type of materials that best fit learners' needs, satisfy both teachers' and learners' expectations of language learning, and help learners improve their performance and attain their learning objectives.

### 4.2.3 Course Design

As teaching BE is needs-directed, ESBP targets learners in need of more specific language skills. To this end, the course design necessitates investigation, analysis, and organization, taking into account their professional knowledge as an important source of information. According to Bosch Abarca (2010, p. 102), "needs analysis is a defining feature of ESP, especially in the area of business English, where many courses are tailor-made to meet participants' needs." In other words, outlining the ESBP course involves making a number of decisions in light of the data obtained by means of the NA process. This analysis helps identify the learners' language proficiency level, their goals, and the specific contexts in which they will be using the language. By understanding these factors, trainers can tailor the content and objectives of the course to meet their needs effectively. Moreover, using authentic materials and incorporating real-life situations into the training can provide them with practical language skills that they can immediately apply in their work environment. However, other factors must be considered because of their influence on the learning atmosphere, such as the learner's work relationships (e.g., boss and subordinates), finance (i.e., who is paying for the course), timing (i.e., lesson time planning in accordance with the work schedule), and motivation (i.e., the status of English in the working environment).

To design the ESBP course, the BE teacher starts by writing specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound objectives. In terms of the learning context, Evan Frendo (2005, p. 32) outlines two different types of objectives: performance and training objectives. Performance objectives are set to specify what the learner will be able to do at the end of the course. They are expressed by "staff will learn", "staff will be able to", and "staff can." Training objectives provide the teacher with practical guidelines, such as "the training will enable participants to …" After setting specific goals and objectives, the syllabus, materials, and activities negotiated by both trainer and learner are carefully designed to plan lessons and adapt materials to match learners' needs. Regarding content, materials, and learners, Bosch Abarca (2010, p. 101) describes the ESBP course characteristics in four points:

1- the courses are frequently intensive given to small groups running in-company by company staff, carefully tailored with emphasis on one or two language skills and specific business communicative events;
2- the materials are selected from a range of published books, framework materials with written activities stemming from the learners' own business context;
3- the settings and carrier content are mainly taken from the learner's own business practices;

4- the training course, then, can be given in many forms according to the stakeholders' (i.e., company, sponsors, or students) requirements and means, whether in group classes or one-to-one lessons. Sometimes, learners favor one-to-one lessons because of their specific needs and busy schedules.

Overall, the course content is considerably relevant to learners' needs and objectives, with clear day-to-day lesson objectives and stages. Moreover, the choice of the course content, which requires carefulness and attention, involves a high technical content based on the use of business terms with an emphasis on developing language skills in terms of the types of tasks they have to perform at work. The teacher also needs to raise learners' awareness about the different styles of language use, i.e., formal or informal, direct or indirect, as well as the cultural context of the language use, making them cooperate with high motivation and enthusiasm. Thus, the ESBP course content might be taught through the selection of a variety of activities and the use of a great range of teaching techniques, which should be in accordance with the teaching aims and the learner's response (Donna, 2000, p. 5).

### 4.2.4 Methods and Approaches

Because there is no super method in language teaching, language trainers need to be equipped with a repertoire of methods and skills to be applied in the context of language learning (Qing, 2016, p. 33). Therefore, framing the theoretical interpretation of methods occurs at three levels: the approach, the design, and the procedures (Qing, 2016, p. 33). The approach prescribes the underlying theories of language and language learning; the design describes the linguistic content and the roles of the teacher, learners, and training materials; and finally, the procedures prescribe the techniques and activities used in the classroom (Qing, 2016, p. 33).

As there is no particular working method, a selection of creative and efficient training methodologies is favorable. This selection of approaches and methodologies necessitates adequacy with the learning styles and strategies proper to the business professional context. This implies a discussion between the teacher and the stakeholders on the course content that best fits the learners' business context as well as their progress. Quoting Qing Xie (2016, p. 35),

> In practice, the design of and delivery of workplace English training are the results of consultation with employees, human resource managers, general managers, and department heads in the context of business growth. Selecting creative and effective training approaches suited to the workplace or occupational contexts and training program objectives is crucial.

The type of course learners would like to receive is another issue to negotiate, including whether it is intensive or extensive, a combination of both, or blended learning. For example, companies prefer intensive training if there are specific performance objectives to achieve. The intensive course is generally given in the form of seminars and workshops, as they are short in time and much more focused. The extensive course, however, involves regular short sessions, for example, a two- to 90-minute session per week. This type of training is generally suitable for pre-experienced learners. Blended learning is a combination of face-to-face and distance learning via electronic means, also known as e-learning. This is potentially the most effective and practical way of delivering distance learning within a BE teaching context since it includes different methods of imparting materials, such as CD-ROMs, learning platforms, and authoring software (Frendo, 2005, p. 111).

In line with the scope of the study at hand, the target population needs to be able to use language and communication skills efficiently in English for effective business negotiation. Based on the overviewed aspects that characterize the ESBP course, a teaching framework is tailored to meet the target population's work requirements.

## 4.3 Business Negotiation Language Course: The Proposed Syllabus

> […], the importance of spoken communication, both at the personal and at the professional level, can hardly be underestimated. Good speaking and good listening are both vital aspects of effective verbal communication. As members of the family, society, community and business, men and women spend much of their time in oral communication. What they need to do, they must learn to do well. (Madhukar , 2017, p. 182)

Effective business negotiation can be learned with practice and attention. This requires the development of learners' speaking skills and the increase of their intercultural knowledge. As regards the proposed ESBP course framework, it is worthy to begin by setting the course objectives, then describing the methodological and pedagogical implications taken into consideration in the design of the syllabus, and finally presenting the syllabus contents including topics and activities.

### 4.3.1 Setting Objectives

In general, objectives are important in language education as they help to map and organize the teaching and learning processes, update teachers and learners about the progress, and guide the teacher in the choice of materials and methodologies. The proposed BE course syllabus focuses on enhancing language proficiency and oral communication skills of the participants with an intermediate level in GE for efficient business negotiation performance. To do so, the course objectives are relevant to the development of learners' speaking and listening skills, which implies "interpreting the message clearly enough to understand its meaning", and "understanding the message well enough to compose it clearly" (Carrasquillo, 1994, p. 147). The course also aims to develop learners' intercultural competency by increasing ther cross-cultural awareness, as business negotiations often involve individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds with different behaviors and strategies.

It is important to note that non-native speakers find it difficult to negotiate in English. Their lack of language skills may therefore affect their negotiation performance (Colby, 2015, p. 27). Learning the right negotiation skills will help them improve communication and avoid failure, although they do not share the same goals as their partners. The survey, which was conducted with 36 participants from the five companies (SONATRACH, PPG ALGERIA, TMM, SMT ALGERIA, and SYNERGIE industry) and the CDS, highlighted their target and present needs. The analysis of the findings demonstrated that 30 participants want to improve their oral communication skills (i.e., speaking and listening), and intercultural skills (e.g., reading body language), as they are the key components of business negotiations. However, business negotiation requires a good proficiency of general English as it involves complex grammatical patterns and spcialized language use. The course targets intermediate- level learners in order to help them hone their acquired linguistic competencies to manoeuver real-world negotiation scenarios and handle communication challenges. In other words, the course aims to increase learners' knowledge by (1) recalling facts about business negotiation language relevant to each phase including patterns, functions, strucutres, cultural norms, pronunciation features, and communication strategies, (2) understanding how to use the aformentioned features of language and communication in a meaningful manner, (3) implementing acquired knowledge in a practice, (4) analyzing data and structuring ideas, and (5) providing a synthesis of how to manage efficiently different business negotiation scenarios. So to speak, the training will help them

1- communicate in a way that is clear to the listener;
2- use appropriate language patterns for making offers and counteroffers;
3- bargain without finding oneself in deadlock;
4- express and hint at disagreements without sounding offensive;
5- solve all types of misunderstanding and miscommunication problems; and
6- use and read body language appropriately.

The course of business negotiation language does not only aim to provide the target population with a set of grammatical structures and patterns to reinforce their linguistic repertoire, but it also aims to raise their discourse and intercultural awareness. In other words, the course aims to engage the learners in competent language use and encourage them to use their background resources to communicate appropriately and effectively (linguistic competence), as well as raise their awareness of the effect of cultural differences and how they might intervene in the negotiating process, both positively and negatively (intercultural competence). By the end of the training course, the learners will be able to deal with multiple business negotiation scenarios, as they will feel comfortable and confident in making deals with any culturally different partner. Additionally, the course will help them improve their English fluency through activities to exercise diction and tone of voice, in addition to ear training by listening to different English variations, for instance. They will also be able to use the language of diplomacy and persuasion, recognize and respond to attitudes and behaviors, bargain with confidence, and practice relevant grammar points in accordance with the required negotiation phase.

Accordingly, the course objectives cannot be attained without the elaboration of a syllabus that fits the aforementioned needs and objectives. The syllabus is a teaching device also known as a framework that traces the route for the language trainer by depicting the different steps, thereby facilitating learning as defined by Widdowson (1984, p. 26) (qtd. in Nunan, 1988, p. 6). This tailored teaching framework aims to equip the target population with the necessary language and communication competencies to excel in their business negotiation endeavors. Thus, it is worthy to dip into the approaches and methodologies viewed as applicable to design the proposed language course framework.

## 4.3.2 Methodological Implications

BE, in fact, is an eclectic approach to language teaching that places great emphasis on the learner and learning needs to reach the end target. Therefore, the design process of the proposed ESBP course incorporates materials, activities, and communicative teaching strategies that address the promotion of language learning and the development of communicative competence in the target language. To this end, the task-based and skill-based approaches are the ones that best meet needs of the target population and the course objectives. These approaches focus on providing learners with opportunities to apply their language skills in real-life business negotiation situations. The task-based approach encourages learners to work on specific tasks that simulate real-world scenarios, such as negotiating projects. The skill-based approach, on the other hand, focuses on developing specific language skills, such as listening, and speaking that are essential for effective communication. By integrating these approaches into the course design, learners can develop the necessary language and communication skills required in the context of business negotiations.

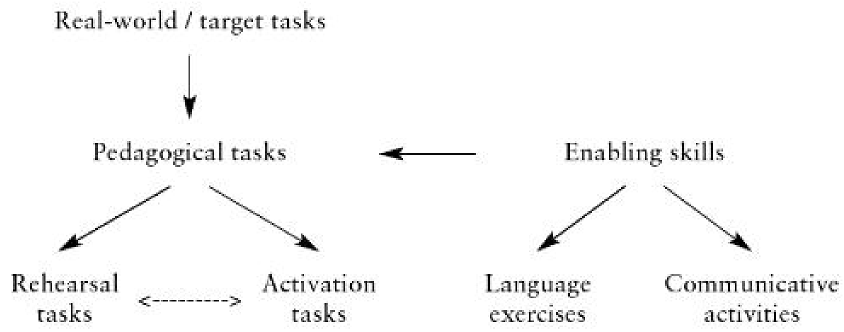
### 4.3.2.1 Tasks-Based Approach

It is important to recall that business negotiation is a complex, managed, multistage process characterized by the interactants' cultural diversity, individual professional competence changes, and information evolution. Therefore, the BE trainer will invest a great deal of effort to write a framework that fits the target population's needs, providing them with the content to be used in the course, including topics to be covered, language structures to be used, and activities to be performed. To this end, task-based language teaching, henceforth *TBLT*, happens to create a language-learning context that helps learners develop their CC through effective and meaningful activities. Ketan Parmar (2019, p. 1) reports that task-based approaches, according to researchers (e.g., Grass & Crookes cited in Skehan, 1996; Prabhu, 1987; Long & Crooks, 1991; Nunan, 1989), are important to communicative instructions as they "leave teachers and learners freer to find their own procedures to maximize communicative effectiveness."

For an in-depth understanding of the task-based approach (TBA) syllabus, it is worthy to explore the meaning of '*task'* to understand the principle of its use in the suggested framework. In the literature, the term task is defined in different ways according to the purpose from its use. For an everyday life usage, Long cited by Ellis (2003) views tasks as "a common-place goal directed activities" (qtd in Parmar, 2019, p. 2). For a more formalized pedagogical purpose, David Nunan (1989, p. 10), as cited by Neil Jones, Nick Saville and Angeliki Salamoura, (2016, p. 34), conceives task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is primarily focused on meaning rather than form." Parmar (2019, p. 2) reports that TBLT scholars (e.g., Bygate, Skehan, and Swain, 2001; Canale, 1983; Lee, 2000; Nunan, 1989; Prahbu, 1987; Richards, and Rodgers, 2001; Skehan, 1996) view tasks as important in language learning because they engage learners in meaningful interactions and help them develop their language skills. These tasks involve learners using the target language in real-life situations where the focus is on understanding and conveying meaning rather than on the correct use of grammar or vocabulary. However, by focusing on tasks, the importance of explicit instruction and practice in grammar and vocabulary, which are essential components of language learning, may be neglected.

In a TBLT framework, Nunan (2004, p. 19) distinguishes three types of tasks: real-world or target tasks, pedagogical tasks, and enabling skills. Each type of task is subdivided into other types, as demonstrated in Figure 4.1. According to Nunan (p. 19), citing Halliday, target tasks refer to the three macro-functions of language: (a) for exchanging goods and services; (b) for socializing; and (c) for enjoyment; however, they become pedagogical when transferred to the classroom to create learning opportunities, and they include two rationale types: rehearsal and activation rationales. Rehearsal tasks aim to prepare learners for something they are going to do outside the classroom, whereas activation tasks provide an opportunity for learners to practice real-world tasks to trigger their emerging language skills. This occurs by moving from reproducing and manipulating language models to creative language use, such as role-plays, simulations, problem-solving tasks, and information exchange tasks (p. 20) . Enabling skills, on the other hand, include language exercises and communication activities. One includes lexical focus, while the other is halfway between language exercises and pedagogical tasks, as they ask learners to practice the use of a restricted form of language and have an element of meaningful communication (p. 21).

**Figure 4.1** David Nunan's framework for TBLT (2004, p. 25)




*A framework for TBLT*

Therefore, TBLT, according to Nunan (2007, p. 35-7), cited by Anja Hilsenbeck (2011, p. 2) , is characterized by seven principles: scaffolding, task dependency, recycling, active learning, integration, reproduction to creation, and reflection. These interconnected aspects have to be considered by the BE teacher or course designer, as they can significantly interfere with the learning process. By scaffolding, learners are provided with the required language for task completion; however, the teacher has to ensure a pedagogical connection between these tasks (i.e., task dependency). By recycling language, learners will experience how items function in their related contexts and in completely different ones. As the TBLT involves learning by doing, the integration of linguistic form, communicative function and semantic meaning in the learning process will enable learners to recognize the relationship between function, form, and meaning, in addition to the reproduction of language models to encourage creative language use. Finally, by reflecting on their performance, learners are able to evaluate their progress and identify areas for improvement, allowing them to become independent and confident language users in a variety of contexts. By using communicative activities, the TBLT encourages spontaneous acquisition of language without focusing on form. Stating Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 55), "Language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning" (qtd. in Nunan, 2004, p. 21).

Based on the concept of experiential learning (Nunan, 2004, p. 12) , the task-based approach is characterized by the learners' active participation in the course design. This, in fact, begins with the process of the syllabus design and continues through the learning process evaluation, giving interest to their personal immediate experience as a starting point for the learning experience and observing their intellectual growth as they engage in and reflect on the task sequences. The experiential learning means that "learners move from what they already know and can do to the incorporation of new knowledge and skills" (Kolb, 1984 qtd. in Nunan, 2004, p. 12).

As regards the development of non-linguistic skills, Frendo (2005, p. 78) views TBA as perhaps the most appropriate approach, providing a relevant way for language practice. The author (2005, p. 78) proposes class activities often designed for one-to-one or group training, such as role-playing and simulations, with the use of the camera to review learners' practice for observation and feedback. Likewise, Xie Qing (2016, p. 35) , citing Ellis and Johnson (2002, p. 187), explains that these types of activities are generally included in the course design process as they entail the process of setting up the activity and giving feedback. They are, indeed, the best way to exercise negotiation, provided that they include scenarios that reflect authentic situations and contain the necessary background knowledge for practice in order not to frustrate learners with created information that they have not been given. As an example, Frendo (2005, p. 79) provides a negotiation role-play sample, with a job-experienced learner framed in five stages with the task illustrated in Figure 4.2. The five stages include the following:

1 Teacher asks learner to explain background to negotiations that he/she does.

2 Teacher role-plays one side, learner role-plays the other (preferably own).

3 Discussion and comment on tactics and language used.

4 Teacher and learner exchange roles and role-play again.

5 Discussion and comment on tactics and language used.

6 Step 2 repeated.

**Figure 4.2** Negotiation role-play task (qtd. in Frendo, 2005, p. 79)

4 You are going to participate in a negotiation to agree on the appropriate level of tobacco advertising in your country. Work in two groups, group A and group B. Follow the instructions below and prepare for the negotiation.

**Group A (anti-smoking lobby)**
**Task 1**: Prepare a short presentation on the dangers of smoking.
**Task 2**: Prepare to negotiate with the pro-smoking lobby. Decide where you are happy to compromise.
Try to agree on an acceptable level of advertising in:
T.V. *(definitely no)*
Cinema *(only to accompany restricted films)*
Newspapers *(no - read by all public)*
Magazines *(only certain ones)*
Billboards *(not within 3km of schools)*

**Group B (pro-smoking lobby)**
**Task 1**: Prepare a short presentation on why you support the right to smoke.
**Task 2**: Prepare to negotiate with the anti-smoking lobby. Decide where you are happy to compromise.
Try to agree on an acceptable level of advertising in:
T.V. *(late at night)*
Cinema *(all adult films)*
Newspapers *(all)*
Magazines *(all except children's)*
Billboards *(not within 1km of schools)*

5 Hold the negotiation, following the agenda below.

**Agenda**
1 Welcome / Aim
2 Short presentation: pro-smoking lobby
3 Short presentation: anti-smoking lobby
4 Negotiation *(TV / cinema / newspapers / magazines / billboards)*
5 Summary and action plan

*Source: In-company Intermediate* by Mark Powell

For Xie Qing (2016, p. 34), citing Huckin (1988, p. 61), BE training methodologies, including "problem solving", "high-order reasoning" and "argumentation", generally involve the TBA drawing on a series of activities designed for one-to-one or group training, such as role-play, simulations, case studies, oral presentations, and scenarios. Yet, the author favors the use of scenarios in teaching cross-cultural business communication because they are brief, clear, and focus on a specific stage in the communication process. Compared to the use of case studies in cross-cultural communication instruction, Victor (1999, p. 99) claims that the use of scenarios is suitable to teach English in the workplace context, because they are shorter, and offer a more practical approach to language learning as they simulate real-life situations, enabling learners to practice their English language skills in a more authentic setting (qtd. in Qing, 2016, p. 34).

In fact, task-based approaches emphasize the use of authentic language through activities that are used to carry out meaningful tasks to promote learning, interaction, and communication (Knobelspies, 2016, p. 4, citing Müller-Hartmann and Schocker van Ditfurth, 2011, p. 39). As to the teaching content, the activities in task-based lessons are described in a sequence of three phases: preparation, execution, and evaluation. Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006), as cited by Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (2014, p. 190) , also propose three stages: introducing the task, supporting the task performance, and a post-task phase. Introducing the task is the initial or preparatory phase in which the purpose and the way to perform the task are explained. By supporting task performance, the teacher interacts with the learners by focusing on clarifying meaning or guiding the choice of language, while the last phase includes the task evaluation and how it was accomplished.

A TBL framework, for Jane Willis (2012, p. 40), consists of three phases: "pre-task" (i.e., introducing the topic and explaining task objectives), "task cycle" (i.e., carrying out the task and encouraging holistic use of language), and "language focus" (i.e., studying closely some specific features naturally occurring in the language used during the task cycle). Thus, for language learning, four conditions are provided through these three phases: exposure, use, motivation, and explicit study of language form. In his situation, the teacher is a facilitator by ensuring a balance between the amount of language exposure and use, and that both have a convenient quality (Willis, 2012, p. 40).

So to speak, efficient and effective methods are suggested in the business negotiation language course in order to help the target population foster their negotiation skills using English. This aim can be achieved through a set of activities such as role playing, case studies, discussion, problem solving, and video analysis and creation. These activities will invite learners to notice, explore, compare, discuss, discover, practice, and assess using the target language. For example, by engaging the participants in role-playing, they can simulate real-life business scenarios and practice their negotiation skills in a safe and controlled environment. In addition, case studies will provide them with the opportunity to analyze and solve communication problems that may arise in business negotiations, whereas discussions will allow them to exchange ideas and perspectives. Problem-solving activities, on the other hand, will encourage critical thinking to come up with solutions. Finally, video analysis and creation will enable learners to observe and evaluate their own negotiation skills as well as learn from successful negotiation examples. Overall, these activities promote active learning and help learners develop their English language proficiency in the context of business negotiation.

### 4.3.2.2 Skills-Based Approach

The communication skill training approach is suitable for business negotiation language training as it focuses on CC development through the practice of one particular communication skill such as questioning, active listening, or bargaining. For the implementation of this approach in the ESBP classroom, Xie Qing (2016, p. 39) suggests the following four stages: "preparation, sensitization (identification of the skill by reading, discussion, and video), practice (role-play and simulation), and evaluation". However, given the fact that interpersonal interaction might lose its entirety, spontaneity, and authenticity, this approach has given rise to much criticism (Hargie, 2006, p. 551, qtd. in Xie Qing, 2016, p. 39). For this reason, it should be carefully approached when designing the syllabus. By explaining how basic negotiation skills can be acquired in the classroom, Barry Maude (2014, p. 142) proposes a series of activities, such as active listening exercises. This type of exercise involves listening to the other side's arguments, restating them, and responding positively to offers and proposals. These basic skills can be reinforced and extended through continuous practice.

Practically speaking, BE teachers are always searching for effective strategies and practical approaches to be integrated in the BE classroom based on the principle of developing learners' business communication skills. By following the communicative functional procedures, BE training programs use a variety of training practices, whether task-based or skills-based, to target the progress of the functional skills in the business communication process (Qing, 2016, p. 35). In line with the scope of the present study, this entails the use of activities to learn communication strategies predesigned to develop the target population's CC by focusing on functional skills such as starting the negotiation, clarifying, interrupting, soliciting attention, summarizing, restating, and ending the negotiation.

In the same line of thought, Maude (2014, p. 142) claims that researchers and instructors (e.g., Camerer, 1990; Thomson and De Harpport, 1994; Boyatzis and Mainemelis, 2000; Nadler *et al.*, 2003; Loewenstein *et al.,* 2003; Salacuse, 2010; Van der Vagt *et al.,* 2010) propose training programs based on a variety of training methods to teach negotiation skills. With these methods, they aim to develop managers' and executives' advanced skills required for effective performance in international business negotiations. These methods include negotiation simulations, role-plays, feedback and debriefings, case studies, lectures, group discussions, presentations, and behavior modeling. However, they should be well approached as regards their degree of significance to the learners' work. By examining different cases, learners can observe the various strategies, tactics, and cultural considerations that come into play in negotiating across borders. This practical approach would not only enhance their understanding of the negotiation process but also equip them with the necessary linguistic skills to maneuver complex international business environments effectively.

Nevertheless, learning methods such as behavioral modeling and simulations, supported by practical exercises like role-plays and case studies, must be followed by feedback and debriefing sessions. These sessions involve trainer-led discussions on aspects such as the negotiation goal and the negotiating team's interests, positions, and behaviors. The feedback certainly makes it possible for learners to improve their negotiation strategies as well as outcomes (Camerer, 1990, qtd. in Barry Maude, 2014, p. 145). In this respect, "Feedback has long played a central role in theories of learning and performance achievement. Feedback helps the trainees, reflect, adapt, and self correct until desired performance standards are achieved" (Maude, 2014, p. 145).

Developing BE negotiation skills also involves developing vocabulary skills. In the world of business, possessing a large working vocabulary is a significant asset, allowing people to use words precisely in order to say exactly what they intend. This refers to the existence of a correlation between vocabulary size and job performance.

Mary Ellen Guffey and Carolyn M. Seefer (2013, p. 396) outline, “Skilled workers, in the majority of cases, have larger vocabularies than unskilled workers. Supervisors know the meanings of more words than the workers they direct, and executives have larger vocabularies than employees working for them”. Therefore, having a good vocabulary command is certainly a great advantage.

### 4.3.3 Pedagogical Implications

As regards the teaching materials for the suggested syllabus, they are tailor-made and selected to fit the learning needs of the target population. To this end, useful websites, learning applications, and coursebooks for teaching BE and English for negotiations were used as resources to prepare the tasks and activities and search for context-related materials, such as audio recordings and videos.

To attain the training course objectives, a number of roles are assigned to the teacher, who, as a facilitator, addresses learners’ needs and interests by encouraging real language use. The teacher’s role changes according to the task phase, for instance, from a discussion organizer to a pair or group work manager, a motivator to engage learners in doing the task, and a language feedback provider when needed. Therefore, the suggested framework introduces a number of macro and micro language skills, which are selected in terms of their degree of utility and graded and organized according to their occurrence in the negotiation process.

The macro skills include listening and speaking skills, while the micro skills include vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. By integrating these language skills into the framework, the participants can increase their proficiency level and develop negotiation strategies that will benefit them in their work context. For instance, practicing active listening and effective speaking techniques such as paraphrasing and asking clarifying questions to better understand their counterparts' perspectives enables participants to improve their ability to understand and convey complex ideas. With a focus on expanding their vocabulary and refining their grammar and pronunciation, participants can improve their speaking skills by presenting and defending their own proposals during negotiations.

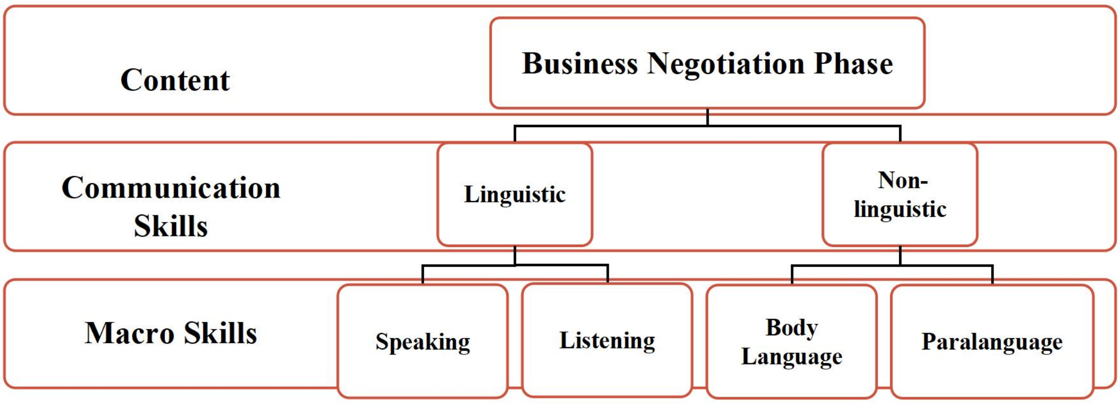
## 4.3.4 Contents Presentation

As previously mentioned, the proposed syllabus is a compromise between task-based and skills-based approaches. This compromise happens to be appropriate to expand job-experienced learners' English and body language skills to perform business tasks and avoid any type of miscommunication that can be of either linguistic or intercultural sources.

### 4.3.4.1 Syllabus Skills Framework

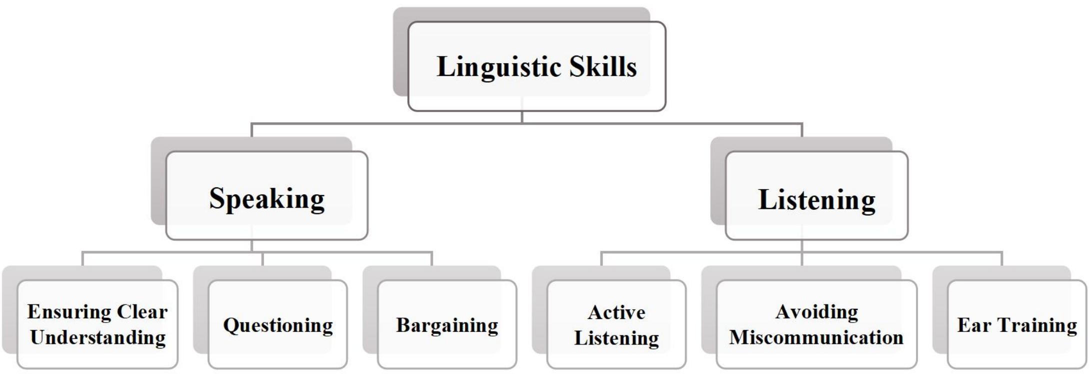
Based on the research findings, the syllabus is designed to cover the skills and language functions needed by the participants in the context of business negotiation (Figure 4.3). In addition, it concentrates on areas of grammar that they require the most, such as conditionals, question types, and diplomatic and assertive language. As the study targets the development of the participants' CC, speaking and listening skills, along with non-verbal ones (i.e., body language and paralanguage), are considered to be the syllabus components. The lessons will offer the learner the opportunity to see the functions, skills, and strategies of language use in a native and non-native speaking context with scenarios and training videos.

**Figure 4.3** The proposed syllabus skills framework



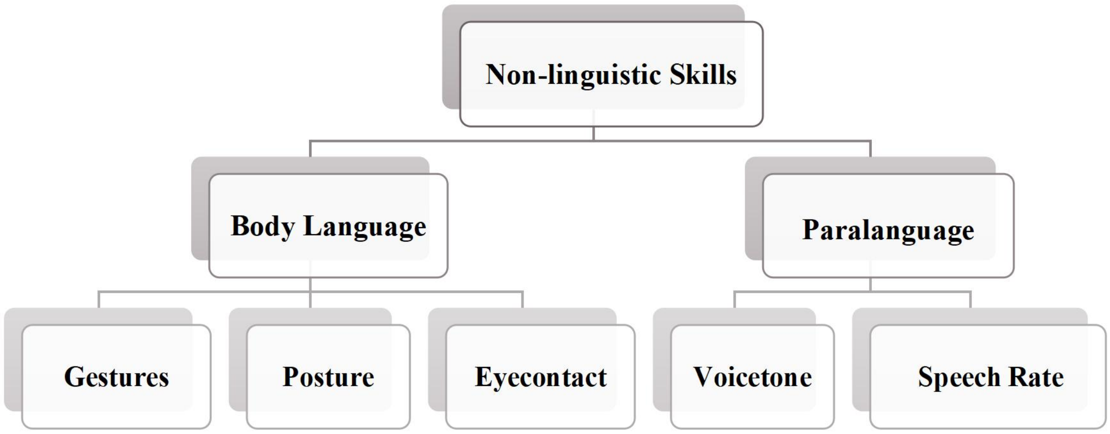

As regards oral communication skills, the syllabus ensures learners' practice for developing business negotiation speaking and listening skills, including ensuring clear understanding, questioning, bargaining, active listening, avoiding miscommunication, and ear training (Figure 4.4). These negotiation skills are reinforced by the practice of functions such as exchanging information, handling problems, persuading, defending positions, arguing, clarifying, restating, reframing, summarizing, agreeing and disagreeing, to name a few.

**Figure 4.4** The Syllabus framework showing macro language skills and functions



Non-verbal skills, on the other hand, include body language and paralanguage skills, as they share with the listening skill the highest percentage of usage in any type of interaction (Figure 4.5). Their appropriate context-culture interpretation and use, such as body movements and tone of voice contribute to the success of the interaction, thereby establishing long-term business relationships.

**Figure 4.5** The Syllabus framework showing the categories of non-linguistic skills




Accordingly, the suggested syllabus covers a selection of topics presented with tasks and activities that attempt to help professionals from different work spheres strengthen their negotiating skills in English. This can occur by equipping them with the necessary linguistic tools, and intercultural knowledge to avoid language traps they frequently fall into because they are non-native speakers of English.

### 4.3.4.2 Syllabus Contents Outline

Pondering the necessity of developing the negotiation skills of non-native speakers and job-experienced users of English, the possession of some kind of knowledge base is taken into account while writing the syllabus components to facilitate practice and encourage learners to perform the tasks and activities designed for each lesson. This knowledge base includes both linguistic (e.g., pragmatic and discourse knowledge, knowledge of grammar and phonology), and extra-linguistic (cultural) knowledge.

Accordingly, the outline of the syllabus components (see *appendix 10, p. 280*) comprises three units organized and entitled in terms of the negotiation phases: “Starting off”, “Discussion”, and “Closing the deal”. Each unit addresses two negotiation skills, which at the same time are taken as lesson topics. Therefore, six lessons are designed and titled: “Exchanging Information”, “Defining Goals”, “Bidding”, “Bargaining”, “Settling and Implementing the Agreement”, and “Concluding”. These lessons are planned based on the degree of familiarity with the participants’ work requirements to make the speaking task easier through activities that are integrated to help them improve fluency. As it carries an important value in a face-to-face interaction, the interlocutors’ responses, attitudes, and body movements can be monitored, analyzed, and interpreted. Each lesson is arranged in six sections, named “Functions”, “Language Focus”, “Pronunciation Features”, “Discourse Awareness”, “Cultural Awareness”, and “Practice and Self-Evaluation.”

The ‘Functions Section’ involves speech acts and their communicative purpose to enhance learners’ pragmatic knowledge as assigned by the lexical and grammatical clues provided in the following section. In the ‘Language Focus Section’, learners are offered a set of language features that are required for performing the task. They include useful phrases, phrasal verbs, conditional sentences, different question forms, diplomatic language, and assertive language to convey specific meanings.

The 'Pronunciation Features Section' intends to help learners adjust their pronunciation and enhance their fluency. They will be trained, for example, on how to adopt a certain quality of voice (i.e., intonation) to respond to a particular situation and make information significant to the listener (e.g., signaling to the interlocutor that you are listening). Additionally, articulation and ear training exercises on non-native speakers' English accents will help them improve their understanding and avoid misunderstanding and misinterpretation problems.

The 'Discourse Awareness Section' aims at raising the participants' awareness of how speaking turns are managed and how grammar and vocabulary are used to connect speaking turns and signal the speaker's intentions (Thornbury, 2011). This skill can be improved by reviewing and practicing useful turn-taking rules as well as using discourse markers appropriately (i.e., lexical items, such as *well*, *as you know*, *by the way*, and non-lexical items, such as pause fillers, *um, uh-huh*, etc.). This will help learners carry out a pragmatic function by signaling the organization and structure of a conversational exchange, thereby communicating the speaker's attitudes and emotions (Lenk, 1998, pp. 39-40). In addition, communication strategies such as approximation, para-linguistics, avoidance, borrowing other speakers' utterances, to name a few, are also practiced to encourage learners to best use their available resources strategically to convey their messages.

The 'Cultural Awareness Section' targets IC development as it raises the participants' awareness on the importance of context-culture dimension in negotiations. To this end, three-context culture dimensions are selected; Chinese, American and Italian, regarding the language (i.e., native and nonnative), their trade relationship with

Algeria, and negotiating style. The last section in the syllabus involves the "Practice" task and learners' "Self-assessment" through their feedback as regards the lesson.

In sum, the suggested business negotiation language syllabus intends to activate the learners' linguistic, discourse, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge and make them available for use by raising their awareness of the features of the target knowledge and integrating them into their existing knowledge in order to finally develop their ability to be mobilized in real-world work situations. The syllabus contents are provided through a set of tasks and activities given to bring their skills into play.

### 4.3.4.3 Lesson One Presentation

Unit one involves the initial part of the negotiation, where information about each party's interests and positions is exchanged. This phase is divided into two topics: "Exchanging Information" and "Defining Goals" (Table 4.1.1). The phase is subdivided to facilitate task completion by beginning with a simple practice (i.e., role-playing) with which the learners are familiar. This occurs by working with two short scenarios to work out the negotiating skills and the target language. Moreover, a video lecture is used to examine the Chinese accented English, analyze, and compare the Chinese cultural behavior and style of negotiation before the final practice, and a self-assessment is used to check learners' lesson feedback and progress. Some activities require the recording of the participants' practice, such as in the Pronunciation Features Section, and videotaping, like in the Practice Section. This type of activity allows learners to train their ears on pronunciation features (i.e., articulation, stress, intonation, and accent) and assess their performance by observing their body movements and listening to their tone of voice for correction and adjustment.

**Table 4.1.1** Topic one outline

| Skills & Topics | Functions | Language Focus | Pronunciation | Discourse Awareness | Cultural Awareness | Practice and self-evaluation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exchanging Information | -Suggesting to start business<br>-Making an opening statement<br>-Responding to an opening statement<br>-Handling problems | -Useful phrases<br>-Phrasal verbs<br>-Open questions<br>-Diplomatic language | -Stress and Intonation<br>-Chinese Accented-English | -Paralinguistic signals : eye contact and posture | Negotiating with the Chinese | |

## 4.3.4.3.1 Goal

It is very important to know when to speak, when to ask questions, and when to keep silent and just listen in negotiations. Thus, the lesson looks at

(1) the importance of information exchange in negotiations;

(2) the importance of ensuring a good atmosphere before starting business;

(3) the use of practical phrases, questions, and phrasal verbs for suggesting to begin the negotiation, stating, and responding to an opening position;

(4) the use of diplomatic language for handling problems;

(5) the appropriate use of sentence stress and intonation to mark significant information in a talk and sound like a native speaker;

(6) the comparison between correct English pronunciation and the Chinese accented English;

(7) the interpretation of eye contact, posture, and gestures;

(8) the practice and self-assessment; and

(9) the learner's feedback about the lesson.

It is important to note that the Chinese cultural context was chosen in the first phase due to the bilateral relationship between China and Algeria. Both countries share a long history of friendship, diplomatic relations, and mutual trust. China is known to be one of the most important trade partners for Algerian imports, which reached up to $7 billion in 2019, while Algerian exports to China reached up to $1.2 billion in the same year. Both countries have reinforced their cooperation in economy, trade, investments, energy, mining, and infrastructure, with approximately 1000 companies active in Algeria (Pillai, 2022).

As to the lesson goals, they cannot be achieved without the implementation of the syllabus contents through activities and tasks that are prepared and selected to boost learners' confidence in handling the target task and uncover the gaps they have in their knowledge. For this reason, it is worthwhile to consider the task-plan model used in the lesson's conception. Furthermore, it is important to note that the tasks and activities are written in a way to fit the learners' target needs. Nonetheless, the choice of scenarios can be re-adapted to be in accordance with the work context of the company.

## 4.3.4.3.2 Plan

The lesson plan *(*see *appendix 11, p. 281)* demonstrates three task phases: a pre-task, a task cycle, and a post-task. The first phase involves preparing for the topic and tasks by sharing points of view and experience on the importance of information exchange, listening to the other side, and observing body movements in business negotiation. The second phase undertakes the acquisition of target language base knowledge (linguistic, pragmatic, socio-cultural, and strategic), whereas in the last phase, the participants will practice by proposing a task from their work repertoire using their background language knowledge and knowledge acquired in the lesson. The practice will be videotaped for analysis and evaluation. All the tasks and activities focus on speaking and listening skills. For instance, the learners are invited to read and discuss, listen and discuss, listen and notice, listen and practice, watch and notice, watch and compare, etc.

#### 4.3.4.3.3 Tasks and Activities

Because tasks are goal-oriented activities centered on meaning rather than on form, the lesson provides tasks to facilitate the learners' participation in meaningful activities, where they will (1) understand language within a specific context through listening and speaking, (2) use previous knowledge to achieve a communicative goal by being exposed to language production and reception, and (3) perform the task by preparing and making use of language. However, this does not mean that form is neglected; it is implicitly revised in the task cycle to be used in the practice of the last section.

In addition, awareness-raising activities are given to uncover knowledge gaps about discourse strategies, body movement interpretation, and cultural differences in negotiations. The target language and the negotiating skills are worked out through two short scenarios: a video of ten minutes and eight seconds and a video lecture of four minutes and 54 seconds. With the first scenario, which is 1 minute and twenty seconds long, the trainer will work out the functions, the language structures, and two pronunciation features (sentence stress and intonation). The second scenario, which lasts 25 seconds (i.e., starts at the eighth minute and twenty-fourth second), is used to work on the last function from Section 2 (handling problems) and one body language feature, which is eye contact. Exercises are also provided when needed for reinforcing acquired knowledge and rehearsing for the final practice. Furthermore, definitions and pieces of advice are provided in boxes entitled "Important to Consider" in order to help learners extend their knowledge (linguistic, pragmatic, strategic, and cultural) and engage them in discussions to facilitate task completion.

Section 1, which is titled FUNCTIONS, targets four negotiation skills: suggesting to start business, making an opening statement, responding to an opening statement, and handling problems. In the pre task phase, one starter activity is provided to engage learners in a discussion to share their experiences and opinions. To help manage the task, a list of statements presented in bubbles (see *appendix 12, p. 282*) is provided. To guide and reinforce discussion, a list of questions is also given. The activity is as follows:

**Section one: Functions**

**I- Before watching scenario 1**

- **Read the following quotes then discuss the questions below**.

*Adapted from English for negotiating course book (Lafond, Vine, & Welch, 2010, p. 5) (see appendix *13, p. 283)*.

- Do you agree with these quotes? Explain why.
- Do the quotes best fit the lesson title? Why?
- Name four important things to know about the other side in negotiations.

In the task cycle, the target language and the negotiation skills are worked out through two scenarios. With the first scenario, which is 1 minute and twenty seconds long, learners will work out the functions, the language structures, and two pronunciation features (sentence stress and intonation). Some tips to foster learners' understanding are provided in boxes titled 'Important to consider' as the examples given below.

**II- Now, it is time to watch scenario 1.**

Lin Chan is a sales manager of National Sugar. With her associate John Martin, they are having a meeting with two representatives of a company to negotiate a two-year sales contract.

**Video link:** https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=05uFs8qVCcI

**1- Listen and Discuss.**

**A- Watch** the video and **notice** how they start their meeting to complete the statements.

- Lin starts by ……………………………….
- Victor responds by …………………………
- John asks Sue about ………………………...
- John asks Victor and Sue if they ……………

> **Important to consider:**
>
> The host usually welcomes the visitors and introduces people.
>
> Exchanging small talk helps in creating a positive environment.

**B- Now, discuss** the questions.

- How does Lin signal that it is time to start the negotiations?
- Who made the opening statement? Justify your answer.
- What is Lin's priority?
- What is Victor's position?

> **Important to consider:**
>
> *A priority* is an important *goal*. *A first priority* is the *most important goal*.
>
> *A position* is an *adopted attitude* after the consideration of one's interests.

**2- Listen and Compare.**

- Say '*who*' said that and '*why*'. What would you say if you were the speaker?

| Statement | Who? | Why? | You |
|---|---|---|---|
| *"we see it as an exploratory talk"* | | | |
| *"testing the water you might say"* | | | |
| *"we would need to run it past our board first"* | | | |
| *"of course we understand you need time to consider any offer"* | | | |
| *"my first priority is to keep the negotiations open"* | | | |

Section two, entitled 'LANGUAGE FOCUS', offers a data bank of useful phrases (see *appendix 14, p. 284*) for making suggestions, making and responding to an opening statement, asking open questions for collecting information from the other side, and using diplomatic language for handling problems. Learners are invited to make their own phrases as a training for the final practice. The second scenario, which lasts 25 seconds (i.e., starts at the eighth minute and twenty-fourth second), is used to work on the last function from Section 2 (handling problems). The activities are as follows:

**Section two: Language Focus**

1. Study these data cards of useful phrases. Add two more examples for each meaning expressed (see *appendix 14, p. 284*).

2. Turn the negative language into a positive one (see *appendix 15, p. 286*).

*Adapted from Negotiation course book (Laws, 2000, pp. 118-123)

In Section 3, three pronunciation features are addressed: sentence stress, intonation, and accent. The goal of this section is to raise learners' awareness of the importance of sentence stress and intonation to convey a message effectively. To be practical, a guided role-playing exercise (for the script see *appendix 16, p. 287*), including an audio track of thirty-seven seconds, is provided and recorded to enable learners to correct their tone of voice. The audio track was taken from an application designed to improve BE learners listening skills (TALKENGLISH.com). As to the accent, ear training activities, through a video of 4 minutes and 54 seconds, is also provided to study the Chinese-accented-English features that often cause misunderstandings and misinterpretations in negotiation. The activities of Section three are as follows:

**Section three: Pronunciation Features**

**1- Listen and Practice.**

***Scenario 1 audio track (**time length: 1mn 20sec)
**Video link:** https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=05uFs8qVCcI

**A- Listen** and **notice** that important words in a sentence have more stress.

- *I just want to say we believe we can offer you a very good deal and come up with a win-win result.*
- *My first priority is to keep the negotiations open.*

**B- Listen** and **notice** that statements and (Wh) questions usually have falling intonation whereas Yes / No questions usually have rising intonation

- *You haven't heard our terms yet, you might find them hard to resist.*

- *What's your proposal Ms. Chan?*

- Are you staying for a few days?

- Let's better get down to business?

**Important to consider:**

*Intonation* is the *rising* and *falling pitch* in speaker's voice.

Both *stress* and *intonation* serve to mark significant information and sound like a native speaker.

**Exercise: Role-playing**

- Listen to two people renegotiating terms about delivery fees of office supplies.

**Source**: English Speaking Practice powered by TALKENGLISH.com.

- Now, **practice** with your partner. Exchange roles.

**2- Listen and Explore.**

**Important to consider:**

Most of the time mispronunciation and mishearing can be the prime causes of miscommunication.

In this lecture-video, Tai-Wei Chao is talking about the Chinese negotiating style. At this level of the lesson, we are going to focus only on his English accent.

**Video Link: https://www.coursera.org/lecture/international-negotiation/focus-on-chinese-negotiating-behaviour-czCHY**

**A- Listen** and **focus** on how Tai-Wei pronounces the words in the table below, then **say** how they should be pronounced.

| ***The word(s)*** | **Tai-Wei** | ***You*** |
|---|---|---|
| *grow**th*** | | |
| *b**usi**ness dea**l*** | | |
| *b**ui**ld* | | |
| *equipp**ed*** | | |
| ***wh**y – **wh**at – **wh**ich – **wh**o* | | |
| **h**ow | | |
| **enable** | | |
| **ex**perience | | |
| *pra**c**tice* | | |
| *conte**xts*** | | |
| *ti**me*** | | |

**B- Listen** again and **complete** the statement with the missing part.

- Negotiating in China has become one of the most battlefields for businessmen and women around the world.
- Negotiating business deals in China still pose great intercultural challenges.
- Our experience and result show that being equipped with skill on conducting negotiation in China will enable you to build close relationship with your future Chinese counterparts.
- Therefore you need to practice and sharpen your reading between the lines skills
- Put the words you hear during the negotiation in their unique contexts.
- It is essential to build trust before going to the concrete issue of discussion.
- Don't expect to finalize the deal in the first round of negotiation.
- Taking a time to build relationships even if not doing business within now would be great help for any future dealings.
- Identify the real decision makers and try to influence them.
- Build rapport to assess if their counterparts are trustworthy or not.

The activities in Section 4, which is titled "Discourse Awareness", aim to raise the learners' awareness of the interpretation of two body language features: eye contact and posture. Observation and interpretation are necessary at this level of the lesson. The activities are as follows:

**Section four: Discourse awareness**

**1- Watch and Notice.**

**A-** ***Notice*** the reaction of Victor and Sue when John says:

"*You haven't heard our terms yet - you may find them hard to resist.*"

**Video link:** https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=05uFs8qVCcI

**Video time Length**: 10mn 08sec

**Scenario 1 time length**: 1mn 20sec

**B-** How would you interpret their eye-raised brow? Justify your choice.

- They aren't happy because John didn't listen to what they have said. ☐
- They are happy because John has made an interesting offer. ☐

**C-** Now, ***watch*** another scenario and discover what John and Lin say. ***Notice*** the reaction of their counterparts. ***Focus*** on eye contact and gestures.

*John: I'm sure we'll be able to resolve everything today.*

*Sue: we need to run anything past our board first.*

*Lin: why bother the board we can settle this deal right now.*

*Victor: I'm afraid that won't be possible.*


***Video link:** https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=05uFs8qVCcI

***Video time Length**: 10mn 08sec

***Scenario 2 time length**: 24sec (from the 8th minute 20th second to the 24th second)

**Important to consider:**

It is important to listen to the other sides' interests and priorities.

Good listening is tied with eye contact.

Pay attention to body movements, they can signal the other side's disinterest in the deal.

**D-** Say whether you agree or disagree with these statements. Justify your choice.

| **Body movement signals** | **agree** | **disagree** |
|---|---|---|
| Eye contact promotes trust interest and power of persuasion. | | |
| Soft and steady eye contact encourages the other side to be more receptive to what you are saying. | | |
| Eye contact should be locked to only one person, on the decision-maker, for instance. | | |
| Your posture signals your impression and personality. | | |

**Important to consider:**

Soft and steady eye contact means you are connected and engaged in the conversation. Your eye contact should not be locked to only one person.

Standing with feet apart, straight back and head up gives the impression of self-confidence, authority and honesty.

In section 5, entitled 'Cultural Awareness', awareness-raising activities are given to uncover knowledge gaps about negotiation strategies and cultural differences in negotiations with the Chinese through a video lecture activity.

**Section five: Cultural Awareness**

**Important to consider**

People from different cultures may negotiate in different ways. If they do, you ought to be aware what those differences are (Laws, 2000, p. 107).

- You are going to listen to Tai-Wei Chao again. This time you are going to focus on what he says about the Chinese negotiating behavior. Watch the video to do the activities below.


**Video link:** **https://www.coursera.org/lecture/international-negotiation/focus-on-chinese-negotiating-behaviour-czCHY**

## 1- Listen and Compare.

**A- Listen** to Tai-Wei and **note** four (4) behaviors that characterize the Chinese negotiating style.

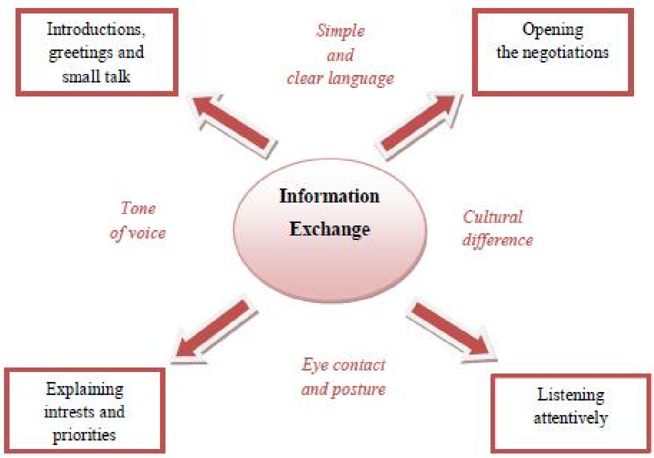
**B-** Compare your negotiating cultural style with the Chinese's one.

| Behavior | They | You |
|---|---|---|
| **Expressing negative meanings** | *use a neutral or positive language* | |
| **Relationship building** | care so much | |
| **Decision making** | *returns to high-ranked people* | |
| **Socializing** | give it importance | |

Section 6, which is titled 'Practice & Self-Assessment', is the final task phase. At this stage of the lesson, the learners are engaged in a practice where they will use their repertoire of experience and knowledge and the knowledge they acquired throughout the lesson activities, which is summarized in Figure 4.7, to create a negotiation scenario relevant to their work context (Figure 4.7). This practice is video-recorded to help them check their progress and provide feedback by answering to a progress checklist (see *appendix 17, p. 288)*. The activities are presented below.

**Section six: Practice & Self-Assessment**

**Figure 4.6** Collected lesson data diagram



**1- Practice**

**A-** You are going to negotiate …………………………… with your Chinese partner for a time period ……………………….. . Prepare your negotiations and ensure that you considered all the data collected in this lesson see (Figure 4.6).

**B-** After doing the practice, the participants are invited to watch their performance for self-evaluation.

**2- Self-assessment**

- **Discuss** your lesson feedback by answering to the following progress checklist.

## 4.4 Conclusion

Chapter Four discussed the importance of the English language in business negotiation to accomplish diverse interaction practices. This, in fact, recommends proficiency in English for specific business purposes (ESBP) attained through ensuring training courses, which are predesigned for job-experienced non-native speakers. These courses target the development of learners' communicative abilities, such as undertaking a meeting successfully, avoiding miscommunication problems, establishing long-term business relationships, and progressing in their career. To this end, a syllabus outline based on a compromise between the tasks-based and the skills-based approaches was presented with a three-phase lesson plan, which involves activities and tasks conceived to fit this category of learners' needs and fill their target language lacks. With the suggested syllabus, the learners' linguistic, discourse, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge are activated and made available for use, raising their discourse and cultural awareness by reviewing features of the target knowledge and integrating them into the learners' existing knowledge in order to finally develop the ability to be mobilized in real-work situations, thereby bringing their skills into play. In sum, the lesson activities and tasks, such as scenarios, role-playing, video analysis, and others, are tailored to boost learners' confidence in handling the target task and uncover the gaps they have in their knowledge.

# General Conclusion

One of the most important skills people can possess in daily life is the ability to negotiate. In the world of business, negotiating skills are used for a variety of reasons, such as 'negotiating a promotion', 'negotiating job benefits', 'making decisions about investments', 'negotiating a merger', or 'making a sale'. All these business communicative events necessitate proficiency in the English language and mastery of communication skills appropriate to the context of interaction.

Literally, negotiation is a business speaking skill, of which mastery of both linguistic and intercultural skills happens to be the utmost, since they intervene as important elements for the ongoing of the negotiating process. And because the economic sector requires linguistically well-trained staff, possessing the effective skills to negotiate projects in English is an essential asset determining business success at both the individual and corporate levels. For this reason, research on the English users' needs to develop these skills is given importance, as needs analysis is relevant to ESP research studies.

The present research shed light on the communication difficulties encountered by Algerian business negotiators when interacting with their economic partners in English. The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which linguistic and intercultural knowledge (communicative competence) might affect the negotiation outcome. To this end, an investigation was conducted from a pedagogical standpoint to find out how Algerian company managers and executives can develop negotiation language skills and uncover the appropriate teaching approach or approaches that can be effective for the design of a business negotiation language syllabus.

Naturally, all types of research need the realization of a theoretical study followed by an empirical one as the continuity of a literature review. This latter part enabled us to dip into previous and current conducted research studies and use their findings as a landmark and support to realize the present work. The practical study, however, highlighted the research work through the data collected and the solutions proposed with the aim to help BE teachers in a way or another better conceive learners' language needs and exploit pedagogical resources for teaching BE for an intercultural business negotiation setting.

In the literature review part presented in chapters one and two, business negotiation was approached as a spoken business English genre, also known as a workplace-spoken genre, a business talk, and a business English speaking skill. By understanding business negotiation as a spoken genre and emphasizing the importance of oral communication and English language skills, negotiators can better equip themselves to advance in their careers and achieve professional success.

The negotiation genre was also approached from a communicative standpoint to prove that both linguistic and non-linguistic skills are necessary to help the negotiator interact effectively with a culturally different business partner and prevent communication breakdown. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of both linguistic and non-linguistic skills in the context of cross-cultural negotiations was conducted to shed light on the multifaceted nature of effective communication in international business. Furthermore, the importance of understanding the cultural context in which communication takes place was highlighted to show that cultural differences can have a significant impact on the effectiveness of communication, as certain gestures or tones of voice may be interpreted differently in different cultures. Therefore, negotiators were encouraged to develop an awareness of cultural norms and adapt their negotiation strategy. This not only fosters better understanding between parties but also helps them build trust and rapport, eventually leading to more successful negotiations.

As regards the linguistic abilities required in business negotiations, both speaking and listening skills were analyzed. The speaking skills include questioning, ensuring clear understanding, bargaining, and persuading, whereas the listening skills involve active listening, and avoiding miscommunication and misunderstanding related to mispronunciation and mishearing problems. It was found that these problems could be overcome through ear training exercises. Non-verbal communication skills, on the other hand, include the command and interpretation of body language and paralanguage signals because what words fail to communicate is expressed with gestures, movements, and voice tone. All these skills were found to be culturally influenced (i.e., context-culture dimension), as culture and communication have been proven to be contextually interrelated in business negotiation. Therefore, sensitiveness and awareness on this issue should be carefully evoked in the ESBP course.

As with all ESP research studies, chapter three included a NA study conducted through a questionnaire used as an instrument of data collection. The questionnaire covered topics that were built on the basis of three research questions. The questions addressed the difficulties that can be encountered when negotiating business issues in English, the necessary skills for appropriate business negotiation in English, and what suitable teaching and learning approaches will help to overcome these difficulties and foster language skills, with an emphasis on the development of business negotiation ability to easily conduct such activities.

Comprising 30 varying questions between open, closed-ended, and rating scales, the survey enabled us to determine the present and target-situation needs of 36 participants from the management staff of five companies and a research center. Pondering the necessity to develop negotiation language proficiency, this environment represented an ideal context to direct the investigation, as they require in one way or another the use of English as the business lingua franca to establish business rapports and partnerships. Moreover, this category of participants is identified according to ESP researchers as job-experienced users of English, given their job task requirements, status, age, and work experience, to name only a few.

The questionnaire results revealed that the target population wants to improve their English language and communication proficiency to become efficient business communicators by sharpening their speaking skills, for example, communicating fluently, making offers and counteroffers appropriately, bargaining, avoiding deadlock, being assertive speakers, and solving all types of misunderstanding problems. The analysis also demonstrated that the participants lack knowledge about body language appropriate use and interpretation, and this eventually might impede their progress in the negotiating process. This, in fact, approved our hypotheses, which were devised to support the research questions. The findings gave evidence to the fact that nonnative speakers frequently encounter miscommunication and misinterpretation problems in business negotiations. By uncovering the linguistic and nonlinguistic factors that intervene in the flow of communication, a syllabus was tailored to fit the participants' needs in business negotiation issues to develop cultural awareness of language use. With a comprehensive approach being skills-based and tasks-based, the suggested framework will provide them with tasks and activities to improve communication and trigger their acquired knowledge, allowing them to improve their business negotiation language skills in effective ways.

Accordingly, chapter four addressed certain important concerns in the teaching of BE in the context of business negotiations, i.e., ESBP. In other words, methodological and pedagogical implications were discussed to refer to the approaches and methodologies, material writing, teacher's roles, objectives, and syllabus design conceived to be applicable in the ESBP course designed for negotiation language teaching and learning. As aforementioned, a framework of a task-based and skills-based syllabus was suggested with a sample lesson. The proposed syllabus contents were organized into three units in terms of the business negotiation phases (i.e. «Starting off», «Discussion» and «Closing the Deal»). Each unit includes two lesson topics, for instance the first unit involves «Exchanging Information» and «Defining Goals», the second unit, «Bidding» and «Bargaining», whereas the last one, «Setting and Implementing the Agreement» and «Concluding». Each lesson is planned in six sections, to name Functions, Language Focus, Pronunciation Features, Discourse Awareness, Cultural Awareness, and Practice and Self-Evaluation, each comprising tasks and activities written in relation to the skills and language functions needed by learners. By its three-phase plan model (i.e. pre-task, task cycle, and post-task), the lesson sample proposes tasks and activities, such as short scenarios, role-plays, pronunciation exercises, video analysis, and others, which are tailored in a way that fits the learners' target needs, in order to boost their confidence in handling the target task, thereby uncovering the gaps they have in their knowledge.

Given importance of the development of the negotiation language skills of a sample population of Algerian negotiators, with the proposed framework, the research work attempted to foster job-experienced learners' linguistic, discourse, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge, making it available for use, besides raising their discourse and cultural awareness. The suggested framework of tasks enables the learners to review features of the target knowledge and integrate them into their previous knowledge in order to, finally, develop an ability to be implemented in real-life negotiation situations. At the end of the training, the learners will be able to communicate fluently, use grammar patterns effectively according to the target situation requirements, pay attention to the other side's verbal and non-verbal messages, and try to decode them to respond appropriately.

In sum, the present research project provided a deeper insight into oral language skills, including speaking and listening, and the way they can be developed in the ESBP training course. Other language skills, such as reading and writing, can be given consideration in the study of business negotiation language skills, as they involve, for instance, writing and responding to emails, designing presentations, taking notes, writing and reading the agreement terms. Furthermore, as vocabulary is a language skill that distinguishes a professional negotiator from a novice, a vocabulary glossary can be elaborated to contain all the words and phrases used in the business negotiation terminology to be intended for both academic and professional use.

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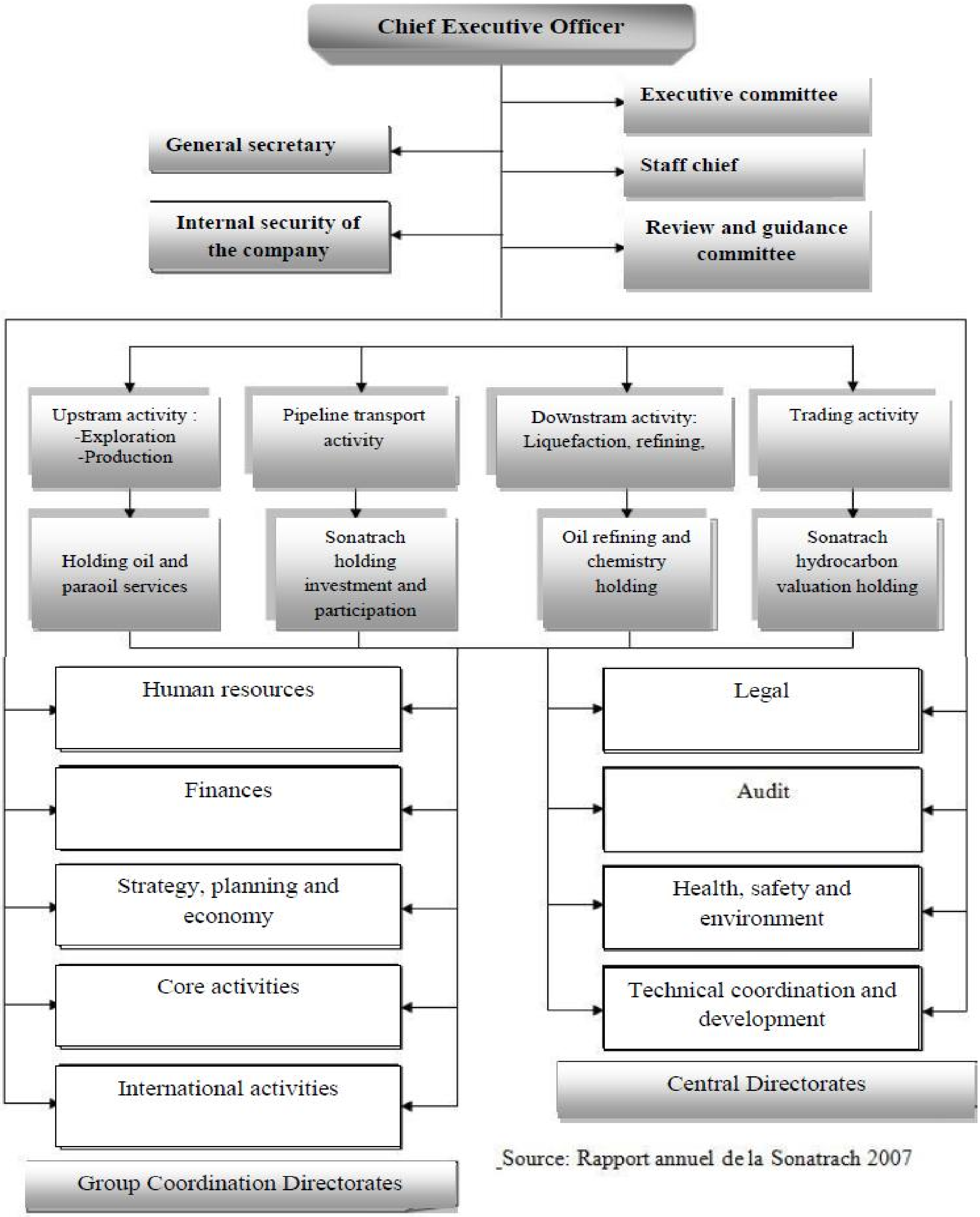
# Appendices

*Appendix 1*

SONATRACH organizational chart




Source: Rapport annuel de la Sonatrach 2007

*Appendix 2*

Business Vocabulary in Use contents (Muscull, 2010, pp. 3-6)

# Contents

## TIME



## MONEY

## PRODUCTS AND SERVICES



## SOCIALIZING

## MEETINGS

*Appendix 3*

Business Vocabulary in Use Intermediate contents (Muscull, 2010, pp. 3-7)

# Contents

## FINANCE AND THE ECONOMY



## DOING THE RIGHT THING



## PERSONAL SKILLS



## CULTURE

***Appendix 4***

Market Leader Elementary Contents (Cotton , Flavey, & Kent, 2004)

# Map of the book

*Appendix 5*

Market Leader Pre intermediate Contents (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2007)

# Map of the book

| | Discussion | Texts | Language work | Skills | Case study |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Unit 1 Careers** page 6 | Discuss ideas about careers | Reading: Response to an advertisement for women tube drivers – *Daily Telegraph* Listening: An interview with the head of a public relations company | 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: memo |
| **Unit 2 Selling online** page 14 | Discuss shopping online | Reading: Virtual pocket money – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with the developer of an online bookshop | 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: e-mail |
| **Unit 3 Companies** page 22 | Discuss types of companies | Reading: A website for a clothing company Listening: An interview with the sales manager of a motorcycle manufacturer | Words for talking about companies Present simple and present continuous | Presenting your company | Valentino Chocolates: Prepare an investment plan Writing: memo |
| **Revision unit A** page 30 | | | | | |
| **Unit 4 Great ideas** page 34 | Discuss ideas | Reading: Three articles about great ideas Listening: An interview with a managing director | Verb and noun combinations Past simple and past continuous | Successful meetings | Fabtek: Choose the best ideas for three new products Writing: memo report |
| **Unit 5 Stress** page 42 | Discuss causes of stress Discuss gender-related qualities Discuss and rank stressful jobs | Reading: A career change – *The Times* 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: memo |
| **Unit 6 Entertaining** page 50 | Discuss corporate entertaining | Reading: Corporate entertaining in Japan – *Financial Times* Listening: An interview with an expert 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: Selling dreams – *Financial Times*<br>Listening: An interview with a marketing vice president | Word partnerships<br>Questions | Telephoning: exchanging information | Kristal Water: Relaunch a product<br>Writing: sales leaflet |
| **Unit 8 Planning** page 70 | Discuss planning | Reading: Brazil tries to kick-start tourism – *Financial Times*<br>Listening: Interview with the leader of expeditions to mountains | Words for talking about planning<br>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<br>Writing: letter |
| **Unit 9 Managing people** page 78 | Discuss qualities and skills of a good manager | Reading: The international manager<br>Listening: Interview with a management consultant | Verbs and prepositions<br>Reported speech | Socialising and entertaining | The way we do things: Improve ways of working together<br>Writing: memo |
| **Revision unit C** page 86 | | | | | |
| **Unit 10 Conflict** page 90 | Quiz on managing conflict | Reading: Four articles about negotiating styles – *Financial Times*<br>Listening: Interview with a management consultant | Word building<br>Conditionals | Negotiating: dealing with conflict | European Campers: Negotiate a solution to a problem with an employee<br>Writing: letter |
| **Unit 11 New business** page 98 | Discuss conditions for starting new businesses and public and private sector companies | Reading: Developing a new industry – *Financial Times*<br>Listening: Interview with a consultant to new businesses | Economic terms<br>Time clauses | Dealing with numbers | Marcia Lee Jeans: Choose a location for a new factory<br>Writing: letter |
| **Unit 12 Products** page 106 | Discuss your favourite products | Reading: Launching a new product – *Financial Times*<br>Listening: Five people talk about the best thing they have ever bought | Adjectives for products<br>Passives | Presenting a product | Minerva A.G.: Choose innovative products for a store<br>Writing: report |
| **Revision unit D** page 114 | | | | | |

**Activity file:** page 136 **Audio scripts:** page 143 **Glossary of business terms:** page 153

*Appendix 6*

Market Leader Intermediate Contents (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2010)

# Contents

## *Appendix 7*

Market Leader Intermediate Unit 9: Listening and Skills sections (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2010, pp. 87-8)





**LISTENING**
**Training for negotiating**

Andy Simmons

**A** CD2.18 **Andy Simmons is a partner at The Gap Partnership and is an expert on negotiating. Listen to the first part of the interview. What three things does Andy say are important in negotiating?**

**B** CD2.19 **Listen to the second part and complete the gaps.**

In fact, this concept of ............[1] – that's what we teach – says that there is no one way, there are many ............[2] ways, ranging from the very ............[3], very high-............[4] negotiations that are generally win–lose, all the way through to the very, very ............[5] negotiations, which are deemed as ............[6]. And there's no right or ............[7], or there's no good or bad, it's just what's appropriate to the ............[8].

**C** CD2.20 **Listen to the final part and answer the questions.**

1 What behaviours are appropriate for being a good negotiator?
2 How do you tell if there is more scope for negotiation?

**D** **Discuss the questions.**

1 What do you think makes a really good negotiator?
2 Do you prefer high-conflict win–lose negotiations or cooperative win–win negotiations?
3 How common is negotiating in your country?

*Watch the interview on the* ***DVD-ROM.***

**SKILLS**
**Negotiating**

**A** **Work in pairs. Try to sell something you have on you (a watch, bracelet, etc.) or a household object to your partner.**

**B** **Discuss the questions.**

1 Were you pleased with the outcome of the negotiation in Exercise A?
2 What strategy or tactics did your partner use to achieve his/her objective?

**C** **In his book *The Art of Winning*, Harry Mills says that most negotiations have seven stages. These are listed below, but in the wrong order. Put the stages in order. What word do the initial letters of the stages spell?**

- **Tie up loose ends**
  Confirm what has been agreed. Summarise the details on paper.
- **Explore each other's needs**
  Build rapport. State your opening position. Learn the other side's position.
- **Ready yourself**
  Prepare your objectives, concessions and strategy. Gather information about the other side.
- **Probe with proposals**
  Make suggestions and find areas of agreement.
- **Close the deal**
  Bring the negotiation to a clear and satisfactory end.
- **Signal for movement**
  Signal that you are prepared to move from your original position. Respond to signals from the other side.
- **Exchange concessions**
  Give the other side something in return for something you need or want.







**D** CD2.21 **Listen to seven extracts from a negotiation between two buyers from an exclusive department store in Moscow and Pierlucci, an Italian supplier of leather goods. Match each extract (1–7) to one of the stages of Harry Mills's list (a–g).**

| | |
|---|---|
| Extract 1 | a) Tie up loose ends |
| Extract 2 | b) Probe with proposals |
| Extract 3 | c) Ready yourself |
| Extract 4 | d) Close the deal |
| Extract 5 | e) Explore needs |
| Extract 6 | f) Signal for movement |
| Extract 7 | g) Exchange concessions |

**E** **Study the Useful language box below, then role-play these negotiations. Try to get a good outcome in each situation.**

Student A: Look at this page.
Student B: Look at page 138.

**Student A**

1 **You are a handbag supplier.**

Because there is strong demand for your new range of handbags, you want to:

- increase your list prices by 20%
- increase your delivery time to three weeks
- only offer the buyer a one-year contract.

2 **You are an agent for an overseas kitchen equipment company.**

You exceeded your sales target by 25% last year. You want the company to:

- increase your commission on sales from 5% to 10%
- invite you for a visit to their head office and pay all the expenses of the trip
- make you an exclusive agent for their goods
- offer you a five-year contract.

**USEFUL LANGUAGE**

| STARTING POSITIONS | MAKING OFFERS AND CONCESSIONS | REFUSING AN OFFER | PLAYING FOR TIME | FOLLOWING UP THE DEAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| We'd like to reach a deal with you today. | If you order now, we'll give you a discount. | I'm not sure about that. | I'd like to think about it. I'll have to consult | Let me know if there are any problems. |

## *Appendix 8*

**Questionnaire**

- This questionnaire is addressed to English users for professional business purposes.
- The objective of the present study is to analyze Algerian multinational company managers' and high executives' communication strengths and weaknesses while negotiating joint ventures in English.
- The results of this questionnaire will serve as data for the design of a BE training course to develop both their linguistic and intercultural competences to negotiate in English successfully and avoid linguistic and non-linguistic deficiency.
- We assure the respondents that all answers are treated confidentially as data collection for doctoral research.
- A French version is also submitted in case there is a misunderstanding of the technical terms, however; I would be grateful if the answers are given in English.

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

**Huge thanks for your cooperation**

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

**Gender:** ○ **Male** ○ **Female**

**Age:**

**Job title:**

**Company:**

**Educational Level:**

**English Level:** ☐Beginners ☐Elementary ☐Intermediate ☐Upper Intermediate ☐Advanced

**Professional Experience:** ---------------- years

***The details above do not constitute basis for data analysis.**

***Quote the answer that suits you the most.**

**1**- How do you extract the most useful information from the other party's messages?

○ **a**- By asking pertinent questions

○ **b**- By listening carefully and taking notes

○ **c**- By observing body language

○ **d**- Other

…………………………………………………………………………………………………..

**2**- Do you find difficulties in formulating your offers?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**3**- **If yes,** how often do you have difficulties to formulate your offers?

○ **Rarely** ○ **Sometimes** ○ **Often** ○ **Always**

**4**- **If no,** what sentence do you think best expresses an offer?

○ **a**- What if we agree to a two-year contract? Would you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory?

○ **b**- We agree to a two-year contract except if you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory?

○ **c**- If you give us exclusive distribution rights in your territory then we agree to a two-year contract.

○ **d**- Other

**Your form:** ……………………………………………………………

**5**- Do you find difficulties in expressing disagreement appropriately without offending the other party?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**6**- **If yes,** to which extent do you find it difficult?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**7**- **If no,** do you express disagreement openly?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**8**- If you do not want to express it openly, how would you hint your disagreement?

○ **a**- By a gesture or a body movement

○ **b**- By a verbal signal such as "Ok, let's review our discussion points"

○ **c**- By raising your tone of voice

○ **d**- Other

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

9- Which sentence do you think best expresses a disagreement resolution?

○ **a-** I do have a few concerns that we need to address before to sign the contract.

○ **b-** I feel we should address a few concerns before to sign the contract.

○ **c-** Other

………………………………………………………………………………………………………

**10-** How important do you think clear understanding should be ensured between parties?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**11-** Do you use techniques to avoid misunderstanding?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**12-** How do you show the other party that you have clearly understood the message?

○ **a-** By using a body movement such as thumb finger to the top or head nodding

○ **b-** By repeating his statement such as "If I understand you correctly, what you are really saying is …"

○ **c-** You do not think you need to show it

○ **d-** Other

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

**13-** Before receiving a partner from a foreign country or before travelling abroad to meet your partner, do you think about the cultural issues that may affect your relationship?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**14-** To which extent do you think body language is important in business negotiations?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**15-** You are discussing the terms of a proposed contract with the Chinese, how would you interpret these behaviors?

❖ Widening of eyes :

○ **a-** An expression of astonishment

○ **b-** A danger signal

○ **c-** A politely expressed anger

○ **d-** Other

………………………………………………………………………………

❖ Head nodding

○ **a-** An expression of agreement or disagreement

○ **b-** An expression of clear understanding

○ **c-** A rejection of the offer

○ **d-** Other

………………………………………………………………………………

❖ Laughter

○ **a-** A sign of agreement

○ **b-** A sign of misunderstanding

○ **c-** A sign of embarrassment

○ **d-** Other

……………………………………………………………………………………

**16**- Do you use non-verbal language to communicate a message (e.g., disagreement, refusal or disinterest) to the other party?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**17**- What kind of non-verbal language do you use?

○ **a-** Eye contact

○ **b-** Body movement

○ **c-** Tone of voice

○ **d-** All

○ **e-** Other

…………………………………………………………………………………

**18**- Do you think that cultural differences can affect business partnership?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**19**- To which extent do you think knowledge of verbal and non-verbal language in business negotiations is important?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**20**- Have you ever received a training course on using and interpreting body language?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**21**- Have you ever received a business English course?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**22**- If yes, where did you receive it?

○ **a-** At the university

○ **b-** At a private school

○ **c-** At work

○ **d-** Other

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**23**- Would you please mention the course period: ........................................................

**24**- Has the course been useful in your career?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**25-** **If yes,** to which extent has it been useful?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**26-** Did the course train you on how to negotiate successfully in English?

○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**27-** **If yes,** to which extent did the course help you become efficient in negotiations?

○ **Extremely** ○ **Very** ○ **More or less** ○ **Not at all**

**28-** **If no**, do you think receiving a course on how to negotiate effectively in English will be useful in your case? ○ **Yes** ○ **No**

**29-** **If yes,** what competences do you think you need to develop to negotiate successfully in English?

○ **a-** To be fluent and quick for communicating

○ **b-** To use grammar and vocabulary accurately for making offers and bargaining

○ **c-** To read and interpret body language appropriately

○ **d-** To know techniques for avoiding misunderstanding

○ **e-** To use appropriate language to settle disagreement

○ **f-** All

○ **g-** Others

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**30-** **From 1 to 5,** how would you order these competences from the most to the least you need to develop?

☐ **a-** To be fluent and quick for communicating

☐ **b-** To use grammar and vocabulary accurately for making offers and bargaining

☐ **c-** To read and interpret body language appropriately

☐ **d-** To know techniques for avoiding misunderstanding

☐ **e-** To use appropriate language to settle disagreement

*Please, would you like to add your comments on the questionnaire?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………………..

***Thank you***

*Appendix 9*

Comparison between BE categories of learners (Osborne , 2005, p. 104)



| | Pre-experience students | Students in work |
|---|---|---|
| *Work experience* | No | Yes |
| *Needs* | General needs | Usually have very specific needs connected with their work |
| *Knowledge of business concepts* | Depends on age | Yes |
| *Understanding of business skills (e.g. meetings)* | Usually not – depends on age | Yes |
| *Business skills training courses* | Usually not | Sometimes |
| *Communication skills training courses* | Usually not | Sometimes |
| *Motivation for learning* | Usually want English to improve their prospects in the job market | Usually have very specific reasons connected with their current or new jobs |
| *Objectives for the course* | Usually general objectives | Specific objectives |
| *Expectations* | Can range from high to low | Can be extremely high due to time pressures |
| *The four skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening)* | May want to focus more on written English than students already in jobs | Emphasis on speaking and listening |
| *Age* | Young | Usually 25+ |
| *Time pressure* | Usually not | Yes. Many feel under pressure to make progress quickly |
| *Working to objectives* | Not used to working to objectives | Used to working to objectives |
| *Autonomy in the classroom* | Have few problems with the teacher being in the 'driving seat' | Some students are used to being in control and have difficulty in relinquishing it to a teacher |

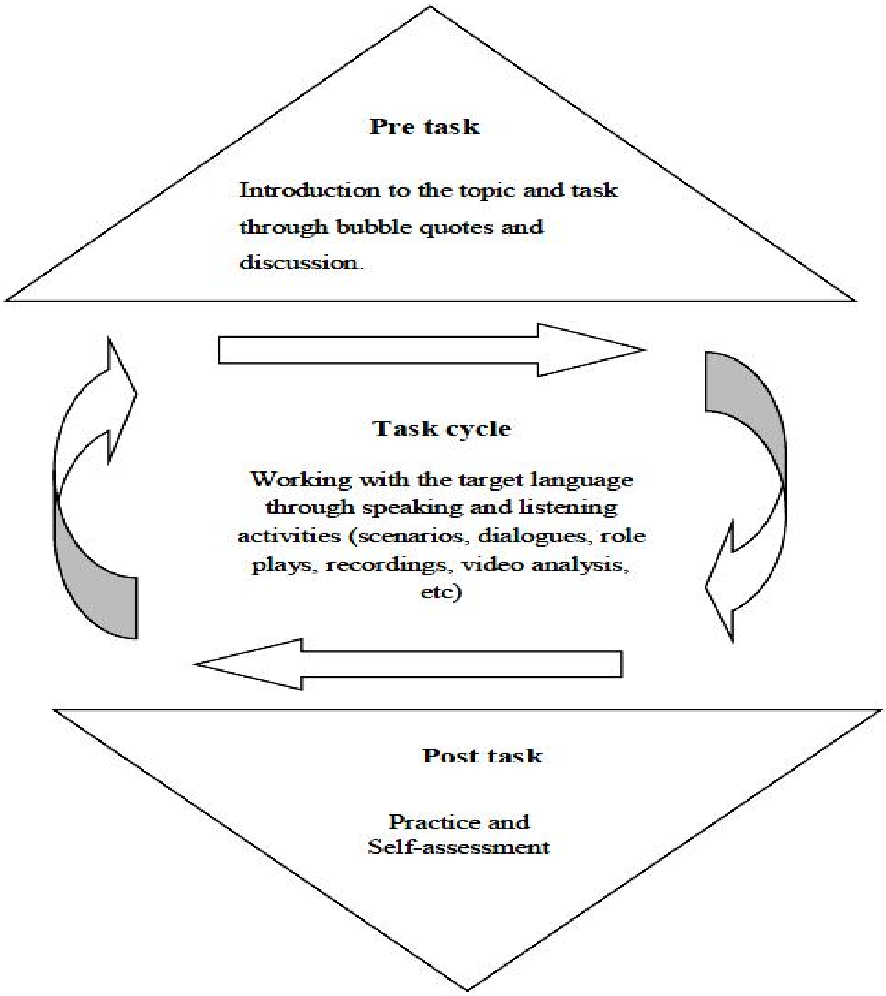
## *Appendix 10*

The proposed syllabus contents

| | Skills & Topics | Functions | Language Focus | Pronunciation Features | Discourse Awareness | Cultural Awareness | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unit one:<br>Starting off | Exchanging Information | -Suggesting to start business<br>-Making an opening statement<br>-Responding to an opening statement<br>-Handling problems | -Useful phrases<br>-Phrasal verbs<br>-Open questions<br>-Diplomatic language | -Stress and Intonation<br>- Articulation<br>-Accent | - Body language<br>-Communication strategies<br>Turn taking rules | Negotiating with the Chinese | Practice and Self—evaluation |
| | Defining goals | -Explaining interests<br>-Checking and clarifying | -Open-ended questions<br>-Extension questions | | | | |
| Unit two:<br>Discussion | Bidding | -Making initial offers or proposals<br>-Responding to proposals<br>-Responding to counterproposals | -Opinion seeking questions | | | Negotiating with the Americans | |
| | Bargaining | -Arguing the case<br>-Persuading<br>-Linking offers to conditions<br>-Making offers and counteroffers<br>-Making and responding to concessions | -Hypothetical questions<br>-Probing / conditional questions<br>-Diplomatic language<br>-Assertive language | | | | |
| Unit three:<br>Closing the deal | Settling & Implementing the agreement | -Setting agreement<br>-Summarizing details | -Reflective summary questions | | | Negotiating with the Italians | |
| | Concluding | -Arranging future actions<br>-Ending the negotiation | -Closing questions<br>-Useful phrases | | | | |

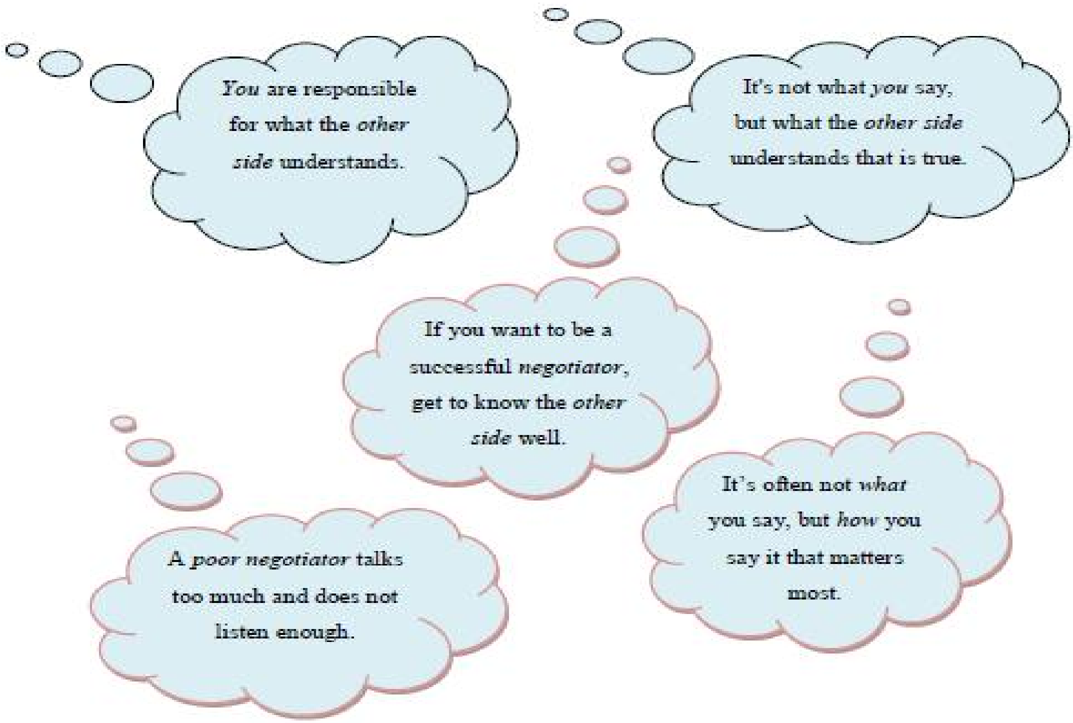
***Appendix 11***

Lesson one task-based plan



*Appendix 12*

***Pre-task phase: Starter Activity 1 adapted from English for negotiating course book***
(Lafond, Vine, & Welch, 2010, p. 5)



## *Appendix 13*

Starter activity by Lafond *et al.,* (Lafond, Vine, & Welch, 2010, p. 5)



# 1 Preparation

**STARTER** **Read the following quotes.**

In business, you don't get what you deserve, you get what you negotiate. (Chester L. Karass)

The fellow who says he'll meet you halfway usually thinks he's standing on the dividing line. (Orlando A. Battista)

Let us never negotiate out of fear. But let us never fear to negotiate. (J.F. Kennedy)

To be successful, you have to relate to people ... (George Ross)

Failing to plan is planning to fail. (Anonymous)

- Do you agree with these quotes? Explain why. Give examples from your own experience.
- Which of the quotes best fits the unit title? Why?
- Why do we negotiate? Can you think of three reasons?

*Appendix 14*

***Data Cards***

*Making a suggestion* to mean *"it's time to talk business"*

**Well, we'd better get down to business.*

**Shall we get down to business?*

**Well, how about to get down to business?*

**Your suggestion**:

……………………………………………

…………………………………………… ?

*Making an opening statement* means you should tell the other side what you are expecting to get out from the meeting.

**Let me start off by saying …*

**I'd like to begin by saying …*

**Let me kick things off by saying …*

*Your statements:*

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

*Responding to an opening statement*

**Well, from our point of view …*

**Our position is that …*

**From our perspective …*

**As far as we're concerned …*

*Your response:*

……………………………………………

……………………………………………………

*Open questions*

Ask open questions when you want detailed information: Why? What? When? How? How much?

** What is your proposal Ms. Chan?*

** Why is that important to you?*

** Who are the key managers in your company?*

** When can we expect our first delivery?*

**Your questions:**

………………………………………………………………………………?

………………………………………………………………………………?

*Diplomatic language*

Use diplomatic language to handle problems and keep the negotiations ongoing.

* *"of course we understand you need time to consider any offer"*
* *"I understand you are not going to agree at this meeting"*

*Appendix 15*

***Blunt language versus negative language exercise***

| *Do not say this* | *It is better to say this* |
|---|---|
| Your suggestion is totally out of the question. | ………………… ……………….. |
| I cannot accept that. | …………… …………… |
| I do not understand what you are trying to say. | ………………… ……………….. |
| This is very confusing. | ……………… ……………… |

*Adapted from Negotiation course book (Laws, 2000, pp. 118-123)

*Appendix 16*

***Role playing script***

Conversations About Delivery Fees

Renegotiating Terms

**Customer**: I need to place another order of office supplies.

**Sales clerk**: I can help you with that.

**Customer**: I notice we are paying a lot for delivery charges each month.

**Sales clerk**: We can give you a discount depending on how much you order per month.

**Customer**: We've been a good customer for over five years.

**Sales clerk**: Yes, I see your order history.

**Customer**: Can you waive the delivery fee for all future orders?

**Sales clerk**: I don't know if I can do that. I will talk to my manager and get back to you.

**Customer**: We would love to continue doing business with you, but your delivery fees are too expensive.

**Sales clerk**: I understand. I will call you back as soon as possible.

00:00

***Appendix 17***

Progress checklist

- **How well can I use a variety of language patterns to**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ suggest starting business?
  - ✓ state my opening statement?
  - ✓ talk about position and first priority clearly?
  - ✓ respond to an opening statement?

- **How well can I**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ turn negative language to diplomatic language and handle problems?
  - ✓ Ask open questions for details?

- **How well can I**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ use stress and intonation in a sentence appropriately to mark significant information and sound like a native speaker?
  - ✓ understand a Chinese speaker's English accent identifying mispronounced words?

- **How well can I**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ consider eye-contact and posture?
  - ✓ listen attentively, observe and understand the other side's non-verbal signals?

- **How well can I**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ figure out the Chinese cultural negotiating behavior?

- **How well can I**

**Very well** **A little** **Not very well**

  - ✓ negotiate with Chinese counterparts without language and cultural misunderstanding and achieve a win-win result?