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การสะท้อนความคิดในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ
เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะในมุมมองทางต้นภาษาและวัฒนธรรม

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มหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น

บทคัดย่อ

บทความนี้มุ่งศึกษาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการเจรจาต่อรองในบริบทของไทย บนพื้นฐานแนวคิดทางต้นภาษาเพื่อวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะ นอกจากมุมมองทางต้นภาษา ผู้เขียนได้อภิปรายมุมมองทางด้านวัฒนธรรมเพื่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการเจรจาต่อรองข้ามวัฒนธรรม นอกจากนี้ ผู้เขียนยังได้นำเสนอแนวความคิดในการสร้างแบบทดสอบเฉพาะ อันจะนำไปสู่การขยายผลต่อยอดแนวความคิดในการสร้างข้อสอบหรือเอกสารประกอบการสอนที่เกี่ยวข้องในรูปแบบอื่นๆ ต่อไป ในประเด็นดังกล่าวนี้ ผู้เรียนจะสามารถพัฒนาตนเองให้เกิดศักยภาพสูงสุดในการแข่งขันกับบัณฑิตจากสถาบันการศึกษาอื่นในกลุ่มประเทศเอเชียตะวันออกเฉียงใต้ในการประกอบอาชีพต่อไปในภาคหน้า

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English for Negotiation in the Thai Context: Reflections on Teaching ESP in the Aspects of Language and Culture*

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Abstract

This article mainly focuses on teaching English for negotiation in Thailand based on the concept of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Apart from the language, cultural aspects are discussed to provide insights into teaching negotiating across cultures. The writer also provides guidance to lecturers and teachers in Thailand and illustrates how to create a specific test of English for negotiation for Thai learners which will lead to further teaching concepts in relation to designing specific and purposive tests or producing others related materials. In this regard, students can develop themselves to their fullest potential to enable them to compete with graduates from other institutions and other countries in South East Asia for their future careers.

Keywords ; English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Negotiation, Thai culture, Thai context

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1. Introduction

The era of globalization entails cross-cultural and transnational communication. Global communication does not merely require global language but also the cultural sensitivity which includes cultural awareness (recognizing differences) and cultural flexibility (overcoming ethnocentricity). All techniques and methods are a response to a particular situation.

When considering the situation of ESP in Thailand, it cannot be denied that teaching negotiating English for Thai learners requires both language and cultural aspects if Thai negotiators have to communicate with people from other countries who have different ways of thinking. As non-native speakers (NNSs), Thais may wish to effectively communicate with people from other cultures, but not necessarily like native speakers (NSs). In this regard, they need to learn to use international English and possess cultural competence.

2. The Concept of ESP

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), English for Specific Purposes has become a vital and innovative activity within the Teaching of English as a foreign language movement (TEFL/TESL). For much of its early life, ESP was dominated by the teaching of English for academic purposes (EAP); most of the materials produced, the course descriptions written and the research carried out were in the area of EAP. English for occupational purposes (EOP) played an important but nevertheless smaller role. In recent years, however, the massive expansion of international business has led to a huge growth in the area of English for Business Purposes (EBP).

(Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998)

3. Studies on English for Business Purposes (EBP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) shed light on the presentation of the whole of English Language Teaching on a continuum that runs from clearly definable general English courses through very specific ESP courses as follows:

- Position 1: English for Beginners
- Position 2: Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on particular skills
- Position 3: EGAP/EGBP courses based on common-core language and skills not relate to specific disciplines or professions
- Position 4: Courses for broad disciplinary areas, for example Report Writing for Scientists and Engineers, Medical English, Legal English, Negotiation/Meeting Skills for Business People
- Position 5: 1) An ‘academic support’ course related to a particular academic course. 2) one-to-one work with business people.

(Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998, p. 9)

Characteristics of Business English

Most English-medium communications in business are non-native speakers to non-native speakers (NNS-NNS), and the English they use is international English, not that of native speakers (NS) of English-medium countries such as the UK and Australia. The term ‘offshore English’ is used for the English spoken between Europeans who do not share first language and have learned English for practical rather than academic purposes (cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, pp. 53-54).

Grammar in Business English

Business grammar reference books place emphasis on the verb form, especially tense and voice; then on modals and verbs of saying, reporting and the difference between make and do, have, have got and got. Additionally, business verbs are accept, advise, agree, confirm, consider, explain, invite, object, offer, order, point out,

propose, query, recommend, refuse, reject, remind, reply, respond, say, speak, talk, tell and wonder.

In addition, the list of some key functions of Business English which are expected to see such as ability and inability, agreeing and disagreeing is presented. These are relevant to a general English course as well as a Business English course. These are also interesting additions to the standard list of functions that are clearly very relevant to a BE course, assertion and downtoning and checking and confirming (cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 79).

In conclusion, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) discussed the theories and practices as follows:

An EBP teacher is not a business person and does not need to be one. What EBP teachers need, just like any ESP teachers, is to understand the interface between business principles and language. What do learners do in their jobs? What are the fundamental concepts and attitudes? What do people communicate about and how do they go about it? ‘Shadowing’ business people (that is, following them around, listening and observing) can be a fascinating learning experience (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 70).

4. The Teaching of Vocabulary in ESP

Six categories of vocabulary, all of which relate to EAP, are listed. They are:

1. items which express notions general to all specialized discipline;
2. general language items that have a specialized meaning in one or more disciplines;
3. specialized items that have different meanings in different disciplines;
4. general language items that have restricted meanings in different disciplines;

5. general language items that are used to describe or comment on technical process or functions in preference to other items with the same meaning, for example occur rather than happen;
6. items used to signal the writer's intentions or evaluation of material presented.

(cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 82)

It is important to distinguish between vocabulary need for comprehension and that needed for production. In comprehension, deducing the meaning of vocabulary from the context and from the structure of the actual word is the most important method of learning new vocabulary.

Situational, semantic and metaphor sets

The use of word meaning is the key to successful retrieval and that meaning can be presented in the form of semantic, situational and metaphor sets. The retrieval of a vocabulary item from memory is aided by the grouping of words according to their meaning. This may be according to the topic (situational sets), so that the words associated with a library such as book, shelf, borrow, loan period, fine and so on can be taught together. Or it may be according to chains of association (semantic sets) so that synonyms (for example dear, expensive), antonyms (high quality, low quality) superordinates and subordinates terms (vehicle, car) are taught. Alternatively, retrieval may be aided by metaphor.

These examples have clear implications for the teaching of vocabulary and argue for materials that encourage learners to their own sets. They also justify the syllabuses that are built on notions; one of the perhaps understated strength of using notions such as cause and effect, measurement, quantity and structure is that each one brings together vocabulary items that naturally belong in sets.

Collocation and the use of corpora

Collocation describes the company that a word keeps; from this we can examine lexical sets, a family of words the members of which collocate with each other, for example strong and powerful which both collocate with argument. This leads to the notion of lexical phrases, certain phrases that always appear in the same form (cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 85).

Lexical phrases

Research into vocabulary learning has also suggested that learners do not store vocabulary as individual words, but as chunks of language. We will refer to these chunks as lexical phrases, short set phrases that are frequently used in certain situations. In ESP, phrases such as ‘*the table suggest that ..., as shown in the diagram, sales fell sharply*’ are examples (cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 86).

To sum up, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) mentioned that most ESP literature agrees on the need for teaching such vocabulary and the importance of the teaching of vocabulary in ESP is now widely accepted. The major concern will be with what is referred to in EAP as semi-technical vocabulary (or occasionally sub-technical vocabulary) and in EBP as core business vocabulary.

5. The ESP practitioner

The ESP practitioner as teacher

ESP teachers also need to have a great deal of flexibility, be willing to listen to learners, and to take an interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in. They must be ready to change tack in a lesson to take account of what comes up, and to think and respond rapidly to events. ESP teachers must also be happy to take some risks in their teaching. The willingness to be flexible and to take risks is one of the keys to success in ESP teaching.

The ESP practitioner as course designer and materials provider

ESP practitioners often have to plan the course they teach and provide the materials for it. It is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material, and sometimes no really suitable published material exists for certain of the identified needs. The role of ESP teachers as ‘providers of material’ thus involves choosing suitable published material, adapting material when published material is not suitable, or even writing material where nothing suitable exists.

The ESP practitioner as researcher

ESP teachers need to be aware of and in touch with this research. Those carrying out a needs analysis, designing a course, or writing teaching materials need to be able to incorporate the findings of the research, and those working in specific ESP situations need to be confident that they know what is involved in skills such as written communication. An ESP practitioner has to go beyond the first stage of Needs Analysis – Target Situation Analysis (TSA) which identifies key target events, skills and texts – to observe as far as possible the situations in which students use the identified skills, and analyse samples of the identified texts. As part of this process, ESP teachers generally need to be able to carry out research to understand the discourse of the texts that students use.

The ESP practitioner as evaluator

Evaluating course design and teaching materials should be done while the course is being taught, at the end of the course and after the course has finished. It is important to follow up with students some time after the course in order to assess whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for. Evaluation through discussion and on-going needs analysis can thus be used to adapt the syllabus. In many situations the evaluation forms the basis of ‘negotiation’ with students about their feelings about the course, their needs and priorities, which are then fed into the next stage of the course. These steps

are all part of ‘formative’ evaluation.

(Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, pp. 13-17)

However, the responsibilities for ESP practitioner mentioned in this part may depend on the teaching contexts according to different cultures, specifically designed classroom as well as language courses for particular purposes.

6. Cultural Aspects

In terms of global business transactions, it is suggested that intercultural sensitivity can be improved by recognizing *contextual differences* as noted by Bovee, et al (2003):

“In a high-context culture such as South Korea or Taiwan, people rely less on verbal communication and more on the context of nonverbal actions and environmental setting to convey meaning. A Chinese speaker expects the receiver to discover the essence of a message and uses indirectness and metaphor to provide a web of meaning. In high-context cultures, the rules of every life are rarely explicit; instead, as individuals grow up, they learn how to recognize situational cues (such as gestures and tone of voice) and how to respond as expected”.

“In a low-context culture such as the United States or Germany, people rely more on verbal communication and less on circumstances and cues to convey meaning. An English speaker feels responsible for transmitting the meaning of the message and often places sentences in chronological sequence to establish a cause-and-effect pattern. In a low-context culture, rules and expectations are usually spelled out through explicit statements such as “Please wait until I’m finished” or “You’re welcome to browse”. Contextual differences are apparent in the way cultures approach situations such as decision making, problem solving, and negotiating”.

Negotiating Styles

Canadian, German, and U.S. negotiators tend to take a relatively impersonal view of negotiations. Members of these low-context cultures see their goals in economic terms and usually presume the other party is trustworthy, at least at the outset. In contrast, high-context Japanese negotiators prefer a more sociable negotiating atmosphere that is conducive to forging personal ties as the basis for trust. To high-context negotiators, achieving immediate economic gains is secondary to establishing and maintaining a long-term relationship.

(Bovee, et al 2003: 52-59)

In fact, highly individualistic cultures are ‘I’ cultures and include the USA, Canada, Australia, and Great Britain. Low individualistic, highly collective cultures are ‘we’ cultures such as Central American, South American and Asian countries; the group (for example the family) is more important than the individual. High masculinity is associated with competitiveness – as in Japan, Australia, Switzerland; while in low masculinity cultures, relationships, welfare and social justice are valued – as in Scandinavian countries and Canada (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, pp. 68-69).

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) also discussed using English for cross-cultural communication that business English has been much more open than EAP to the idea that there is variation between different cultures but it is only recently that this factor has really begun to affect teaching materials and course content. A sensitivity to differences between cultures is necessary for successful business communications in matters such as the purpose of meetings, the use of direct or indirect negotiation tactics, the structuring of information or the use of politeness strategies in letters or meetings.

All communication is cross-cultural in that each individual is unique. At the moment most cross-cultural work in BE consists of discussing issues with attention focused on national characteristics. However, we need to extend this to how different

professional culture and gender affect language use. One vital question for BE teachers is the extent to which the language taught is appropriate for an English-speaking culture, the learners' culture or the culture within which the business transactions will take place. EGBP textbooks teach expressions such as 'Could you possibly ...?', 'Do you mind my asking if ...?' , 'If it's alright with you ...?' These represent the indirectness of British culture. The first question that needs to be asked is: To what extent do British business people actually use these? How authentic are they? The second question is, even if British business people do use them, does a speaker from another, more direct culture want to? 'Will you ...?' fits the culture better than 'Could you possibly ...?' then that may be the appropriate language. Likewise 'I can't agree may be uncomfortable where face savings is important.

Deciding what is a suitable strategy in a given situation, for example how to break a deadlock in a negotiation, is not the job of the BE teacher. It is his or her job, however, to understand that such a strategy has to be chosen and how it will affect the language used. Class activities need to raise these issues in the preparation phase so that learners can decide on their approach and assess their communication accordingly. The language that would be appropriate for each group will differ with their strategy (Dudley-Evans, & ST John, 1998, pp. 69-70).

7. Teaching English for Negotiating and International Negotiations

In this part, I would like to base my assumptions on the notion that English is not the language spoken by the majority of people in the world but it is frequently the language used in global business. Therefore, it is very important for native English speakers to consider the fact that the extent to which it is understood and spoken may vary widely and the degree to which those concerned with business transactions speak English may also vary by region, occupation, educational background, level of international experience, etc. Native or bilingual English speakers should learn to adjust

the way that they speak when interacting with those who are less fluent in order to facilitate successful communication and prevent or minimize communication breakdowns.

According to Dignen (2011), an activity in class can be suggested as the following:

Negotiation Role A:

You are an HR manager with global responsibilities. You are going to meet with a staff member (Student B) to discuss the terms of his / her contract for a six-month posting to Sydney, Australia. The position abroad is part of a job rotation programme in the company. The staff member does not have to accept the contract. However, you want him / her to accept because you believe it is important to develop the career of people in the company in this way. Budget for this job rotation program is limited so you may have a problem to persuade the person to accept a short-term contract with no extra financial benefits. You think their objectives may be more financial than concerned with career development.

Your objective: To support career development that benefits the company long term.

Common Objective: The staff member should receive a contract which they are happy with and which motivates them in the new role.

Your agenda: 1) Clarify the responsibilities of the new job. 2) Agree a salary (no extra compensation package). 3) Decide who will handle B's job while they are in Australia.

Issues to be discussed: Financial support for accommodation

Logistics: You have only 45 minutes for this meeting.

(Adapted from Dignen, 2011, p. 88)

Negotiation Role B:

You are staff member in a large international company and you are going to meet the HR director (Student A) to discuss the possibility of six-month posting to Sydney, Australia. The position abroad is part of a job rotation program in the company. You are interested but only if the conditions are right. You do not have to accept the position but you know that your line manager and the international HR manager are hoping you will do so. You would like a financial incentive to go and live in a foreign country for six months. You know that when you come back, you will have a lot of work to catch up in your old job.

You would like to open the meeting with a short summary of your reasons for working abroad just to clarify expectations.

Your adjective: To clarify the reasons for going to Australia and to clarify the terms of the contract.

Your agenda: 1) Clarify the timing of the posting (when will you have to go / for how long / is it possible to extend, etc.). 2) Discuss the responsibilities of the new job. 3) Agree a salary plus extra compensation package including support package for accommodation – renting is very expensive in Sydney.

Issues: Who will be doing your job while you are away?

Logistics: You have set aside 90 minutes for this meeting.

(Adapted from Dignen, 2011, p. 91)

From this suggested activity, students need to prepare for the introduction phase to a negotiation with someone from their own organization. They also plan what they will say to clarify a common objective and agenda for the negotiation. Then, they role play the opening stage of the negotiation by using some expressions they have learned in class.

8. Thai Culture and Negotiating in the Thai Context

Cultural Characteristics of Thai Society

Culture is a shared system of symbols, beliefs, attitudes, values, expectations and norms for behavior. The most obvious is the culture we share with all the people who live in our own country. In addition, we belong to other cultural groups, including an ethnic group, probably a religious group, and perhaps a professional that has its own special language and customs. All members of a culture have similar assumptions about how people should think, behave and communicate, and they all tend to act on those assumptions in much the same way.

According to Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin (1999), the Thai society today consists of people sharing a rich ethnic diversity, mainly influenced by two great cultural systems of Asian-Chinese and Indian. More than 90% of Thais believe in Buddhism, the national religion. Spoken and written Thai is used as the national language. English is often used and widely understood in cities, particularly in Bangkok where it is almost a second commercial language. Thailand has often been described as the land of smile. Not only are the Thai people frequently depicted with smiling faces, but they are also characterized by their optimism, ambition, pursuit of knowledge, and pride of being Thai. In Thailand, educational achievement serves as an indication of position within the national society. This is based on which Thai educational institution they attended and whether they obtained college and university degrees abroad.

However, their research results reveal that the national culture is characterized by low individualism. They state, The low individualistic characteristic of Thai culture is also reflected in values associated with the Thai kinship system. The parent-child relationship is viewed by the Thai as basic to social life, and thus most Thais retain very close ties with their families. Normally, at least one child in a family assumes responsibility for aged parents.

(Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999, p. 384)

As noted by Sriussadaporn–Charoenngam and Jablin (1999), Thais believe that inner freedom is best preserved by maintaining an emotionally and physically stable environment. Therefore, they believe that social harmony is very important and in general, people will do their utmost to avoid any personal conflict in their contacts with others. They state, Outward expressions of anger are also regarded as dangerous to social harmony and are obvious signs of ignorance, crudity, and immaturity. The person who is serenely indifferent will be respected for what is considered as important virtue. (Sriussadaporn–Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999, p. 384)

As a result, Thai people believe in “kreng jai” which means an extreme reluctance to impose on anyone or disturb another’s personal equilibrium by refusing requests, accepting assistance, showing disagreement, giving direct criticism, challenging knowledge or authority, or confronting in conflict situation (cited in Sriussadaporn–Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999, pp. 383–417).

Class distinction and social differences in Thai society are broadly defined by such personal characteristics as family background, age, gender, and level of education. As a result, the Thai culture is also characterized by high power distance. Additionally, Thai culture is also characterized by high uncertainty avoidance. This means that uncertainty is reduced in communication relationships through the internalization of context-related rules and norms about “appropriate communication”. For example, when meeting other for the first time, Thais automatically employ the correct pronouns and postures of respect, deference, and intimacy. Politeness and tact dominate acquaintance-level relationship. Lastly, non-dominant (e.g., non-assertive and non-competitive) interpersonal styles are major characteristics of Thai culture. A successful, modest Thai person often expresses a lower opinion than is probably deserved of her or his ability, knowledge, skill, successes, etc. Older Thai people are not happy when younger people argue with them or give critical opinions. This may lead

to conflict or interpersonal resentment. Thus, Thai culture is also characterized by low masculinity (cited in Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999, pp. 383–417).

For Thais, communication competence is related to knowing when, where and with whom to express respectful manner in the organization. Subordinates in the organization are expected to how to communicate with and honor senior organizational members and show respect. This supports the Thai belief that people who are in a higher social or organizational position have “boon (merit)”, “ba-ra-me (prestige and influence)”, and “metta (compassion)”. Not only do they know how to use their power to influence others, they are also thoughtful and kind to their subordinates. In turn, people who are in lower social or organizational positions recognize that they are supposed to be obedient and respectful to those in higher positions.

A person who assumes a high social or organizational position is one who claims to have “boon (merit)”. Often times, individuals who are attracted to high social or organizational positions claim to have not only “boon” but also “ba-ra-me” (prestige, power, influence, and control) over others. However, those who not only have “boon” and “ba-ra-me” but also possess “metta” (kindness) seem to be most admired in the Thai society.

(Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999, p. 385–386)

To conclude, cultural aspects are important for negotiating in the Thai context apart from the language skills to enable negotiators from different cultures to successfully negotiate with Thai people.

9. Negotiating English and Testing

When considering the situation of designing tests or materials in class for Negotiating English, the writer, as Thai lecturer, has designed his own purposive Test of English for Negotiation consisting of the following parts:

- Part 1:** Language Functions: Learners have to match the language functions with the sentences below.
- Part 2:** Setting objectives and arranging a meeting: Learners have to choose the most appropriate expressions to complete the conversation.
- Part 3:** Making a proposal and a new offer: Learners have to complete the conversation for successful negotiating situations.
- Part 4:** Dealing with problems, Compromising, and Finding Solutions: Learners have to complete the conversations by filling in the blank with an appropriate word that makes sense in the context of the situations.
- Part 5:** Closing the Deal: Learners have to choose the most appropriate answer to complete the conversation.

Test of English for Negotiation

Part 1: Language Functions

Instructions: Match the following language functions with the sentences below.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a) Setting objectives | b) Making a proposal or a new offer |
| c) Compromising | d) Closing the deal |

- ___ 1) Our intention is...
- ___ 2) If we agree to that, then we can save time and money.
- ___ 3) Can you offer us any other possibility?
- ___ 4) I am willing to work with that.

Part 2: Setting objectives and arranging a meeting

Instructions: Choose the most appropriate expressions to complete the conversation.

- a) Thank you for inviting. I hope we can solve this problem together.
 - b) I don't think we can get a quick agreement. We have been focusing too much on urban customers.
 - c) We'd like to invite you to further discuss this.
 - d) It's a deal!
- 1) A: The topic of the meeting today is improving sales in rural areas.
B: _____.
- 2) A: Thank you for coming. As you know I've called this meeting because we had a big problem with the delayed shipment. We're here today to find a solution together.
B: _____.
- 3) A: _____.
B: Sure, let's get together tomorrow and try to solve this issue.

Part 3: Making a proposal and a new offer

Instructions: Complete the conversation for successful negotiating situations.

- 1) A: We don't currently have the items you want in stock, but if you need them urgently, we can offer similar products of the same quality.
B:
2. A:
B: Well, yes. If you sign the contract today, I will agree to that.
3. A: You are a new graduate and have no work experience, so I can only offer you 300 Euro as your salary.
B:

Part 4: Dealing with problems, Compromising, and Finding Solutions

Instructions: Complete the conversations by filling in the blank with an appropriate word that makes sense in the context of the situations.

1. A: How should we go about making a final.....?

B: Well, I think we ought to investigate all of the alternatives and compare their advantages and disadvantages.

2. A: How would you deal with an urgent order?

B: As.....in the contract, you will receive compensation in case of any delayed shipment.

3. A: We are pleased to inform you that there was a slight increase of 10% in our sales in the last year. So, If you place your order today, I can give you a 10% discount. All prices include VAT.

B: I find this and please ship it as soon as possible.

Part 5: Closing the Deal

Instructions: Choose the most appropriate answer to complete the conversation.

1) A: I think we have covered all the problems areas for the negotiations. Are you satisfied with the final proposal?

B: _____ .

a) Yes, I am satisfied. I expect my supervisor will also approve.

b) I'm not sure. My boss may not be too happy with this.

2. A: We hope that our proposal interests you and we are able to come to an agreement.

B: _____ .

a) Well, after I have placed my order, I hope you will deal with this matter immediately and carefully.

b) How can I make sure that your products are better than the competitive ones?

3. A: I think we have reached a compromise. As this matter is urgent, I suggest we meet again to further discuss the contract. Does this coming week suit you?

B: _____ .

a) Yes, that's fine for me. Let's draft a contract based on these points. I look forward to seeing you next week.

b) Could I meet you in the next two months? I have to read all the details carefully.

(Adapted from: Lafond, Vine & Welch, 2010)

This test should be recommended to class instructors in the Thai context. It is obvious that this test consists of five parts according to its purposes to specifically assess the language skills of non-native speakers in the Thai context.

Conclusion and Discussion

In terms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) based on the notion of Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), it is important that instructors should consider social, economic, cultural and linguistic consequences of the global spread of English. English language educators also need to be aware of this inequality and to consider how they can challenge it by promoting curricula concerning Business English that allows all learners the opportunity to critically think about their environment, express their own views and identity in addition to the specific language patterns necessary for business communication. Class instructor, as researcher or evaluator, may use the suggested test above in class if he or she wishes to test the skills of learners. In relation to ESP practitioner as teacher and materials provider, class instructor may use it as teaching material.

Apart from this, as mentioned by Dignen (2011) that communication skills such as cultural technique (developing written / oral skill) and cultural exposure (studying other cultures) should be considered as crucial factors when using English to communicate across cultures. Once we can recognize cultural elements and overcome ethnocentrism,

we are ready to focus directly on our intercultural communication skills. To communicate more effectively with people from other cultures, we need to study other languages and cultures, overcome language barriers, and develop effective intercultural communication skills, both written and oral. In terms of global business transactions, many companies recognize that they must be able to conduct business in languages other than English. In this regard, those expatriates having a long-term business relationship with Thai people are supposed to learn some Thai apart from Thai culture.

Practical Recommendations

Instructors may recommend some new commercial books or some relevant and useful websites based on comparative studies between English and Thai for business purposes. Additionally, after reading the language situations in class, instructors may design language activities for language summary so students can study and compare vocabulary of the two languages. Lastly, to develop the competence of students to their fullest potential to enable them to compete with graduates from other institutions and countries in the ASEAN and ASEAN Economics Community, the communication competence cannot be ignored and should be enhanced in addition to the language skills, by creating some learning activities related to the communication skills in class.

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