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SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

POLITENESS STRATEGIES APPLIED IN MAKING A BARGAIN IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE.

*(Sử dụng các chiến lược giao tiếp lịch sự trong cách thức mặc cả
giữa tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt)*

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ABSTRACT

Based on the theoretical background of speech act, politeness in the light of cross-cultural communication, this study investigates the similarities and differences in making a bargain in Vietnamese and American language and culture.

Data used in this study are collected via questionnaires. To investigate the dimensions thoroughly, we take informants' social parameters such as age, sex, marital status, occupation, living area, and knowledge of foreign languages into consideration.

The findings of all the investigated aspects are presented and cross-culturally compared. The common belief is reassured that the American with their Western cultural features prefer negative politeness strategies whereas the Vietnamese with their Asia Eastern ones prefer positive politeness strategies. The social distance among various communicating partners has more influence on the Vietnamese than on the American, which induces them to apply different appropriate strategies. However, interactions with communicating partners of different social distance still remain the American to be more negative politeness oriented.

This study, hopefully contributes to helping interlocutors avoid communication breakdowns in Vietnamese-American cross-cultural communication. Then, several activities in teaching English, particularly English for Business at Hai Phong Private University with the situations of sales and price negotiation are suggested.

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ABBREVIATIONS

Am	: American
FSA	: Face Saving Act
FTA	: Face Threatening Act
H	: Hearer
NOR	: Nonverbal Off-record
PPO	: Negative Politeness Oriented
NPS	: Negative Politeness Strategies
NPS+NPS	: Negative Politeness Strategies+ Negative Politeness Strategies
NPS+PPS	: Negative Politeness Strategies+ Positive Politeness Strategies
NPS+VOR	: Negative Politeness Strategies+ Off-record
OR	: Off-record
PPS+NPS	: Positive Politeness Strategies+ Negative Politeness Strategies
PPS+PPS	: Positive Politeness Strategies+ Positive Politeness Strategies
PPS+VOR	: Positive Politeness Strategies+ Off-record
S	: Speaker
SNPS	: Single Negative Politeness Strategies
SPPS	: Single Positive Politeness Strategies
Vie	: Vietnamese
VOR	: Verbal Off-record

PART1: INTRODUCTION

I. RATIONALE

Any creatures on this earth, when forming a community, share their same language to survive and to develop. Each type of animal has its own so-called language so that they can recognize its specie. Language of bird is the sound of singing, of dog is the sound of barking, of ocean animals such as dolphin, seal is the sound of lapping. Human being, the supreme animal, by each ethnic group, territory has its own language of sounds, signs or symbols to communicate, to support each other. It is also noted that language is the basic tool by which humans make society function. In its most basic form, language is a tool humans have utilized, sometimes effectively, sometimes not so effectively, to communicate their ideas, thoughts, and feelings to others. Saville-Troike (in Samovar, L.A and Porter, R.E, 1991: 166) furthers this notion by saying:

“At the level of individuals and groups interacting with one another, the functions of communication are related to participants’ purposes and needs. These include such categories of functions as *affect* (conveying feelings or emotions), *directive* (requesting or demanding), *poetic* (aesthetic), *phatic* (empathy and solidarity), and *metalinguistic* (reference to language itself).”

Language also permits you to pool knowledge and to communicate with others who are beyond the reach of your voice in space and time so that you need not rediscover what others have already discarded. This capability is a key in making progress possible because it allows us to learn from the past, and to communicate through time.

Language serves a number of cultural, communal, and societal functions. First, from the cultural perspective, it is the primary means of preserving culture and is the medium of transmitting culture to new generation. In Vietnamese families, parents talk with their children to teach them the traditional family values such as the respect, the patriotism, the virtue of worshipping their ancestors. In America, children learn the values of individualism and freedom as the Americans’ identity from generation to generation. Second, it helps establish and preserve community by linking individuals into communities of shared identity. Third, at the societal level, it is important to all aspects of human interaction.

As you can see, language is a multifunctional tool that helps you satisfy a variety of needs. Of which, conversation, therefore, is the most fundamental form of communication in daily interaction because it provides you with the means of conducting human affairs. In such a kind of human daily interaction, making a bargain is a subtle speech act. Different ethnic groups have different ways to perform their daily interactions. The Western people, namely the American, to certain extents, have different spoken language, different behaviors from those of Eastern people, such as Vietnamese. In the field of cross- cultural communication, the degree of politeness

strategies applied is a significant factor. Therefore, an investigation into how to make a bargain will partially contribute to raising communicative competence of language learners and their better mutual understanding of an aspect of cultures. It is hoped that findings from the study will help learners of English avoid potential cultural shock and communication breakdown.

II. AIMS OF THE STUDY

This research aims to:

- Investigate the specific situations of making a bargain with the degree of politeness strategies applied by Vietnamese and American people.
- Compare and contrast strategies on how to make a bargain in the two languages and cultures in order to clarify similarities and differences in the ways the Vietnamese and Americans make a bargain in their daily life.
- Test the validity of the following hypotheses:
 - a. The Americans are more interested in negative politeness strategies, while the Vietnamese in positive politeness strategies.
 - b. The Americans tend to be more direct in communication than the Vietnamese.
- Contribute to raising awareness of cross-cultural differences in communication among English learners and potential interactants of international communication.
- Then suggest supplementary activities applied in teaching English, particularly for the learners of English for Business in sales and price negotiation.

III. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

- The study especially focuses on the degrees of politeness strategies used in making a bargain in Vietnamese and American languages and cultures.
- The study focuses totally on the verbal aspect of the speech act. Paralinguistic and extra-linguistic factors, though important, go beyond the scope of this study.
- In this sort of communication, making a bargain, the sociological factors such as “*ranking of impositions*” and “*relative power*” are kept neutral while the factor “*social distance*” is taken into consideration to investigate the degrees of the politeness strategies in this study.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The research project is based on both theoretical discussion and data analysis. The theoretical background was selected with reference to both Vietnamese and foreign publications. Data were collected and analyzed for the aim of comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences between the two languages and cultures.

The '*Quantitative*' and '*Contrastive analysis*' are the main methods applied to pursue the objectivity in a cross- cultural research.

All the interpretations, comments, and conclusions are drawn from:

- Relevant references
- Survey questionnaires
- Statistics, description and analysis of the collected data
- Personal observations and experience
- Discussion with colleagues, students
- Consultation with the supervisor

V. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The study consists of three main parts:

Part 1: Introduction outlines the general background, the rationale, the methodology, the aims, the scope and the design of the study.

Part 2: Development presents the theoretical background and discusses the data analysis and findings. This part includes the following chapters

Chapter 1. Briefly presents language and culture in communication

Chapter 2. Briefly presents and discusses the theory of pragmatics, cross cultural pragmatics, speech acts and making a bargain as a speech act.

Chapter 3. Politeness strategies in making a bargain

Chapter 4: Data collection, data analysis and discussion

Part 3: Conclusion summarizes the major findings of the study, suggest implication in teaching English at HPU, particularly for the students of Business Administration.

PART 2: DEVELOPMENT

In this part, language, culture and its relationship, the important factors in communication are discussed briefly basing on the various perspectives of linguists. One may consider language by the concept of systems, system of sounds, of signs, of symbols, or of rules, others may consider language by its function. Culture is also regarded as a system, basic belief system, shared background or as patterns of communicative behavior. Furthermore, theoretical background of cross-cultural pragmatics, politeness strategies (including 17 positive politeness strategies and 11 negative politeness strategies) is presented to see making a bargain as a speech act in the light of cross-cultural communication. The last chapter in this part deals with the data analysis and findings. Implications for the teaching and learning of English by Vietnamese learners will also be presented.

CHAPTER 1: LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN COMMUNICATION

1.1. Language and culture:

Language is described as “*the human faculty that enables us to exchange meaningful messages with our fellow human beings by means of discourses and texts, which are structured according to the rules and conventions of the particular language that we share with them.*” by Jackson and Stockwell (1996: 2). Another linguist, Widdowson (1996: 4) states that language is so uniquely human, and it distinguishes us so clearly from other animals. He also claims that what is particularly striking about language is the way it is fashioned as systems of signs to meet the elaborate cultural and communal needs of human societies. “*A language is distinctively human*”, in Delahunty and Garvey’s words (1994: 15). Language is not only our main link with the outside world, it is also a marker that distinguishes us from the other animal creatures we share the world with.

According to Crystal (1992: 212), language is “*the systematic, conventional use of sounds, signs, or written symbols human society for communication and self- expression.*”

Delahunty and Garvey (1994: 11) share the idea of a language as a system of rules. Mc Arthurs (1996: 523) asserts that language as a system of communication which users structured vocal sounds and its embodiments in other media are writing, print and physical signs. Language, supported by Schimidt and Richard’s point of view (1980: 161), is used “*to build bridges, to consolidate political regimes, to carry on arguments, to convey information from one person to another, to entertain- in short, to communicate.*”

Culture, according to Fay (1996), “*is a complex set of shared beliefs, values, and concepts which enables a group to make sense of its life and which provides it with directions for how to live*”. (in Holliday, A et al. (2004: 60)) This set might be called a basic belief system, such a belief system can include items which are fully explicit and others which are not, and can include matters of feeling and deportment as well as discursive claims about the world.

Culture, in relation to language, is emphasized by Richards et al. (1985: 94) as “*the total set of beliefs, attitudes, customs, behaviors, social habits,... of the member of a particular society*”; by Levine and Adellman (1993) as “*a shared background, e.g. national, ethic, religious, resulting from a common language and communication style, customs, beliefs, attitudes and values*”; and is evaluated and clarified by Nguyen Quang in ‘*Intercultural Communication*’ (1998: 3).

Goodenough (1975) in Wardhaugh (1986: 217) describes “*a society’s culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members*”

Basing on such perspectives, we should be fully aware of the link between culture and communication. Culture is a set of human-made objective and subjective elements that in the past have increased the probability of survival and resulted in satisfaction for the participants in an ecological niche, and thus became shared among those who could communicate with each other because they had a common language and they lived in the same time and place. Culture includes the “subjective” elements- elements such as “values, attitudes, beliefs, orientations, and underlying assumptions prevalent among people in a society. We can see that all the subjective cultural beliefs and values you hold influence your interpretation of the world and interactions in it.

The relationship of language and culture can be obviously derived because language functions as the principal means whereby we conduct our social lives. As Federico Fellini claims “*A different language is a different view of life*” (in Samovar, L.A and Porte, R.E , 1991: 164) “*A society’s language is an aspect of its culture... The relation of language to culture is that of part to whole*” has been acknowledged by Goodenough (1957) (in Hudson, 1980: 83). Kramsch (1998: 3) identifies this correlation by three aspects of language and culture as follow: (1) *language expresses cultural reality*; (2) *language embodies cultural reality*; (3) *language symbolizes cultural reality*.

Language usage and style reflect the personality of a culture in much the same way they reflect the personality of an individual. Philipsen supports this view,

Cultural premises and rules about speaking are intricately tied up with cultural conceptions of persons, agency, and social relations- that is, rules and beliefs about speech articulate with a larger cultural code defining the nature of persons, whether and how it is that humans can act efficaciously in their world of practice, and what are the possible and appropriate ways in which individuals are linked together in social units. (cited in Samovar, L.A and Porter, R.E 1991: 168).

Such relationship between language and culture is further emphasized because there is no doubt, however, that there is a correlation between the form and content of a language and the beliefs, values, and needs present in the culture of its speakers. From recognizing this relationship, it is noted that language and culture are inseparable, language and culture have the power to maintain national or cultural identity.

The link between language and culture is evident because language is the primary means of instructing members of a society in culturally acceptable practices and behaviors for social interaction, in the appropriate relationships to the physical environment. The sharing of a common or similar worldview and system of values that only results in a shared ability for verbal communication but also possible other forms of culturally determined ways of communication.

Nguyen Quang highly appreciates this correlation between language and culture: *There is an obvious correlation between cultural factors, language and communicative competence, which requires an appropriate consideration. People are aware that one cannot master a language without understanding of its cultural background, and that a strong impinge on any communicative behavior, either verbal or non-verbal communication.* (Nguyễn Quang 2002: 10)

1. 2. Communication, communicative functions of language, cross-cultural communication

Communication is defined as “*the exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more persons*” (Richards et al., 1992: 64).

To our observation, communication can take place in many different ways. Generally speaking, two categories of communication can be identified. The first is verbal communication; that is communication using language and speech to share or exchange information. The second is non-verbal communication; that is communication without use of language but depending rather on other channels such as body language, eye contact, physical appearance, attitude distance and physical contact. In our daily situations, we apply different ways, either verbal or non-verbal communication, however in many cases both, to different partners.

Certainly, each human language is a system for communication. If communication is to be successful, the people involved need to share the same referential meaning of the words they are using. To communicate effectively the speakers share the linguistic knowledge, interaction skills and cultural knowledge.

Samovar, L.A and Porte, R.E (1991: 12) hold that *human communication is the process through which symbols are transmitted for the purpose of eliciting a response.*

The importance of communication on human behavior is dramatically underscored by Keating when she writes “Communication is powerful: It brings companions to our side or scatters our rivals, reassures or alerts children, and forges consensus or battle lines between us” (cited in Samovar, L.A and Porter, R.E, 1991: 12). What she is mentioning is that communication- your ability to share your beliefs, values, and feelings- is the basis of all human contact.

The fact that language is the primary means people use to communicate with one another may seem patently obvious. Yet, the relational dynamics between language and communication are such a part of your everyday life and behavior that you probably do not consciously recognize them. Our talking is the primary means of interactions between people. Speakers use language to convey their thoughts, feelings, intentions, and desires to others. It links interlocutors in a dynamic, reflexive process. We learn about people through what they say and how they say it; we learn about ourselves through the ways other people react to what we say; and we learn about our relationships with others through the give- and- take of communicative interactions.

CHAPTER 2: MAKING A BARGAIN AS A SPEECH ACT

1. Pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics

By the most widely-known definitions, **pragmatics** were: *meaning in use* and *meaning in context*. By distinguishing pragmatics with semantics, pragmatics is approach to studying language's relation to the contextual background features. Semantics is the study of the words meaning by themselves, out of the context, as they are in a dictionary.

Many linguists, namely Leech (1983: 6), Levinson (1983: 32) hold the view that pragmatics concentrates on aspects of meaning with the consideration of physical and social factors as contextual background features, speakers or hearers.

According to Leech (1983: 6), *meaning in pragmatics* and *meaning in semantics* distinct by the way “*Meaning in pragmatics is defined relative to speaker or user of the language, whereas meaning in semantics is defined purely as property of expressions in a given language, abstraction from particular situations, speakers, or hearers*”.

In the words of Levinson (1983: 32), pragmatics, “*a theory of language understanding that takes context into account, in order to complement the contribution that semantics makes to meaning*”

As Crystal (1992: 310) shares his perspective of pragmatics,

“*Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of the users- especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication*”.

Richards et al. (1992: 248) points out the fields which pragmatics studies:

1. *How the interpretation and use of utterances depends on knowledge of the real world.*
2. *How speakers use and understand speech acts.*
3. *How the structure of sentences is influenced by the relationship between the speaker and the hearer.*

Therefore, sharing the same point of view, Fairclough (1989), in the third extract, says that the study of speech acts is a centre part of pragmatics, as well as cross-cultural pragmatics. He refers to the multi-functionality of speech acts, and then focuses on the way they are related to the co-text, the inter-textual context, and the situational and cultural background context. He sees the social factors that influence the use of indirect speech acts in terms of power relations, and the

discourse type dictates the conventions for speech acts, and that the conventions reflect the participants' ideology and social relationship. (cited in Cutting, J, 2002: 119)

In the words of Yule, **cross-cultural pragmatics** is “the study of *“differences in expectations based on cultural schemata”* and *“the ways in which meaning is constructed by speakers from different cultures”* (Yule, 1996: 87).

Wierzbicka (1991: 26) believes in the idea of “different cultures, different languages, different speech acts” because different cultures find expression in different systems of speech acts, and that different speech acts become entrenched, and, to some extent, codified in different languages. What is seen as more remarkable today is the field of cross-cultural pragmatics, the extent of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences in ways of speaking. Wierzbicka emphasizes that *“Today, it is increasingly accepted that those diversities in ways of speaking and interacting are not superficial at all and that they can be accounted for, above all, in terms of different cultural attitudes and values; and the cultural relativity in the field of interaction is increasingly seen as a reality and an important subject for investigation”*. (Wierzbicka 1991: vi)

2. Speech acts

2.1. Theory of speech acts

Austin (1962) defined **speech acts** as the actions performed in saying something. Speech act theory said that the action performed when an utterance is produced can be analyzed on three different levels. The first level of analysis is the words themselves. This is the **locution**, ‘what is said’, the form of the words uttered; the act of saying something is known as the **locutionary act**. The second level is what the speakers are doing with their words. This is the **illocutionary force**, ‘what is done in uttering the words’, the function of the words, the specific purpose that the speakers have in mind. The last level of analysis is the result of the words. This is known as the **perlocutionary act**, ‘what is done by uttering the words’; it is the effect on the hearer, the hearer's reaction. The three acts are closely related because when uttering *“S says something to H; in saying something to H, S does something; and by doing something, S affects H”* (Bach & Harnish, 1979: 3)

As Blum-Kulka evaluates,

“Speech acts have been claimed by some (Austin, 1962; Searl, 1962, 1957) to operate by universal principles, and claimed by others to vary in conceptualizations and verbalizations across cultures and languages (Green, 1975; Wierzcika, 1985). Their modes of performance carry heavy social implications (Ervin-Tripp, 1976) and seem to be ruled by universal principles of cooperation and politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1978; Leech, 1983). And yet, cultures have

been shown to vary drastically in their interactional styles, leading to different preferences for modes of speech act behavior. Culturally colored interactional styles create culturally determined expectations and integrative strategies; and can lead to breakdowns in intercultural and interethnic communication (Grumperz, 1978)” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 1)

2.2. Classification of speech acts

Austin (1962: 151) classifies speech acts by their five functions namely: *verdictives* (e.g. *assess, appraise,...*) *exercitives* (e.g. *command, direct, ...*), *commissives* (e.g. *promise, propose,...*), *behabitives* (e.g. *apologize, thank,...*), and *expositives* (e.g. *accept, agree,...*).

Searle’s (1976) solution to classifying speech acts was to group them in the five following macro-classes (clarified in Cutting, J, 2002: 16-17):

Declarations These are words and expressions that change the world by their very utterance, such as ‘I bet’, ‘I declare’ ‘I resign’...

Representatives These are acts in which the words state what the speaker believes to be the case, such as ‘describing’, ‘claiming’, ‘hypothesizing’, ‘insisting’, ‘predicting’.

Commissives This includes acts in which the words commit the speaker to future action, such as ‘promising’, ‘offering’, ‘threatening’, ‘refusing’, ‘vowing’ and ‘volunteering’.

Directives This category covers acts in which the words are aimed at making the hearer do something, such as ‘commanding’, ‘requesting’, ‘inviting’, ‘forbidding’, ‘suggesting’ and so on.

Expressives This last group includes acts in which the words state what the speaker feels, such as ‘apologizing’, ‘praising’, ‘congratulating’, ‘deploring’, and ‘regretting’.

Sharing the same view on such classification by Searle (1979), Yule (1997: 55) summarizes those five fundamental functions of speech acts as follows:

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S= speaker X= situation
Declarations	Words change the world	S causes X
Representatives	Make words fit the world	S believes X
Expressives	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directives	Make the world fit words	S wants X
Commissives	Make the world fit words	S intends X

Table 1: The five general functions of speech acts (following Searle 1979)

2.3. Making a bargain as a speech act

Basing on Searle's classification (1976), as a speech act, **making a bargain** belongs to the type of **directives**, i.e. *“those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to get someone else to do something. They express what the speakers want. ... And in using a directive, the speaker makes the world fit words”* (G.Yule, 1996:53).

Bargaining is considered to be one of the universals of interpersonal communication, in realization of the politeness principle. Bargaining exchanges is regarded as an illocutionary act performed by a speaker to express their want of purchasing goods at cheaper price. Buyer (S) employ appropriate communication strategies, in particular, politeness strategies, to achieve a successful bargain to their expectations. Exchanging bargain is a complex act, potentially involving both positive as well as negative feelings on the part of the buyer (S) and the seller (H). Therefore, making a bargain is a face-threatening act, which may appear to either speaker or hearer. In a certain society of highly appreciated male, women were more likely to look at bargaining as a manifestation or sign of one's housekeeping skills and that their more extensive use of insisting strategies of bargaining is seen as a daring act of assertiveness. Meanwhile, men feel that such strategies could be face threatening and reduce their inherited social power and superiority.

The act of making a bargain is universal as a daily life activity. However, in cross-cultural communication, this speech act, like any others, is affected by the culture to which the language belongs and it may differ from one society to another. Basing on this assumption, a way of bargaining, which is required in Vietnamese culture, may be more or less appropriate in American culture. The different aspects of the act of bargaining in the two cultures, in particular situation, will be discussed in detail in this study.

CHAPTER 3: POLITENESS IN MAKING A BARGAIN

1. Theory of politeness

1.1. Politeness and face

Many linguists share their understanding and their concern on the concept of politeness. Brown and Levinson (1990: 2), in their introduction to *“Politeness- Some Universals in Language Usage”*, emphasize that “the issues of politeness raise sociological speculations of this scale, they also touch on many other interests and many other fields.”

Cutting (2002: 44-45) views that “in pragmatics, when we talk of politeness, we do not refer to the social rules of behavior, we refer to the choices that are made in language use, the linguistic expressions that give people space and show a friendly attitude to them”.

It is true to say that politeness is a pragmatic phenomenon. Politeness lies not in the form and the words themselves, but in their function and intended social meaning.

Politeness, in terms of cultural aspect, is defined as “*a fixed concept, as in the idea of ‘polite social behavior’, or etiquette, within a culture*” (Yule, 1996: 60).

Richards (1985:281) identifies politeness as “*the attempt to establish, maintain, and save face during conversation*”. Brown and Levinson (199) analyze politeness and say that in order to enter into social relationships, we have to acknowledge and show an awareness of the face.

‘Face’, *the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself, consisting in two related aspects:*

Negative face: *the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction- i.e. to freedom of action and freedom from imposition*

Positive face: *the positive consistent self-image or ‘personality’ (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants.*

We should be aware of the fact that it is a universal characteristic across cultures that speakers should respect each other’s expectations regarding self-image, take account of their feelings, and avoid face threatening acts.

Cutting (2002: 45) analyzes the view of Brown and Levinson (1990) of politeness and face:

“When face threatening acts (FTAs) are unavoidable, speakers can redress the threat with **negative politeness** (which does *not* mean being impolite) that respects the hearer’s **negative face**, the need to be independent, have freedom of action, and not be imposed on by others. Or they can redress the FTA with **positive politeness**, that attends the **positive face**, the need to be accepted and liked by others, treated as a member of the group, and to know one’s wants are shared by others”.

1.2. Politeness principles

In this section, **politeness rules** by Lakoff (1973b), and **politeness principles** by Leech (1983) are taken into consideration so that any potential face threat involving in interpersonal interactions might be mitigated to the lowest extent. Lakoff (1973b, in Green, 1989: 142-144) describes three different rules a speaker might follow in choosing to be polite.

Rule 1: Don't impose is appropriate to situations where there is an acknowledged difference in power and status between participants. According to this rule, S who is being polite will avoid, mitigate or ask permission, or apologize for making A do anything which A does not want to do.

Rule 2: Offer options, a more informal politeness rule, is appropriate to situations in which the participants' status and power are approximately equal but not socially close. It refers to expressing oneself in such a way that one's opinion or request can be ignored without being contradicted or rejected.

Rule 3: Encourage feelings of camaraderie, appropriate to intimates or close friends, attaches to the governing principle that participants not only show an active interest in the other, by asking personal questions and making personal remarks, but also show regard and trust by being open about details of one's own life, experiences, feelings, and the like.

According to Leech (1983: 132), there is a politeness principle with conversational maxims. He lists six maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy as follows:

1. **Tact maxim** (in directives [impositives] and commissives): minimize cost to other; [maximize benefit to other]
2. **Generosity maxim** (in directives and commissives): minimize benefit to self; [maximize cost to self]
3. **Approbation maxim** (in expressives and representatives [assertives]): minimize dispraise of other; [maximize praise of other]
4. **Modesty maxim** (in expressives and representatives): minimize praise of self; [maximize dispraise of self]
5. **Agreement maxim** (in representatives): minimize disagreement between self and other; [maximize agreement between self and other]
6. **Sympathy maxim** (in representatives): minimize antipathy between self and other; [maximize sympathy between self and other]

It should be noted that in conversation, **self** will normally be identified with the speaker (S), and **other** will be typically identified with the hearer (H). To a certain extent, those six maxims reveal their ranks to each other by the observation of Cutting (2002: 49-50).

The first and second form a pair, as do the third and fourth. With the maxims of tact and generosity, the **tact** maxim ('perhaps the most important kind of politeness in English-speaking society', Leech 1983:107) focuses on the hearer, and says 'minimize cost to other' and 'maximize benefit to other'. The first part of this maxim fits in with Brown and Levinson's negative politeness strategy of minimizing the imposition, and the second part reflects the positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants and needs. The maxim of **generosity**, is the flip-side of the tact maxim since it focuses on the speaker, and says 'minimize benefit to self' and 'maximize cost to self'.

Moving to the second pair: approbation (other) and modesty (self). The first part of the maxim of **approbation**, 'minimize dispraise of other', is somewhat similar to the politeness strategy of avoiding disagreement. The second part, 'maximize praise of other', fits in with the positive politeness strategy of making other people feel good by showing solidarity. **Modesty** is possibly a more complex maxim than the others, since the maxim of quality can sometimes be violated in observing it.

The last two maxims do not form a pair and Leech gives them less importance than the others. The maxim of **agreement** is in line with Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategies of 'seek agreement' and 'avoid disagreement, to which they attach great importance. The **sympathy** maxim includes such polite speech acts as congratulate, commiserate and express condolences. This small group of speech acts is already taken care of in Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategies of attending to the hearer's interests, wants and needs.

Brown and Levinson (1990: 69) suggest five possible strategies for avoiding face threatening acts (FTAs) or for mitigating the face threat, which are illustrated in the *Figure 1* below.

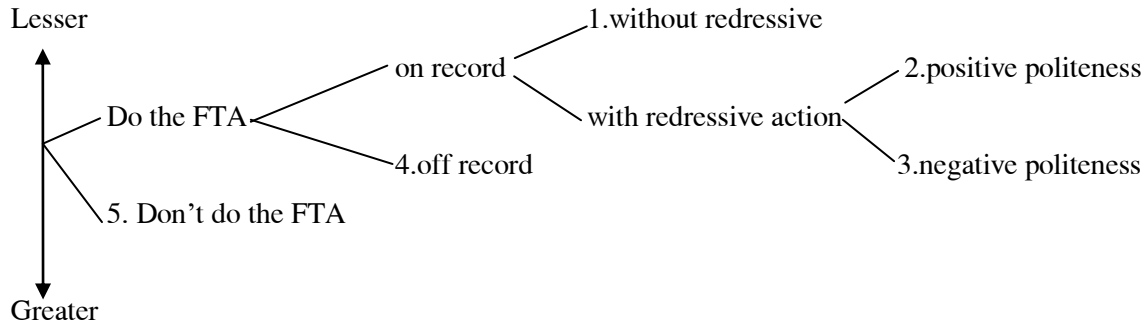


Figure 1: Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

Brown and Levinson number those five strategies to prove that the greater the face threat is, the greater the numbered strategy should be employed.

Brown and Levinson implicitly consider negative politeness to be “*more polite*” than positive politeness. This can be seen from the diagram when they number the former and the latter 2 and 3 respectively. Nguyen Quang (1999: 129) analyzes that it is this point of view of Brown and Levinson that more or less decreases their diagram’s universal value, and he proposes another (see **Figure 2**)

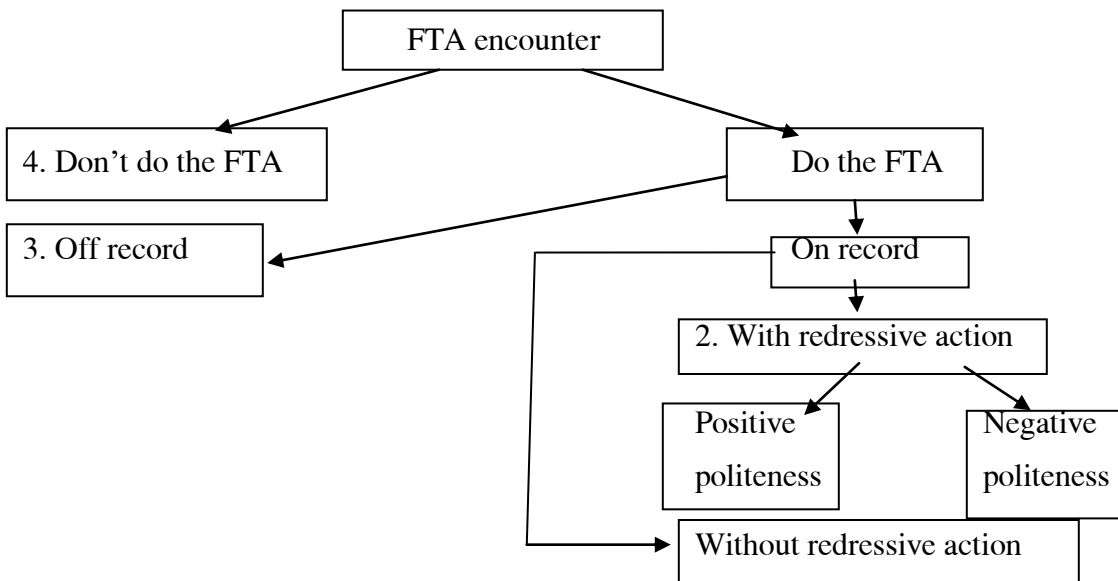


Figure 2: Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Nguyen Quang, 1999:130)

1.3. Positive politeness and positive politeness strategies

Brown and Levinson (1990: 70) define **positive politeness** “*is oriented toward the positive face of H, the positive self-image that he claims for himself*”. Nguyen Quang (2005: 27) considers the notion of positive politeness, basing on the concern of the solidarity between interactants, as “

any communicative act (verbal and/ or nonverbal) which is appropriately intended to show the speaker's concern to the addressee, thus, enhancing the sense of solidarity between them"

Positive politeness utterances are used as a kind of metaphorical extension of intimacy, to imply common ground or sharing of wants to a limited extent even between strangers who perceive themselves, for the purposes of the interaction, as somehow similar. Positive techniques are usable not only for FTA redress, but in general as a kind of social accelerator, where S, in using them, indicates that he wants to 'come closer' to H. Therefore, Brown and Levinson (1987) sketch 15 positive politeness strategies applied by speakers in communication as follows:

Strategy 1: Notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)

Goodness, you cut your hair! By the way, I came to borrow some flour.

Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)

What a fantastic garden you have!

Strategy 3: Intensify interest to H (by (i)'making a good story', (ii)involving switching back and forth between past and present tenses, (iii)using directly quoted speech rather than indirect reported speech, (iv)using tag question, expressions of cajolers, appealers or (v)exaggerating facts)

Black I like. I used to wear it more than I do now; I very rarely wear it now. I wore a black jumper, and when I wear it my Mum says 'Ah, she said. But Len likes it, he thinks it looks ever so nice and quite a few people do. But when my Mum sees it she said, 'Oh, it's not your color, you're more for pinks and blues.'

Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers (usages (i) of address forms, (ii) of language or dialect, (iii) of jargon or slang, and (iv) of ellipsis.)

Bring me your dirty clothes to wash, honey.

Strategy 5: Seek agreement (by the safe topics, repetition or minimal encouragers)

A: I had a flat tyre on the way home.

B: Oh God, flat tyre!

Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement (instances of 'token agreement', of 'pseudo-agreement', of 'white lies', of 'hedging opinions')

A: Have you got friends?

B: I have friends. So-called friends. I had friends. Let me put it that way.

Strategy 7: Presuppose/ raise/ assert common ground (with (i) gossip, small talk; (ii) point-of-view operations of personal-centre switch, of time switch, of place switch; (iii) presupposition manipulations.)

A: *Oh this cut hurts awfully, Mum.*

B: *Yes dear, it hurts terribly, I know.*

Strategy 8: Joke

How about lending me this old heap of junk? (H's new Cadillac)

Strategy 9: Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants

I know you can't bear parties, but this one will really be good- do come!

Strategy 10: Offer, promise

Take it easy! I'll help you.

Strategy 11: Be optimistic

Look, I'm sure you won't mind if I remind you to do the dishes tonight.

Strategy 12: Include both S and H in the activity

Let's get on with dinner, eh?

Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) reasons

Why not lend me your cottage for the weekend?

Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity

I'll come with you if you tell me the truth.

Strategy 15: Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

Nguyen Quang (2003: 78-85), adds two more strategies, namely:

Strategy 16: Comfort and encourage

You have my whole-hearted support.

Strategy 17: Ask personal questions

Are you married or single?

1.4. Negative politeness and negative politeness strategies

According to Brown and Levinson (1990: 70), "**Negative politeness**, is oriented mainly toward partially satisfying (redressing) H's negative face, his basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination. Negative politeness, thus, is essentially avoidance-based, and realizations of negative-politeness strategies consist in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's negative-face wants and will not (or will only minimally) interfere with the addressee's freedom of action"

Nguyen Quang, refers to negative politeness as "any communicative act (verbal or nonverbal) which is appropriately intended to show that speaker does not want to impinge on the addressee's privacy, thus enhancing the sense of distance between them." (2005:30). Generally

speaking, negative politeness avoids imposing on the addressees and remains the distance between interlocutors.

Brown and Levinson (1990:30) identify politeness in Western culture: *“When we think of politeness in Western culture, it is negative-politeness behavior that springs to mind. In our culture, negative politeness is the most elaborate and the most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for FTA redress”*

10 negative politeness strategies are pointed out by Brown and Levinson (1987, 1990) as follows

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect

Why for God’s sake are you asking me?

Strategy 2: Question/ Hedge

Could you possibly by any chance lend me your car **for just a few minutes?**

I **rather** think it’s hopeless

Strategy 3: Be pessimistic

I don’t suppose there’d be any chance of you doing me a favor.

Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition

I **just** want to ask you if **you could lend me a single sheet of paper.**

Strategy 5: Give deference

Did you move my luggage?

Yes, **sir**, I thought perhaps you wouldn’t mind and...

Strategy 6: Apologize (for doing an FTA with at least 4 ways to communicate regret or reluctance to do an FTA: (i) admit the impingement, (ii) indicate reluctance, (iii) give overwhelming reasons, (iv) beg forgiveness)

I’m sorry for the late delivery.

I beg your indulgence....

Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H (avoiding pronouns ‘I’ and ‘you’ by using (i) performatives, (ii) imperatives, (iii) impersonal verbs, (iv) passive and circumstantial voices, (v) replacement of the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘you’ by indefinites, (vi) pluralization of the ‘you’ and ‘I’ pronouns, (vii) address terms as ‘you’ avoidance, (viii) reference terms as ‘I’ avoidance, (ix) point-of-view distancing)

(I ask you to) Rewrite this report.

(To you) it is necessary to meet her at the airport!

It’s regretted that you’re not the successful applicant for this job.

Hey, don't park your car here, **mate**.

Strategy 8: State the FTA as a general rule (S doesn't want to impinge but is merely forced to by circumstances, is to state the FTA as an instance of some general social rule, regulation, or obligation)

Passengers are requested to submit tickets.

Strategy 9: Nominalize (the facts of syntax suggest a 'continuum' from verb through adjective to noun (Ross 1972). Degrees of negative politeness run hand in hand with degrees of nounness.)

Your good performance on the examination impressed us favorably.

Strategy 10: Redress other wants of H's

I'll never be able to repay you if you accept our staying for one more week.

Nguyen Quang (2003: 183), from his observation of cross-cultural communication, adds one more negative politeness strategy:

Strategy 11: Avoid asking personal questions

In the positive politeness strategy-oriented communities, 'asking personal questions' is a considerably effective strategy to show concern to H. Meanwhile, this is considered to interfere with H's privacy. Therefore, avoiding asking such private questions as: "*How much do you earn a month?*", "*How nice your skirt is. How much is it?*"... is another negative politeness strategy.

We have mentioned 17 positive politeness strategies and 11 negative politeness strategies, which are mainly used in communication. However, it is expected that a clear-cut distinction between positive politeness strategies and negative politeness ones is hardly reached and completely relative. In one utterance, we may find both negative politeness and positive politeness strategy applied:

Honey, wait for me for **just a second?** ('positive politeness': in group identity marker-**honey**- and 'negative politeness': minimizing the imposition- **just a second**-)

1.5. Why politeness?

In order to enter into social relationship, we have to acknowledge and behave in a polite way towards each other. Therefore, we have to show an awareness of the face, the public of self-image, the sense of self, of the people that we address. To achieve this, they may apply politeness strategies, both positive and negative in their social interactions. As a result, a smooth interaction, social harmony would be reached. Jonh J.Gumperz (in Bown & Levinson, 1990: xiii) appreciates Brown and Levinson's view on politeness as "*basic to the production of social order, and a precondition of human cooperation*".

Nguyen Quang (2003) illustrates vividly the foundations of human social harmony (see **Figure 3**). He identifies the human being by the inseparated social being and conscious being. As the social being, he communicates with others to expose self-concept and other concept with the aim of being recognized as a member of the community. As the conscious being, he thinks of himself (self-concept) and about others (other-concept) to be respected his individuality. Being a member, he maintains positive face by employing 17 realized positive politeness strategies, which is led to satisfying membership. In order to save negative face for himself and his partners, he employs 11 negative politeness strategies. Then, his individuality is satisfied. Social harmony is founded on the basic of such satisfying membership and individuality.

WHY POLITENESS?

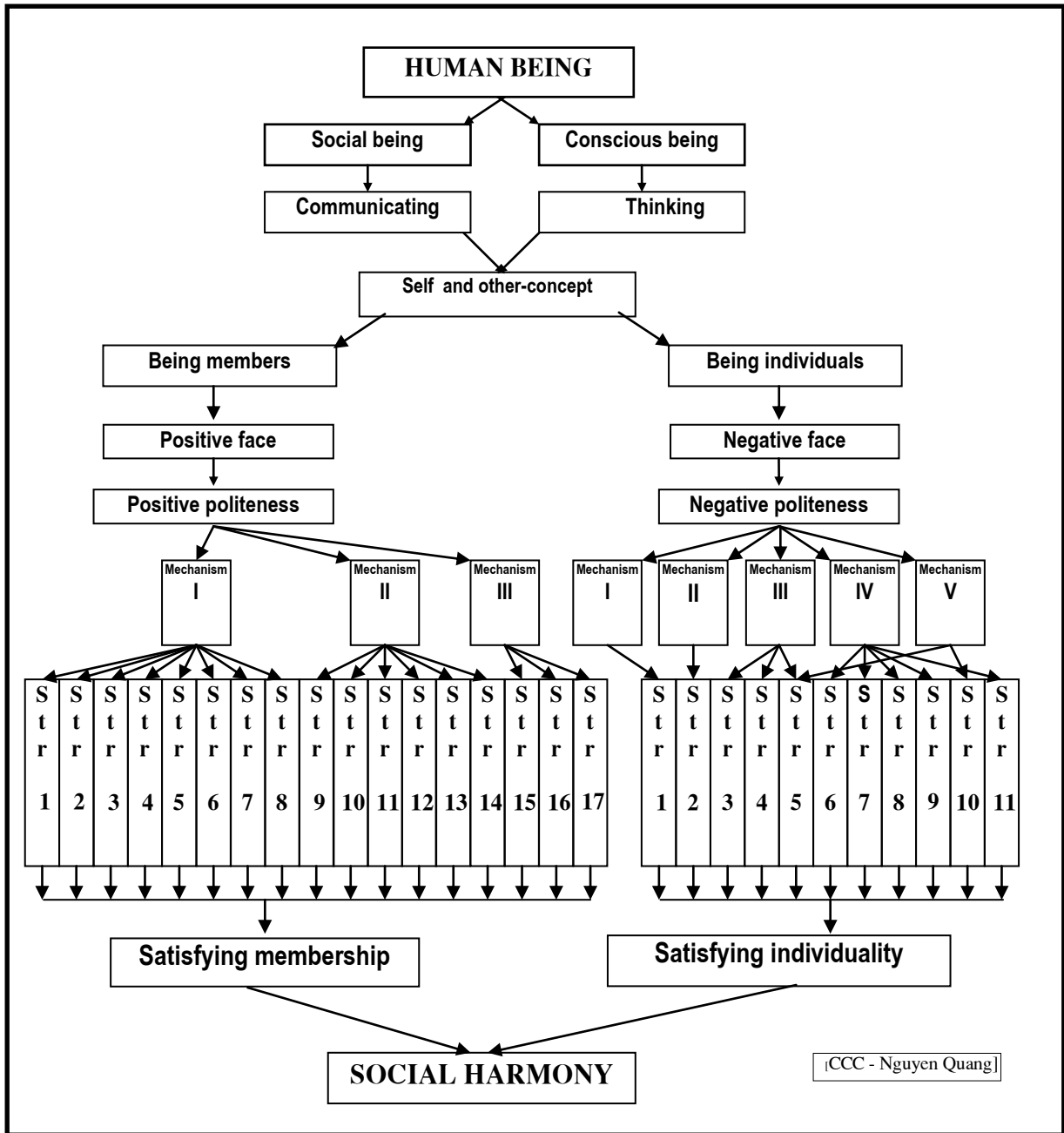


Figure 3: WHY POLITENESS (Nguyen Quang, 2003)

2. Sociological factors: Social distance (D), Relative power (P), and Ranking of imposition (R) as politeness determinants

The importance of the three factors: relative power (P), social distance (D), ranking of imposition (R) in determining politeness assessment is underanalyzed by many researchers such as Lakoff (1977b), Lakoff and Tannen (1979) and Leech (1980,1983). Brown and Levinson (1990:15) give prominence to the same three factors: *“In broad terms, research seems to support our claim that three sociological factors are crucial in determining the level of politeness which a speaker (S) will use to an addressee (H): these are relative power (P) of H over S, the social distance (D) between S and H, and the ranking of the position (R) involved in doing the face-threatening act (FTA).”*

More specifically, Brown and Levinson (1990: 76, 77) describe these factors as follows:

D is a symmetric social dimension of similarity/ difference within which S and H stand for the purposes of this act. In many cases (but not all), it is based on an assessment of the frequency of interaction and the kinds of material or non-material goods(including face) exchanged between S and H (or parties representing S or H, or for whom S and H are representatives). An important part of the assessment of D will usually be measures of social distance based on stable social attributes. The reflex of social closeness is, generally, the reciprocal giving and receiving of positive face.

P is asymmetric social dimension of relative power. That is, P (H, S) is the degree to which H can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of S’s plans and self-evaluation. In general there are two sources of P, either of which may be authorized or unauthorized- material control (over economic distribution and physical force) and metaphysical control (over the actions of others, by virtue of metaphysical forces subscribed to by those others). In most cases an individual’s power is drawn from both these sources or is thought to overlap them.

R is culturally and situationally defined ranking of impositions by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent’s wants of self-determination (his negative- and positive- face wants). In general there are probably two such scales or ranks that are emically identifiable for negative-face FTAs: a ranking of impositions in proportion to the expenditure (a) of *services* (including the provision of time) and (b) of *goods* (including non-material goods like information, as well as the expression of regard and other face payments).

It is appropriate to assess that P,D,R determine the level of politeness S may employ for a particular FTA. Brown and Levinson (1990: 80) claim that D, P, R are all relevant and independent. We can illustrate their independence and relevance by the following examples.

Considering first the D variable, we can take two cases where P and R are constant and have small values in the estimate of S- in other words, where the relative power of S and H is

more or less equal, and the imposition is not great. With P and R held constant and small, only the expression of D varies in the following two sentences:

- (1) Excuse me, would you by any chance have the time?
- (2) Got the time, mate?

Our intuitions are that (1) would be used where (in S's perception) S and H were distant (strangers from different parts, say), and (2) where S and H were close (either known to each other, or perceptibly 'similar' in social terms). D, then, is the only variable that changes from (1) to (2). The first option (1) is a linguistic realization of the negative-politeness strategy, and the second (2) is a realization of the positive-politeness strategy.

P and R are similarly proved to be independent variables, which serves as the basis for this study. The effects of D are investigated on the speech act of making a bargain when P and R are kept neutral.

3. Realization of strategies in making a bargain

Our investigation into the ways of making a bargain conducted by both Vietnamese and American informants uncovers that most of them are one-utterance responses, accounting for 67%. The two-utterance responses make up 31 % and the rest 2% of informants do not bargain.

On the basis of the politeness theory suggested by Brown and Levinson (1990) and Nguyen Quang (2003), the researcher classified politeness strategies employed by the informants in their making a bargain into 7 sub-strategies as follows:

STRATEGIES		VIE	AM
Positive politeness Strategies	<i>Single positive politeness strategies (SPPS)</i>	33.78%	8.72%
	<i>Positive politeness strategies+ Positive politeness strategies (PPS+PPS)</i>	13..26%	0.00%
	<i>Positive politeness strategies+ Verbal off-record (PPS+VOR)</i>	18.03%	4.81%
Negative politeness Strategies	<i>Single negative politeness strategies (SNPS)</i>	16.57%	57.25%
	<i>Negative politeness strategies+ Negative politeness strategies (NPS+NPS)</i>	3.30%	15.38%
	<i>Negative politeness strategies+ Verbal off-record (NPS+VOR)</i>	5.01%	5..54%
O R	<i>Verbal off-record (VOR)</i>	10.05%	0.56%

Table 2: Realization of strategies in making a bargain

1. Single positive politeness strategies (SPPS)

All the one-utterance responses used at least one of the 17 positive politeness strategies suggested by Brown and Levinson (1990) and Nguyen Quang (2003). When making a bargain, SPPS is employed by the Vietnamese informants at the highest proportion (33.78%). Below are the common utterances of this kind.

- *Bu để cho con giá 500 nghìn nhé. (Accept 500,000VND, dear Mom)*
- *Chị ơi, chị bớt cho em một chút đi. (Lower the price a bit, sister)*
- *Bác ơi, khuyến mãi cho cháu 20% nhé. (Give me 20% discount, dear)*
- *Mày, giảm cho bạn tí. (Lower the price a bit, mate)*
- *Ng- ời nhà mà bớt nữa đi. (Lower the price, dear.)*
- *The lowest price, mate/ guy*

2. Positive politeness strategies + Positive politeness strategies (PPS+PPS)

This is one of the strategies to which two-utterance responses are collected. When using PPS+PPS, buyer (S) also gives the reason/ promise, or seek agreement with the doing speech act of bargaining. This strategy is found only in the Vietnamese data.

- *Hàng xóm láng giềng với nhau mà. Em bớt tí đi. (We are good neighbors. Lower the price a bit, sister?)*
- *Bạn bè với nhau mà. Mày giảm cho bạn một ít. (We are old friends. Lower the price a bit, mate)*
- *Điện thoại cũ mà đắt thế. 1 triệu chú nhé. (It's a used cell phone. Accept 1 million VND, dear)*
- *Vậy thì em trả 300 nghìn. Anh em mình còn lấy chỗ đi lại. (Then, I'll have it at 300,000VND. I would be your regular customer.)*

3. Positive politeness strategies+ Verbal off-record (PPS+ VOR)

Buyer (S) tries to make a bargain with a PP strategy, then followed with verbal off-record strategy. The second utterance is usually found with a reason. PPS+ VOR is employed by the Vietnamese at the high rate (18.03%) and rarely by the American (4.81%).

- *Mày ơi, 1 triệu 2 nhé. Đợt này tao đang kẹt tiền.(S2) (Accept 1.2 million VND, mate. I am short of money, at this time)*
- *Cậu bớt cho mình tí đi. Điện thoại này vỏ x-óc nhiều thế này mà. (A bit lower, mate. It's such a scratched cover!)*
- *Chị gái giảm nữa đi, chị nói thách quá. Cái này là đồ cũ mà.(S2,3) (Lower the price, sister. It is just the second hand one.)*

- *Cậu bớt đi. ở bên hàng kia cũng có cái này, không đ-ợc giá thì mình đi. (S3).*
(Lower the price, mate. There is another same one in the next stall, or else I'll leave it)
- *Lower the price, mate. It looks like it's very old and it might not work that well.*

4. Single negative politeness strategies (SNPS)

Another strategy found in one-utterance response is SNPS, which is commonly a direct bargaining. The Vietnamese make the largest use of this strategy in all the investigated situations accounting 16.57 %, whereas the American mostly make use of this strategy in the situation three, accounting for 57.25 %. The following examples are the typical ones in our collected data.

- *Chị xem lấy cái áo này giá 500 nghìn đ-ợc không? (Would you accept 500, 000 for this one?)*
- *Chị giảm giá thêm 10% đ-ợc nữa không? (Would you reduce the price by 10%?)*
- *Giảm cho anh xuống giá gốc đ-ợc không em? (Could I have the lowest price?)*
- *Bác có thể giảm bớt chút cho cháu không ạ? (Could you lower the price a bit?)*
- *Anh có thể bán đúng giá nữa cho em không? (The right price, please)*
- *Không biết chị còn giảm giá thêm cho em được nữa không? (S1,2) (I don't suppose there would be any chance of you giving me some more discount)*

5. Negative politeness strategies+ Negative politeness strategies (NPS+NPS)

NPS+ NPS is a combination of two utterances, the first of which is usually the quality hedges. They may stress buyer's (S's) commitment to the truth of his utterance or they may disclaim the assumption that the point of S assertion to the inform seller (H). The second utterance is usually a direct bargaining.

- *Thực ra, em cũng ch- a thích cái màu áo này lắm. Chị giảm bớt đi thì em mua. (S1)*
(To be honest, I don't really like its color. Could you lower the price, then I'll have it?)
- *Anh thấy đấy, em thiện chí mua, anh cũng thiện chí bán đi. Anh để cho em giá 1 triệu đ-ợc không anh? (S2) (As you know, I am quite willing to have this. Would you accept the price 1million VND?)*
- *Thực ra, cái này trông cũng không còn mới. Chị ơi, chị có bớt đ-ợc thêm nữa không? (S2) (Obviously, this cell phone looks like it's old. Could you lower the price?)*
- *"Are you sure this is as nice as you say it is? It looks like it's very old. Can you lower the price a bit?" (S3)*

6. Negative politeness strategies+ Verbal off-record (NPS+VOR)

Buyer (S) goes on record with the first utterance in the form of NP then further an off-record utterance. As in PPS+VOR, the VOR is commonly a reason added when bargaining.

- *Em xem giảm đ- ọc thì chị mua. Quầy bên cạnh có cái đẹp hơn (S3) (Perhaps, you would lower the price a bit? There is better one in another shop)*
- *Anh giảm giá đi, 500 nghìn nhé. Giá đấy đắt hơn bạn em mua 100 nghìn. (S1) (Would you accept 500,000 VND. Your price is 100,000 higher than that of my friend could afford)*
- *Is there a discount for paying cash? Is it likely to go on sale in the near future?(S1)*

7. Verbal off-record (VOR)

Brown and Levinson (1990: 211) clearly point out that “A *communicative act is done off record if it is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act. Thus if a speaker wants to do an FTA, but wants to avoid the responsibility for doing it, he can do it off record and leave it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it*”

In our collected data, off record strategy used in making a bargain appears in both Vietnamese and American cultures. The data reveals that Vietnamese informants use this strategy more than the American do, mainly to bargain with their communicating partners as mother’s friend, neighbor or an old friend (10.05% vs 0.46%). The selected utterances of this type are as follows:

- *Bác à, chiếc áo này đẹp quá nh- ng tiếc là nó hơi đắt. (This is such a beautiful coat. What a pity! It is so expensive) (S1)*
- *Mình cũng rất thích chiếc Nokia này nh- ng giá mà nó rẻ hơn một chút. (I like it so much, but if only it were cheaper.) (S2)*
- *Bác ơi, chiếc này đẹp quá nhỉ, nh- ng đắt quá cháu không đủ tiền mua rồi. (It is such a nice one, but it is so expensive that I cannot afford). (S3)*
- *Sao lâu rồi không gặp đã quên bạn rồi à, bán đắt thế. (Don’t you remember me? It is so expensive.) (S1,2)*
- *Đồ cũ mà cậu bán đắt nh- đồ mới vậy? (How could you sell the second hand one at the price of a new one?) (S3)*
- *I compared prices available at different stores and the lowest price I had found was \$15 (S1)*

CHAPTER 4: DATA COLLECTION, DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

1. METHODOLOGY

1.1. Research instrument

This is a cross-cultural investigation into some noteworthy Vietnamese-American similarities and differences in making a bargain. Sufficient data for the study were collected from the two types of questionnaires: one in English and the other in Vietnamese consisting of real life situations in two places: in a shop and at flea market. Then they were delivered and collected directly or by email. Such data was then analyzed in the light of cross-cultural communication under the theories of politeness.

The questionnaire includes two parts:

- Part 1 is designed for general information about the informants
- Part 2 is designed for American and Vietnamese people to find out how they would make a bargain in the following situations:

+ **Situation 1:** In the shop: *How would you verbally make a bargain to buy a new coat.*

+ **Situation 2:** In the cell phone shop: *How would you verbally make a bargain to buy a second-hand cell phone.*

+ **Situation 3:** In the flea market: *How would you verbally make a bargain to buy an old French-styled lamp.*

The survey questionnaires were designed into two types: one in English and one in Vietnamese. The sequences of this conversation, making a bargain, include: the last utterance of the buyers to make a bargain and the next utterance is supposed that the seller will accept.

1.2. Procedure of data collection

The procedure of collecting questionnaire data can be described in brief:

Data were collected from two groups of informants. The first group who administered the questionnaires in Vietnamese consists of 50 Vietnamese. The second group includes 50 American English native speakers. Since some of the informants' personal parameters are believed to be useful in analyzing their relationship in communication, informants were requested to provide the following parameters:

- Age
- Occupation
- Gender
- Area where they spent most of their time
- Marital status
- Acquisition of language(s) other than their mother tongue

Below is the table which shows the number of informants with their status parameters.

STATUS PARAMETERS	INFORMANTS
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		Vietnamese	American
AGE	Above 40	13	14
	Below 40	37	36
GENDER	Male	22	23
	Female	28	27
MARITAL STATUS	Married	26	21
	Single	24	29
OCCUPATION	Techno-scientific	15	16
	Social	35	34
WHERE THEY SPENT MOST OF THEIR TIME	Rural	32	11
	Urban	18	39
ACQUISITION OF LANGUAGE(S)	Without knowledge of foreign languages	16	17
	With knowledge of foreign languages	34	33

Table 3: Distribution of informants with their status parameters

1.3. Procedure of data analysis

In this section, cross-cultural similarities and differences between two cultures, Vietnamese and American ones, will be discussed basing on the detailed quantitative analysis of both Vietnamese and American data seen from informants' parameters and communicating partner's parameters. Analyzing and discussing data, the utterances of informants, buyers, are taken into consideration by the above mentioned parameters: age, gender, occupation, residence and acquisitions of foreign language(s) whereas the responses of the sellers are not targeted in this study.

As stated in the part 'scope of study', the influence of D on the way people making a bargain is investigated in the given situation. Therefore, the informants' communicating partners were intended to keep other parameters such as P and R neutral to put D in focus. The communicating partners are:

- the informant's mother's friend
- the informant's old friend at high school
- the informant's neighbor
- a stranger

The two group of informants were requested to write their utterances when making a bargain to their communicating partners in each situation. The number of utterances conducted by 100 informants, both Vietnamese and American, is illustrated in **Table 4**.

SITUATIONS	COMMUNICATING PARTNERS	NUMBERS OF UTTERANCES COLLECTED	
		Vietnamese	American
Situation 1: making a bargain to buy a new coat at a shop.	Mother's friend	50	50
	Old friend at high school	50	50
	Neighbor	50	50
	Stranger	50	50
Situation 2: making a bargain to buy a second-hand cell phone at the phone shop.	Mother's friend	50	50
	Old friend at high school	50	50
	Neighbor	50	50
	Stranger	50	50
Situation 3: making a bargain to buy an old French-styled lamp at the flea market	Mother's friend	50	50
	Old friend at high school	50	50
	Neighbor	50	50
	Stranger	50	50
Total:		600	600

Table 4: Number of utterances collected from survey questionnaire

2. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

2.1. Use of strategies as seen from informants' parameters

2.1.1. Politeness Strategies

As can be seen in **Table 3**, Vietnamese informants use all the seven strategies in making a bargain to communicating partners, whereas American informants use six out of seven. Different parameters of the informants present the variety of distributions of these strategies hereafter.

1. Age (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters)

STRA INF.P		PPS			NPS			OR
		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	Above 40	28.82%	15.18%	14.85%	17.35%	9.74%	8.35%	5.71 %
	Under 40	27.78%	8.16%	9.02%	19.72%	14.98%	15.89%	4.45%
AM	Above 40	12.64%		2.35%	64.42%	14.96%	4.97%	0.66%
	Under 40	13.72%		0.52%	65.51%	16.34%	3.34%	0.57%

Table 5: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of age

Vietnamese findings

Informants above 40 and those under 40 made use of all seven strategies, of which SPPS ranked the first (28.82% and 27.78% respectively). Next comes SNPS: the older group employed

17.35% and the younger 19.72%. However, differences can be seen when PPS+PPS and PPS+VOR were more favored by the older group (15.18% and 8.16%, respectively), meanwhile NPS+NPS and NPS+VOR were preferred by the younger group (14.98% and 15.89%, respectively). Generally, the older tended to be more positive politeness-oriented (PPO), whereas the younger were negative politeness-oriented (NPO)

American findings

None of the informants, neither the older nor the younger group referred to PPS+PPS. Apart from that, the two groups showed relatively similar tendency towards the rest strategies. They made the largest proportion of using SNPS (64.42% for those above 40 and 65.51% for those under 40 years of age), the second largest use of NPS+NPS (14.96% and 16.34% respectively). They were both NPO.

In brief, the Vietnamese, whether above or under 40, showed their preference in applying SPPS, while the American showed their interest in SNPS. It is noted that age did not affect the American in choosing strategies, whereas, it happened to the Vietnamese. Both the older and younger American informants were NPO and employed rather equivalent proportion of each strategy. Meanwhile, older Vietnamese informants were PPO and the younger NPO.

2. Gender (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters)

INF.P \ STRA		PPS			NPS			OR
		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	Male	24.95%	2.83%	1.72%	47.80%	8.56%	6.96%	7.63%
	Female	36.67%	9.05%	4.97%	28.17%	9.29%	6.31%	5.54%
AM	Male	9.88%		0.06%	59.98%	23.33%	6.75%	0.00%
	Female	19.11%		6.97%	46.14%	20.37%	6.87%	0.54%

Table 6: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of gender

Vietnamese findings

The two genders showed some differences in their choices of strategies to make a bargain. For males, SNPS accounted for the largest percentage of 47.80%, followed by SPPS, which made up 24.95%. For females, these two strategies took the reversed places. SPPS ranked the first at 36.67% and SNPS the second accounting for 28.17%. While males tended to be obviously NPO with 63.32% of NPS compared with 29.50% of PPS, females tended to be a bit PPO. Nevertheless, the disparity between PPS and NPS employed by females was not enormous: 50.69% vs 43.77%

American findings

It can be seen from the table 5, beside PPS+PPS, American males neither used PPS + VOR nor VOR. Though, American females employed VOR rather than male ones, they resorted to

VOR at a rather low rate. Yet, the two sexes gave their top priority to SNPS (males: 59.98% vs females: 46.14%), the second largest proportion came to NPS+NPS (23.33% vs 20.37% respectively). Both groups were NPO.

It is obviously to see that SNPS was the most commonly chosen by males in making a bargain from the two cultures and females from American as well. Vietnamese females, on the other hand, showed their widest interest in SPPS. Another point of contrast is that American males found it was no use to apply VOR strategies; however, their Vietnamese counterparts employed it at a rather high percentage. In a broad sense, Vietnamese males and the American of the two sexes were NPO, meanwhile Vietnamese females seemed to be more PPO.

3. Marital status (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters)

INF.P \ STRA		PPS			NPS			OR
		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	Married	30.06%	12.26%	11.54%	27.08%	5.26%	7.03%	6.77%
	Single	26.42%	7.77%	3.14%	42.24%	8.15%	8.80%	3.48%
AM	Married	12.19%		4.03%	48.75%	25.85%	8.39%	0.79%
	Single	20.32%		3.74%	56.16%	18.03%	4.76%	0.00%

Table 7: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of marital status

Vietnamese findings

Married people tended to be PPO, but the disparity between the proportions of SPPS and SNPS is not very great: 2.98%. SPPS, SNPS and PPS+PPS were the three most favored strategies, accounting for 30.06%, 27.08% and 12.26% respectively. In contrast with the married, the single were NPO (NPS: 59.19% compared with PPS: 37.33%). Single people were most interested in SNPS, making up 42.24%, followed by SPPS (26.42%). They made less use of VOR compared with the married: 3.48% vs 6.72%.

American findings

Obviously, both American married and single people were NPO. They employed a relatively high rate of NPS at 82.99% and 78.95% respectively. As found in the utterances of the two groups, SNPS was the most widely chosen found in the utterances of the two groups. Next came NPS+NPS on the part of the married group, constituting 25.85% and SPPS on the part of the single, accounting for 20.32%. The single also resorted to NPS+NPS at a rather high rate: 18.03% meanwhile they did not resort to VOR.

Overall, Vietnamese single people were similar to the American single and married in the aspect that they all preferred SNPS and other NPS to others. Nonetheless, the Vietnamese single were less NPO than American. The American single did not resort to VOR, whereas the

Vietnamese single used VOR at the higher percentage of 3.48%. Vietnamese married people, however, were PPO and they were the only group to apply a rather high proportion of VOR in making a bargain.

4. Occupation (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters)

STRA INF.P		PPS			NPS			OR
		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	Tech-sci	17.87%	3.59%	4.35%	48.00%	13.14%	7.88%	5.16%
	Social	33.45%	7.69%	6.78%	30.34%	5.26%	7.28%	9.20%
AM	Tech-sci	8.56%		0.07%	67.77%	18.43%	5.17%	0.00%
	Social	16.15%		1.40%	52.06%	22.97%	7.28%	0.14%

Table 8: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of occupation

Vietnamese findings

Both of the occupational groups made use of all the strategies, however the frequency of their choice of each strategy varies. For the techno-scientific group, SNPS was the most favorite, constituting a proportion of 48.00%. This group also preferred to use SPPS (17.87%) and NPS+NPS (13.14%). Although the social group was towards using SPPS with the highest percentage (33.45%), they used SNPS quite often (30.34%). Moreover, they were more in favor of VOR than the techno-scientific (9.20% compared to 5.16%).

American findings

The techno-scientific group did not resort three strategies (PPS+PPS, PPS+VOR and VOR) when bargaining, whereas the social did not take one strategy, PPS+PPS, into consideration. However, VOR was employed by the social at the very low proportion (0.14%). The first group employed SNPS at the maximum rate of 67.77%. The second most common strategy came to NPS+NPS, accounting for 18.43%. Likewise, the latter group, the social, was most inclined to SNPS (52.06%), followed by NPS+NPS (22.97%).

In general, Vietnamese and American **techno-scientific** groups shared common preference in using NPS. The American group was, however, more NPO than the Vietnamese one. The American **techno-scientific** did not apply VOR. Another difference between two groups was that as many as three strategies were ignored in the American's choice. With regard to social groups, there are two considerable differences between two cultures. First, the Vietnamese group used VOR more than the American. Second, while the American group was highly NPO, the Vietnamese one was relatively lower NPO.

5. Living area (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters)

STRA	PPS	NPS	OR
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INF.P		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	Rural	33.75%	8.54%	6.06%	29.90%	7.93%	7.46%	6.36%
	Urban	21.86%	5.43%	4.09%	43.38%	14.52%	4.81%	5.91%
AM	Rural	15.71%		0.95%	51.90%	24.76%	6.19%	0.49%
	Urban	10.12%		0.93%	60.74%	21.90%	6.31%	0.00%

Table 9: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of living area

Vietnamese findings

SPPS was the most widely used by people from rural areas (33.75%) meanwhile, SNPS by people from urban areas (43.38%). However, country folks were towards PPS and tended to be a little bit PPO (48.35% of PPS compared to 45.29% of NPS). On the contrary, city dwellers were highly NPO (62.71% of NPS and 31.38% of PPS). As for off-record strategies, the country group employed VOR a bit higher than that of the city (6.36% and 5.91%).

American findings

The two groups shared a common tendency in choosing strategies to make a bargain, except for VOR, to which city dwellers did not incline to at all. Both countryside and urban dwellers gave their first priority to SNPS (51.90% and 60.74% respectively). Their second priority was given to NPS+NPS (24.76% and 21.90%), next was SPPS (15.71% and 10.12% respectively).

Similar to American counterparts, Vietnamese city dwellers were more favored of NPS than PPS and were most concerned to SNPS. Another point to be noted is that Vietnamese country folks differed from their American counterparts in the tendency of being more positively polite and the American more negatively polite.

6. Knowledge of foreign languages (STRA= Strategies; INF.P= Informants' parameters; NEFL= no European foreign languages; WEFL= with European foreign languages; NOFL= no Oriental foreign languages; WOFL= with Oriental foreign languages)

INF.P \ STRA		PPS			NPS			OR
		SPPS	PPS+PPS	PPS+VOR	SNPS	NPS+NPS	NPS+VOR	VOR
VIE	NEFL	34.56%	10.86%	8.82%	24.40%	4.90%	3.71%	11.75%
	WEFL	21.19%	5.77%	4.75%	42.53%	10.08%	8.47%	7.21%
AM	NOFL	8.64%		0.29%	64.79%	19.65%	6.64%	0.00%
	WOFL	21.16%		9.25%	47.61%	17.09%	5.60%	0.28%

Table 10: Politeness strategies according to the parameter of knowledge of FL

Vietnamese findings

Vietnamese informants without European foreign languages tended to use more PPS, of which SPPS accounted for the highest proportion of 34.56% and PPS+PPS was the second highest, at 10.86%. However, they were inclined to SNPS with a relatively large percentage of 24.40%, VOR with a proportion of 11.75%. Those with European foreign languages applied SNPS the most (42.53%), then SPPS at the rate of 21.19% and NPS+NPS at 10.08%.

American findings

The American without Oriental foreign languages mainly used NPS to their bargaining. These strategies constituted as much as 91.08% compared to 8.93% of PPS. Particularly, SNPS was listed the top priority (64.79%), next comes NPS+NPS (19.65%). Neither PPS+PPS nor VOR was used by this group. Although those knowing Oriental foreign languages were inclined to SPPS with a percentage of 21.16%, they were more favored of NPS with the use of SNPS at the maximum proportion of 47.61% and NPS+NPS with 17.09%.

Basing on the data analyzed above, it is clearly revealed that knowledge of either European or Oriental foreign languages has influences on informants in their choice of strategies in bargaining. Vietnamese informants knowing European foreign languages, like the American without Oriental ones, tended to be NPO. The American with Oriental foreign languages acquisition and the Vietnamese with European ones shared a similar tendency in applying PPS.

2.1.2. Major cross-cultural similarities and differences

a> Similarities

- There are 6 out of 7 listed strategies used by all the different groups of informants from both Vietnamese and American cultures. They were SPPS, PPS+VOR, SNPS, NPS+NPS, NPPS+VOR, and VOR. Both SNPS and SPPS were often given the top priority by all the groups.
- The younger groups (both Vietnamese and American) employed more NPS than PPS and were inclined to NPO.
- Similar to American males, Vietnamese males were NPO and SNPS was the first choice of their utterances.
- SNPS ranked the first strategy which Vietnamese and American single groups applied. They were both NPO, but the American group was more negatively polite than the Vietnamese.
- The Vietnamese techno-scientific groups, similar to the American counterparts, employed more NPS than PPS and SNPS was the most favored. Furthermore, they were both more NPO than the social ones (Vie. Tech-sci: NPS: 69.02%; Am. Tech-sci: NPS: 91.37% vs Vie. Social: NPS: 42.88%; Am. Social: NPS: 82.31%).
- Vietnamese and American city dwellers showed more favor in NPS than country folks (Vie: urban: 62.71% vs rural: 45.29%; Am: urban: 88.95% vs rural: 82.85%).
- The Vietnamese group with European foreign languages and the American group without Oriental foreign languages showed their first priority to SNPS and their second priority to SPPS.

b> Differences

- Vietnamese informants used all the seven listed strategies, American informants of all different groups did not resort to PPS+PPS.
- American informants made less use of VOR than the Vietnamese did.
- Age almost had no influence on American choice of strategies but it did on the Vietnamese. The Vietnamese group under 40, like both of the American groups (under or above 40), was NPO, meanwhile, Vietnamese informants above 40 were a bit PPO.
- Vietnamese informants, both males and females, applied all the seven strategies while American males did not use two strategies (PPS+PPS and VOR). Another difference is Vietnamese females preferred PPS to NPS (PPS: 50.69% and NPS: 43.77%) while the American females had a reversed tendency (NPS: 73.38% and PPS: 26.08%).

- The Vietnamese groups, both married and single ones, employed all seven strategies, whereas the American single group did not resort to VOR. American informants, both married and single, put SNPS at the top priority (48.75% and 56.16% respectively). The Vietnamese married informants used more SPPS, VOR than the American counterparts. Moreover, in aspect of *marital status*, it was the only of the four groups, which tended to be PPO, while American married informants were inclined to NPO (Vie. PPS: 53.86%; NPS: 37.33% and Am. PPS: 16.22%; NPS: 82.99 %.).
- The Vietnamese informants from the techno-scientific group made use of seven listed strategies but American counterparts did not resort to two strategies (PPS+PPS and VOR). With regard to the social groups, the Vietnamese group used SPPS and VOR at the greater proportion than the American although both of them were NPO.
- Vietnamese country folks tended to be positively polite, whereas American counterparts were NPO. American city dwellers made no use of VOR. On the contrary, Vietnamese city dwellers applied VOR with a relatively high rate: 5.91%.
- The Vietnamese group without European foreign languages and the American group without Oriental foreign languages display some obvious differences. Firstly, the American group employed NPS at a higher rate than the Vietnamese corresponding one (91.08% and 33.01%). In contrast, the Vietnamese group used PPS considerably greater than the American did (54.24% and 8.93%). One more difference is that the American group left VOR out of consideration while the Vietnamese resorted to VOR at relatively high percentage: 11.75%.

2.2. Use of strategies as seen from communicating partners' parameters

The data analysis from Section **IV.2.1.** shows that informants' different parameters have influences on their choice of politeness strategies in making a bargain, resulting in intra-cultural and cross-cultural differences. However, their communicating partner, to some certain extents, is another factor for their applying appropriate strategies.

2.2.1. Politeness Strategies

1. Communicating partner as a mother’s friend (an older acquaintance)

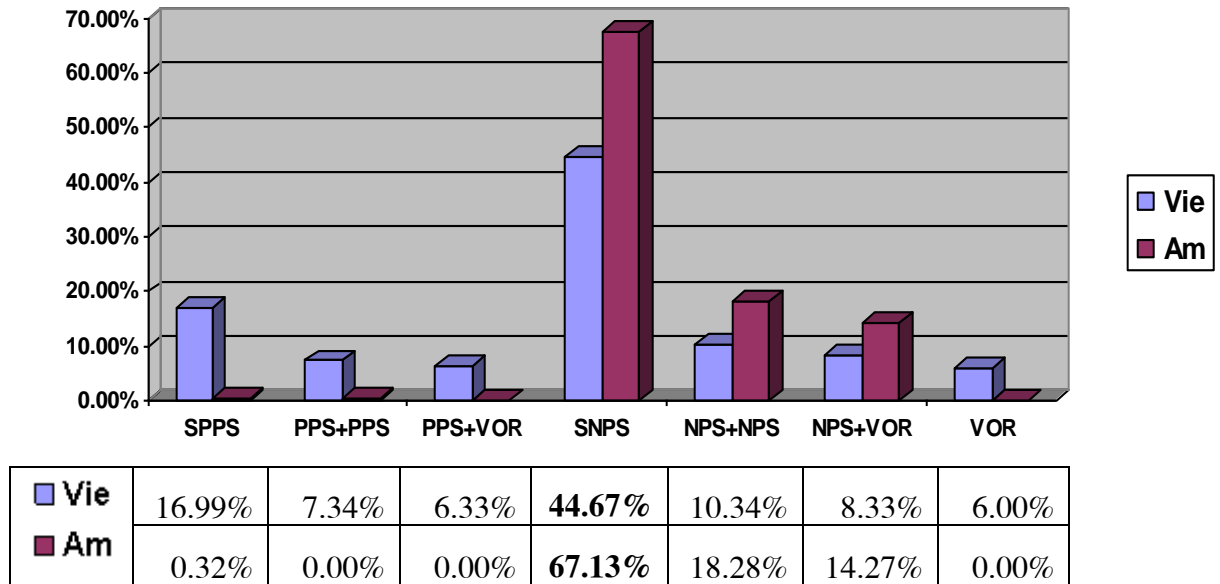
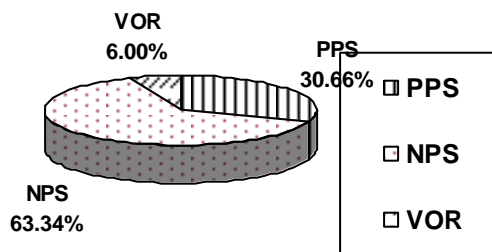


Figure 4: Politeness strategies in making a bargain to acquaintance

Vietnamese findings

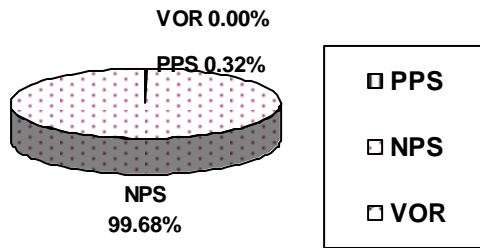


With communicating partner as a *mother’s friend* (as an *older acquaintance*), Vietnamese informants resorted to NPS at the higher percentage than PPS (63.34% and 30.66% respectively). SNPS is the most commonly applied strategy, constituted of 44.67%. NPS+NPS ranks the second with rather high frequency (10.34%).

- *Cô có thể giảm bớt chút cho cháu không ạ? (Could you lower the price a bit?) (S1,2) (SNPS)*

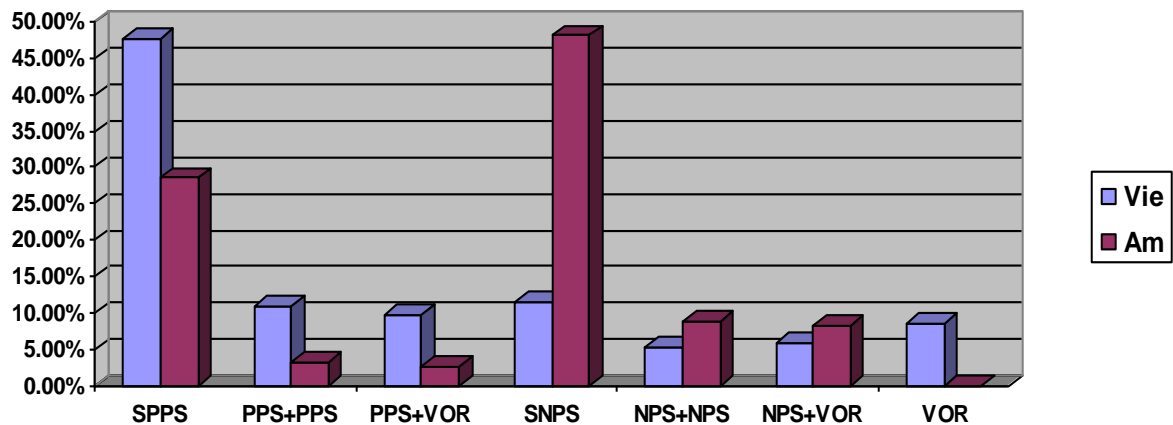
- *Bác ơi, cái này cháu thích lắm rồi, bác bớt cho cháu có đ-ợc không ạ? (Actually, I like it so much. Could you lower the price?) (S1,2) (NPS+NPS)*

American findings



There were 4 out of 7 strategies, which the American used to bargain to acquaintance, including SPPS, SNPS, NPS+NPS and NPS+VOR. Regarding the NPS, SNPS accounted for the largest proportion of 67.13%, followed by NPS+NPS, then NPS+VOR, making up 18.28% and 14.27% respectively. SPPS was resorted to, though at a very low percentage (0.32%)

2. Communicating partner as *an old friend*



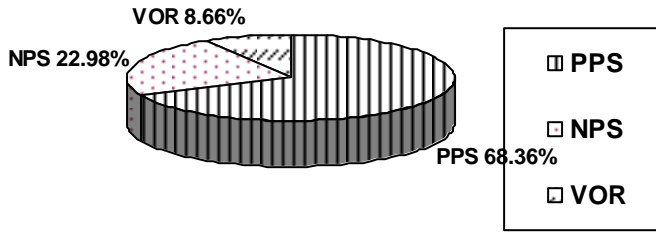
■ Vie	47.69%	10.85%	9.82%	11.65%	5.30%	6.03%	8.66%
■ Am	28.53%	3.36%	2.74%	48.04%	9.00%	8.33%	0.00%

Figure 5: Politeness strategies in making a bargain to *friend*

Vietnamese findings

When communicating partner was a friend, Vietnamese informants employed PPS at the highest rate, of which SPPS accounted for up to 47.69%. Next comes SNPS, making up 11.65%. VOR was another strategy they might resort to, at 8.66%.

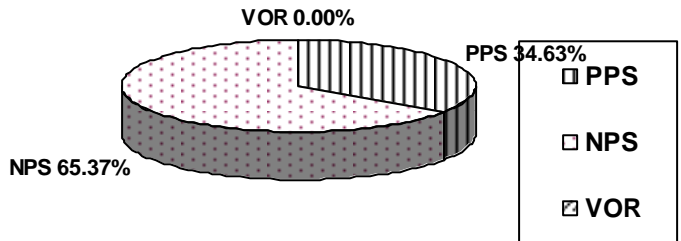
- *Cậu để cho tớ giá thấp hơn tí đi!* (Sell it at a bit lower the price, mate.)(S1,2,3) (SPPS)
- *Này, bạn bè cũ với nhau mà.* (Hey, we are such old friends) (S1,2) (VOR)



Generally, Vietnamese informants preferred making a bargain with PPS to NPS: the proportion of PPS was roughly three times greater than that of NPS (68.36% vs 22.98%).

American findings

The American were not inclined to VOR. They gave their top priority to SNPS (48.04%), followed by the SPPS (23.29%). However, the proportion of NPS was much higher than that of PPS (65.37% and 34.63% respectively).



3. Communicating partner as a neighbor

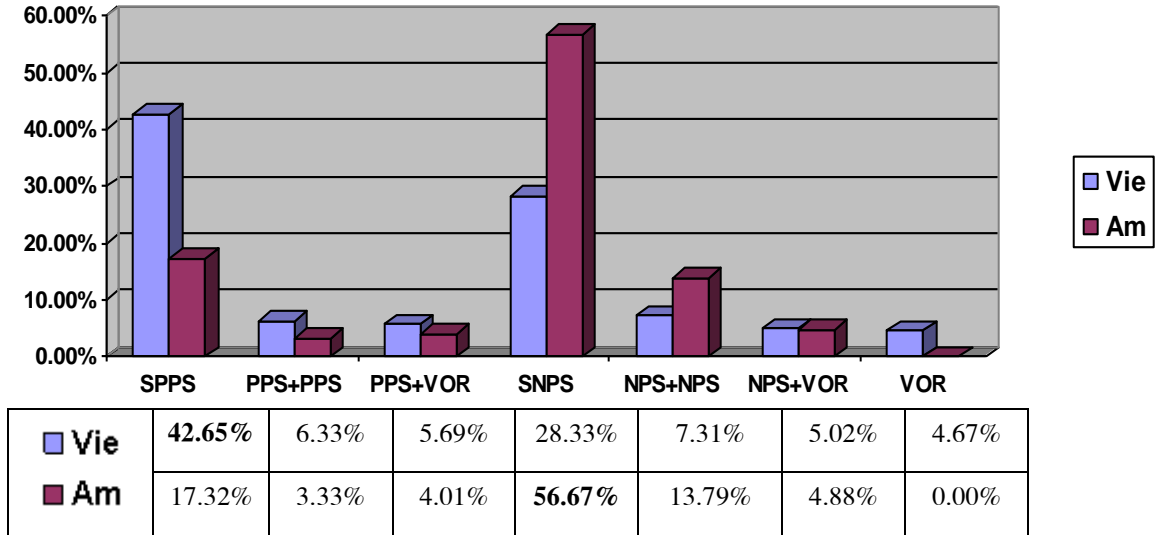
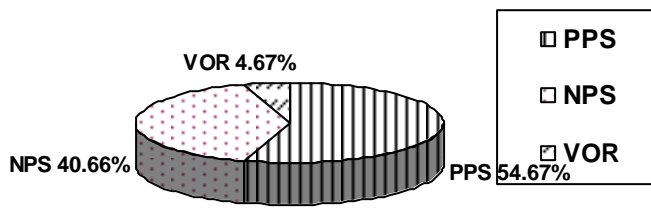


Figure 6: Politeness strategies in making a bargain to neighbor

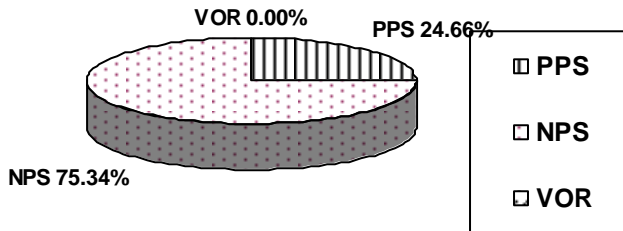
Vietnamese findings

The most widely- applied strategy that Vietnamese informants employed to bargain with their neighbor was SPPS, accounting for 42.65%. They also resorted to SNPS (28.33%) as the second choice. Overall, Vietnamese informants were PPO towards this communicating partner. However, the disparity between PPS and NPS was not very great (54.67% and 40.66% respectively).



- *Chỗ hàng xóm láng giềng, chị bớt tí lấy may! (S1,2) (We are next door; would you give me some discount for luckiness.) (PPS+PPS)*

American findings



American informants were not inclined to VOR at all. Their priority went to NPS, of which SPPS was given the highest proportion of 56.67%. Added to the proportions of other NPS, the American obviously tended to be NPO (75.34%)

4. Communicating partner as a stranger

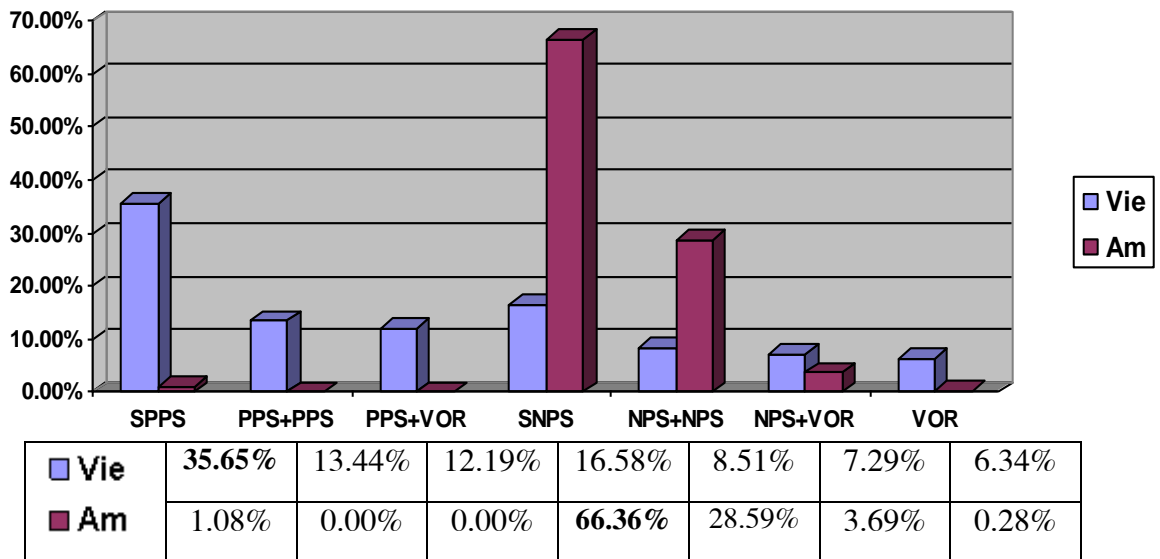
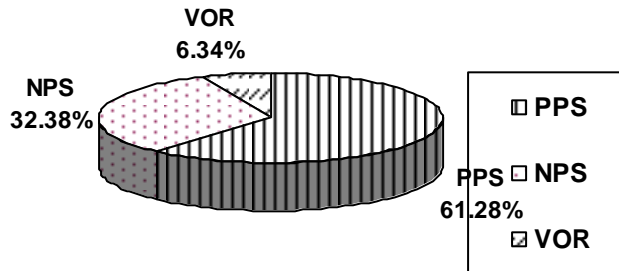


Figure 7: Politeness strategies in making a bargain to stranger

Vietnamese findings

Vietnamese informants resorted to much higher percentage of PPS than that of NPS with their communicating partner as a stranger (61.28% and 32.38% respectively), of which SPPS was the most widely used (36.65%). Their second priority was SNPS, accounting for 16.58%.



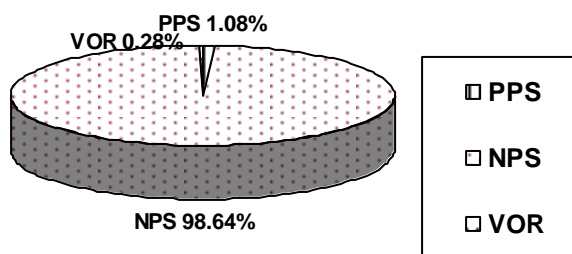
- On the whole, Vietnamese informants have an obvious tendency of PPO when bargaining, despite the greater the social distance.

- *Chú bớt cho anh chút đi.(S,2,3) (Offer me a bit lower price, brother.) (SPPS)*

- *Thôi, bu lấy con tròn 500 nhé! (S1,3) (Accept the price 500,000, dear mum!) (SPPS)*

American findings

On the contrary, American informants proved to be more negative polite in bargaining to those with greater social distances. With stranger, the American might use SPPS or VOR, though at very low percentage (1.08% and 0.28% respectively). None of PPS+PPS, PPS+VOR was employed in their utterances. SNPS constituted the highest rate (66.36%), NPS+NPS the second (28.87%), however, NPS+VOR represented rather low at 3.39%.



- *Could you lower the price a bit? (S2,3) (SNPS)*

- *The lowest price I had found in other stores is \$22.(S1)(VOR)*

2.2.2. Major cross-cultural similarities and differences

a> Similarities

- **Mother's friend (older acquaintance)**

- Both Vietnamese and American groups mainly used NPS (Vic:63.34% vs Am: 99.68%), of which SNPS constituted the highest rates (Vic: 44.67%; Am: 67.13%).

- **Friend:** The America group used NPS+VOR at the rate of 8.33%, likewise, Vietnamese informants used NPS+VOR at the roughly same proportion of 6.03%.
- **Neighbor:** Both of the groups employed NPS+VOR at the nearly same rate (5.02% vs 4.88% respectively).
- **Stranger:** They were oriented towards negative politeness. Obviously, the America group was negatively polite towards their communicating partners.

b> Differences

- **Mother's friend (older acquaintance)**
 - The American did not apply PPS+PPS, PPS+VOR and VOR to their bargaining
 - Vietnamese informants used SPPS at the relatively greater than the American did (16.99% compared with 0.32%).
 - Vietnamese informants used VOR at the rate of 6.00% whereas, the American did not apply it at all.
 - American group was highly NPO with the total proportion of NPS: 99.68%.
- **Friend**
 - For the Vietnamese, SPPS and SNPS were the first and second priority. For the American, the positions of two strategies reversed.
 - The Vietnamese resorted to VOR at rather higher percentage (VOR: 8.66%), while the American did not.
 - The Vietnamese were PPO meanwhile the American were NPO.
- **Neighbor**
 - The Vietnamese group applied SPPS at the highest rate (42.65%) and SNPS the second (28.33%). In contrast, the American group was mostly in favor of SNPS (56.67%), followed by SPPS (28.33%).
 - Overall, the American group was highly NPO, while the Vietnamese was slightly PPO.
- **Stranger**
 - The American did not resort to two strategies PPS+PPS and PPS+VOR, however the Vietnamese used all the seven listed ones.
 - The Vietnamese used VOR at the rate of 6.34%, while American only applied it in this case at very low rate (0.28%)
 - The American favor SNPS (66.36%) the most, then NPS+NPS (28.87%)
 - The Vietnamese employed SPPS at the highest rate of 35.65%, though the American resorted to it at very low proportion of only 1.08%.

3. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the choice that the informants employed politeness strategies when making a bargain, more or less, is decided by the investigated parameters. Different groups of social parameters use different strategies at different proportions. Of these parameters, gender and knowledge of foreign languages are the factors having greatest influences.

The pressure of the parameters on the range of choices of politeness strategies of Vietnamese informants is wider than that of American. The two figures below would illustrate some points, which should be taken into consideration:

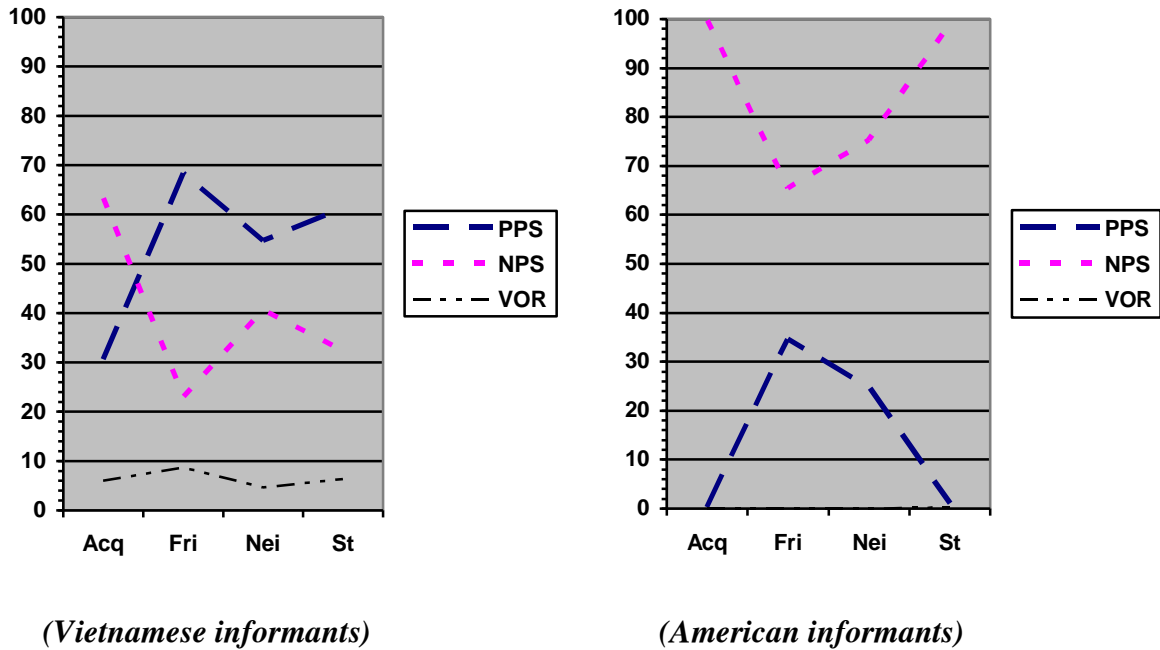


Figure 8: Politeness strategies in making a bargain to different communicating partners

- Vietnamese informants are much more PPO towards *acquaintance* and *stranger* while American is a little bit PPO.
- American informants use PPS towards *friend* and *neighbor* at roughly two times lower proportion than that of Vietnamese do.
- NPS is widely applied by American informants towards most of their communicating partners, while Vietnamese informants resort to PPS towards *acquaintance* (older) and *neighbor* at higher rate than towards *friend* or *stranger*.
- VOR is applied by Vietnamese informants towards most of their communicating partners when bargaining whereas their American counterparts only tend to be a little bit off- record towards *stranger*.

PART 3: CONCLUSION

1. OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

We have conducted an investigation into Vietnamese and American informants' choice of politeness strategies in the act of making a bargain basing on the theoretical background of speech act and politeness in the light of cross-cultural communication. The investigation reveals that the two groups of informants have certain similarities and differences in cultural and linguistic behavior towards bargaining. The differences are resulted from the specific features of the two languages and cultures and politeness norms as well. The similarities underneath the two cultures prove an idea that the cultural exchange can be reached and the cultural barrier can be lifted.

The data collected from questionnaires measure the effect of informants' parameters such as *age, gender, marital status, occupation, living area and knowledge of foreign language* on their employing various politeness strategies. Below is an overview of major findings

1.1. Politeness strategies in making a bargain

Positive politeness is mainly used to narrow the distance between S and H, and enhance their solidarity. Following are some *Positive politeness strategies* used in making a bargain, which are quite common to Vietnamese:

- Claim in- group solidarity

- *Bu để cho con giá 500 nghìn nhé. (Accept 500,000VND, dear Mom)*

- Offer, promise

- *Vậy thì em trả 300 nghìn. Anh em mình còn lấy chỗ đi lại. (Then, I'll have it at 300,000VND. I would be your regular customer.)*

- Give (or ask for) reasons

- *Cậu bớt cho mình tí đi. Điện thoại này vỏ xước nhiều thế này mà. (A bit lower, mate. It's such a scratched cover!)*

- Assert reciprocity

- *Cậu bớt đi. ở bên hàng kia cũng có cái này, không đ- ợc giá thì mình đi. (S3). Lower the price, mate. There is another same one in the next stall, or else I'll leave it)*

Negative politeness is understood as a concern not to impose upon others or restrict their freedom, but remain distant. While positive politeness narrows the distance between interlocutors, negative politeness keeps a distance between them, and the realizations of negative politeness strategies consists in assurances that S recognizes and respects H's negative face wants and will not or only minimally interfere with H's freedom of action.

Negative politeness strategies mostly used by the American informants when making a bargain (or alternatively by Vietnamese informants) include:

- Question/ Hedge

- *Are you sure this is as nice as you say it is? It looks like it's very old. Can you lower the price a bit?* (S3)
- *Bác có thể giảm bớt chút cho cháu không ạ? (Could you reduce the price a bit?)*
- *Thực ra, em cũng ch- a thích cái màu áo này lắm. Chị giảm bớt 10% đi thì em mua. (S1) (To be honest, I don't really like its color. Could you increase the discount by 10%, then I'll have it?)*

- Minimize the imposition

- *Anh thấy đấy, em thiện chí mua, anh cũng thiện chí bán đi. Anh để cho em giá 1 triệu đ- ọc không anh? (S2) (As you know, I am quite willing to have this. Would you accept the price of 1million VND?)*

- Pessimistic

- *Không biết chị còn giảm giá thêm cho em được nữa không? (S1,2) (I don't suppose there would be any chance of you giving me some more discount?)*

The common belief that the American with their Western cultural features prefer NPS is expressed more clearly when the American informants investigated make use of NPS at the greater rate than PPS (91.70% and 13.53% respectively). The two groups of informants show different interest in *OR* strategies. The Vietnamese employ *VOR* (verbal off-record) with rather high proportion (10.05%), whereas the American informants rarely resort to it (0.56%) in making a bargain. A conclusion can be drawn that *VOR* is generally inappropriate for the American to apply when making a bargain. The finding also supports the generalization that Vietnamese people, with subtle manner in communication, usually tend to be indirect while Westerners more straight to the point.

1.2. Effects of the communicating partners on informants in choosing politeness strategies when making a bargain.

The social distance among various communicating partners such as *acquaintance*, *friend*, *neighbor* or *stranger* has more influence on the Vietnamese than on the American and induces the two groups to apply different appropriate strategies. While Vietnamese informants use more PPS than NPS to make a bargain to most of their interactants, the American commonly resort to PPS to *friend* at relative proportion. The highest percentages lie in NPS in the American

utterances. Therefore, another generalized assumption that the American are more individualistic while the Vietnamese are more collectivistic is reaffirmed through this analysis.

In the case of communicating partner *stranger*, the Vietnamese apply VOR with a rather higher rate than the American do (6.34% compared to 0.28%). Does this mean that the Vietnamese are less polite than the American because of being more off-record? According to Nguyen Quang (2002:113), such comment is subjective because we cannot rely on the value system and communication style of one language and culture to make any remarks on another. In communication, “appropriateness” is the most important factor although the interactants choose different strategies (positive politeness or negative politeness), different channels (verbal or non-verbal, direct or indirect). “Appropriateness” is a very dynamic notion and highly culture-specific (ibid: 114).

1.3. Effects of informants’ status parameters.

The results of data analysis show that all the investigated status parameters, such as *age, gender, marital status, occupation, living area and knowledge of foreign languages* have difference influences on both Vietnamese and American informants in their linguistic politeness behavior.

Except for those Vietnamese groups being PPO, including those above 40, the female, the married, the rural and without European foreign languages, all the rest (both Vietnamese and American) are NPO. However, this does not mean that the status parameters have no impacts upon American informants. Of the American groups, the male group is more NPO than the female (NPS: 90.06% and 73.92% respectively); the married is more negatively polite than the single (NPS: 83.78% and 78.95%); the techno-scientific is more negatively polite than the social (NPS: 91.28% and 82.315); the urban is more NPO than the rural (NPS: 88.95% and 82.85%); and the group without Oriental foreign languages is far more in favor of NPS than the one with Oriental foreign languages (91.08% and 69.76%). *Age* almost have no impacts upon the American.

2. IMPLICATIONS FOR CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Understanding and appreciating intercultural differences ultimately promotes clearer communication, breaks down barriers, builds trust, and strengthens relationships. The prime purpose of any foreign language learners is to master that language and communicate successfully with the native speakers. English learners are not an exception, they do hope that they can use English effectively in different fields for their work, their business transactions, meetings, study or simply for their daily interactions. Making a bargain is considered a universal daily activity. Although you are either Vietnamese or American, your aim when negotiating price

over a certain type of goods is to get it at a cheaper one than you expect. However, because of coming from different cultures, Vietnamese and American people may have both similarities and different behaviors, different communicating styles in expressing their bargaining. Therefore, the English learners, apart from mastering the language skills, should be aware of those cultural differences. It is essential to note that cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in a different ways. What is considered an appropriate behavior in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one. Misunderstandings arise when I use my meanings, my so-called politeness in communication to make sense of your reality. This study is in the hope to raise cultural awareness of English learners on knowing the behavior, politeness strategies that the American use in the situation of bargaining. As a result, misevaluating of others' politeness and communication breakdown would be potentially avoided.

3. IMPLICATIONS FOR ELT

3.1. Cross cultural negotiation in business field

Cross cultural negotiation is one of many specialized areas within the wider field of cross cultural communications. By taking cross cultural negotiation, negotiators and sales personnel give themselves an advantage over competitors. Cross cultural negotiations is about more than just how foreigners close deals. It involves looking at all factors that can influence the proceedings. By way of highlighting this, a few brief examples of topics covered in cross cultural negotiation training shall be offered.

Eye Contact: In the US, UK and much of northern Europe, strong, direct eye contact conveys confidence and sincerity. In South America it is a sign of trustworthiness. However, in some cultures such as the Japanese, Vietnamese prolonged eye contact is considered rude and is generally avoided.

Personal Space & Touch: In Europe and North America, business people will usually leave a certain amount of distance between themselves when interacting. Touching only takes place between friends. In South America or the Middle East, business people are tactile and like to get up close. In Japan or Vietnam, it is not uncommon for people to leave a gap of four feet when conversing. Touching only takes place between close friends and family members.

Power Distance: This refers to the acceptance of authority differences between people. Cultures with low power distance postulate equality among people, and focus more on earned status than ascribed status. Negotiators from countries like Britain, Germany and Austria tend to be

comfortable with shared authority and democratic structures. When we face a high power distance culture, be prepared for hierarchical structures and clear authority figures.

Meeting & Greeting: most international business people meet with a handshake. In some countries this is not appropriate between genders. Some may view a weak handshake as sign of weakness whereas others would perceive a firm handshake as aggressive. How should people be addressed? Is it by first name, surname or title? Is small talk part of the proceedings or not?

The Basis of the Relationship: in much of Europe and North America, business is contractual in nature. Personal relationships are seen as unhealthy as they can cloud objectivity and lead to complications. In South America and much of Asia, business is personal. Partnerships will only be made with those they know, trust and feel comfortable with. It is therefore necessary to invest in relationship building before conducting business.

Personal Style: Our individual attitude towards the other side and biases which we sometimes establish all determine our assumptions that may lead the negotiation process towards win-win or win-lose solutions. Do we feel more comfortable using a formal or informal approach to communication? In some cultures, like America, an informal style may help to create friendly relationships and accelerate the problem solving solution. In Vietnam, by comparison, an informal approach is proper only when the relationship is firm and sealed with trust. Doing or saying the wrong thing at the wrong time, poor communication and cross cultural misunderstandings can all have harmful consequences.

Clearly there are many factors that need to be considered when approaching cross cultural negotiation. Through cross cultural negotiation training, business personnel are given the appropriate knowledge that can help them prepare their presentations and sales pitches effectively. By tailoring your behaviour and the way you approach the negotiation you will succeed in maximising your potential.

Coping with Culture

Negotiating in the international environment is a huge challenge for any negotiator. How do we cope with the cultural differences? What approach is more efficient and proper when dealing with Japanese, Vietnamese; Americans or Germans? There are some very helpful guidelines we can apply:

1. Learn the other side's culture

It is very important to know the commonest basic components of our counterparty's culture. It's a sign of respect and a way to build trust and credibility as well as advantage that can help us to choose the right strategies and tactics during the negotiation. Of course, it's impossible to learn another culture in detail when we learn at short notice that a foreign delegation is visiting in two weeks' time. The best we can do is to try to identify principal influences that the foreign culture may have on making the deal.

2. Don't stereotype

Making assumptions can create distrust and barriers that expose both your and the other side's needs, positions and goals. The way we view other people tends to be reserved and cautious. We usually expect people to take advantage of a situation, and during the negotiations the other side probably thinks the same way, especially when there is a lack of trust between counterparts. In stead of generalising, we should make an effort to treat everyone as individuals. Find the other side's values and beliefs independently of values and beliefs characteristic of the culture or group being represented by your counterpart.

3. Find ways to bridge the culture gap

Apart from adopting the other side's culture to adjust to the situation and environment, we can also try to persuade the other side to use elements of our own culture. In some situations it is also possible to use a combination of both cultures, for example, regarding joint venture businesses. Another possible solution is to adopt a third culture, which can be a strong base for personal relationships. When there is a difficulty in finding common ground, focusing on common professional cultures may be the initiation of business relations.

Learn about the components of a cross cultural negotiation process to increase your success in avoiding barriers and failures in the international business arena.

3.2. Activities of sales and price negotiation for learners, particularly for those of English for Business

3.2.1 Getting it right in negotiations

A 1. Work in pairs Read this article and try to agree what the terms *debating* and *bargaining* refer to:

A much simplified view of what goes on in & negotiation says that there are Four Main Phases of Negotiation:

1 The preparation phase: this is where you work out what you want and which are the main Priorities

2 The debating phase: during this phase you try to find out what the other side or the customer wants. say what you want but do not say what the final conditions are yet. Use open questions and listen to your customer. Try to find out in what areas the other side may be prepared to move.

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

4 The bargaining phase: this is the period or part where you indicate what it is you will actually trade. Here you exchange conditionally in turn particular points, *if ... , then...* Remember to write down the agreement.

2. Answer these questions:

1. When do you use expressions-in the form of *if ... , then...*?
2. When do you suggest some of the things you might be prepared to trade?
3. Why should you be patient to listen to the other side's proposals?
4. When do you work out what you want and which are the main priorities?
5. What should you not forget to do in a negotiation?
6. What sort of questions should you use in the early phases?
7. Why do you think that is?
8. In what phase do you suggest things you are ready to trade?

B *Read the face-to-face negotiation taking place between Fritz, a wholesale buyer of plant-based raw materials for a chain of companies manufacturing organic product, and Marianne, a French supplier.*

Fritz: Well, I can say, Marianne, I can let you have orders for at least...um...a hundred fifty tones depending on the price and quantity, like I said last time. I told you as we mentioned at the last meeting, if your quality is no good and your prices are not competitive, that's the end of our deal.

Marianne: But, of course, Fritz, I understand, naturally. Now, if we know how much you are putting in an order for , I mean what are you saying, what sort of quantity are we talking about?

Fritz: I can safely say my clients, that is one large client, needs by next month, at first, eighty to a hundred tones of lavender

Marianne: That's all right. We are flexible and we can do that.

Fritz: In that case, Marianne...

Marianne: And if the quantity is interesting, I am sure that we can do business. But, Fritz, I must stress, we do require firm figures or quantities, I mean, especially if you want a discount, Fritz.

Fritz: Well, I am not talking less than one hundred tones.

Marianne: That's good. We'll give you a good price on that.

Fritz: *If we order immediately two hundred in total, then can I expect a discount?*

Marianne: If the order is made, yes, that is not going to be a problem.

Fritz: One more thing, the condition of the produce must be perfect, A1 quality. Otherwise we can't do business.

Marianne: Of course, naturally, but you know, we only deliver perfect A1 condition. We do have a good reputation, you know.

Fritz: But, if we find that the prices you are quoting us are much too high and the quality is not good, Marianne, then we....

Marianne: Then, then you must tell us, Fritz.

Fritz: But we are trusting you, Marianne, we have done business with your organization before.

Marianne: I think you will see our lavender is guaranteed A1.

Fritz: If there's a guarantee, then we are prepared to take two hundred tones.

Marianne: OK. That's good, *Fritz, we can give you a 5% discount, then, on the total.*

Fritz: But last time we received 7%. Why so little now, Marianne?

Marianne: Ah, well, I'm sorry. But that was on a larger quantity, you see, and this is just two hundred tones.

Fritz: *Look, I'll sign for two hundred and fifty tones and you give me 6% discount, what do you say, Marianne?*

Marianne: OK, agreed, we'll do that, Fritz.

- 1** First decide which order the following points are mentioned in. Next, decide which points Marianne (M) raises and which Fritz (F) raises. The first is done for you as an example in each case.

ORDER THE POINTS ARE MENTIONED	WHO FIRST RAISES THE POINTS
..... discount
..... good price
.....1..... competitive prices F
..... guarantees
..... importance of quality
..... the need for firm figures
..... perfect condition
..... the point about the
..... organization being flexible

- 2 Then decide in which phases of the negotiation these words in the box were used in the conversation:

- a) If there's a guarantee, then we are prepared to ..
 b) I can let you have orders for at least two hundred tones.
 c) If we order immediately two hundred in total, with the second hundred deliverable in three months, then ...
 d) What are you saying, how much?

Phases of Negotiation:

1. Prepare: what you want
2. Debate: what do they want?
3. Propose: what could you theoretically trade, offer, concede?
4. Bargain: what will you, in actual fact, trade, offer, concede?

C Negotiating solutions

Read this conversation with a partner. Then make up similar conversations using these ideas to suggest compromises.

Customer: *If we order 1,000, will you include free delivery?*

Supplier: *Yes, we could agree to that*

Customer: *And if we paid in advance, would you reduce the price by 2%?*

Supplier: *I'm afraid that wouldn't be possible.*

1 Customer and supplier

Order today, deliver by Friday?

Pay in advance, increase discount?

2 Landlord and tenant

Employ more security staff, sign a 5-year lease?

Lower the rent, pay for building repairs?

3 Sales representatives and management

Accept higher sales targets, increase our commission?

Not reach our targets, still pay our bonus?

4 Bank and client

Pay a higher rate of interest, give us the loan?

Not offer our home as security, still lend us the money?

3.2.2. Skills **A** Three key skills in negotiating are:

Negotiating



- 1 signaling (drawing attention to what you're about to say)
- 2 checking understanding
- 3 summarizing

Study the examples of each in the Useful language box

Useful language

Signaling

I'd like to make a suggestion. I think we should leave this point and come back to it later. I want to ask a question. How are we going to pay for this?

Checking understanding

Sorry, could you repeat that?
Are you saying you don't have that quantity in stock?
So what you're saying is you will....

Summarizing

Can we just summarize the points we've agreed so far?
OK, so we're agreed. You'll pay for delivery and get everything to us by the end of June.

B Now read the negotiation between the Commercial Director of a car manufacturer and the General Manager of a business equipment firm. Underline any examples of *signaling, checking understanding or summarizing*.

Director We are willing to give you a 12% discount on our list price if you buy over 30 vehicles- that OK. it'll mean you'll be paying just under €14,400 for each vehicle. But that's providing you don't have any special requirements which cost us more money.

- Manager Special requirements? What do you mean exactly?
- Director Oh, I don't know, if you want the interior of the car to be changed, for example. The price we've agreed is for our standard model. Or if you wanted a modification which costs money, more storage compartments, for example.
- Manager Right. It's true, some of our top sales staff can be fussy. I don't know though, we'd still like a 12% discount, given the size of our order.
- Director Mmm, OK, let me make a suggestion. We give you 12 % but if someone wants extras or a modification, we'll offer you a 10% discount on that car. That's fair enough, isn't it?
- Manager OK, so you're saying you will modify the car if we ask you to?
- Director Exactly.
- Manager Right then, let's see what we've got. The price will be €14,400, providing there are no extras or modifications to the interior. You'll make small changes if we ask you to, but reduce the discount by 2%.
- Director That's it. OK. Let's talk about delivery now.

C

Role play the following situation.

An Italian shoe manufacturer has produced a new range of women's leather boots. A German retailer is considering placing an order for 250 pairs of each design. The Sales Manager and Chief Buyer negotiate the contract.
Sales Manager turn to File 1. Chief Buyer turn to File 2.



Skills, Negotiation, Exercise C.

File 1

Sales Manager (Shoe manufacturer)

You want the retailer to agree to the following:

Delivery time	Four weeks after receiving order
Place of delivery	To the retailers' main ware houses in Frankfurt and Munich
Price	Knee-length boots €320 Ankle boots €200
Colors	Black and brown
Payment	30 days after delivery
Discount	3% for orders over 100 pairs
Returns	Black boots only (easy to resell)

File 2

Chief Buyer (Retailer)

You want the shoe manufacturer to agree to the following:

Delivery time	One week after receiving order
Place of delivery	to individual retail outlets (20 around the country)
Price	Knee-length boots €280 Ankle boots €160
Colors	Black, brown, green and red
Payment	60 days after delivery
Discount	6% for orders over 200
Returns	All unsold boots returnable up to one year after order.

3.2.3. Skills

A Read the first two parts of the conversation. After each part, complete the missing words. Then check your answers with a partner.

Negotiating: reaching agreement

- | | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| <i>priority</i> | <i>will you agree</i> | <i>as long as</i> | <i>agree to</i> |
| <i>we'd prefer to pay</i> | <i>agreed</i> | <i>offer you</i> | <i>mind if I</i> |
| <i>How about</i> | <i>normal fee for</i> | | |

Part 1

Michelle Let's talk about the time for setting up the website. We want it in a month's time. that's the end of July.

Designer It's a bit early. I was hoping to have two months to do the job. If I finish in one month, **1 ..will....you....agree...** to reduce the number of pages?

Michelle Yes, that's no problem. Just do the best you can. Our **2.....**is to have the website up and running as soon as possible.

Designer OK then **3.....**

Part 2

Michelle Now about payment. You want to charge us \$50 an hour. That works out at \$400 a day, I believe.

Designer Yes, that's the **4.....**for the job.

Michelle Well, **5.....**to pay you a fixed amount for the work. We can **6.....** you \$6,000.

Designer I see. Do you **7.....**ask you why you want to pay that way?

Michelle Well, you see, that way we can control the cost of the project. If we pay you per hour, the cost become high. It could get out of control. This way, we know where we stand.

Designer I see, \$6,000. Mmm, that could be all right, I suppose, **8.....** I get some money in advance. **9.....**paying me half when I start work and half at the end?

Michelle Yes, I think we could arrange that. OK I **10.....**that.

Answer Key:

<i>1. will you agree</i>	<i>2. priority</i>	<i>3. agreed</i>	<i>4. normal fee for</i>
<i>5. we'd prefer to pay</i>	<i>6. offer you</i>	<i>7. mind if I</i>	<i>8. as long as</i>
<i>9. How about</i>	<i>10. agree to</i>		

B Read the third part of the conversation. Note down all the expressions for *agreeing* and *disagreeing*. Decide whether they express a) strong, b) polite or c) hesitant agreement or disagreement.

- Designer Now, the design of the website. Will we have book covers on it?
- Michelle Absolutely. I'd like to display a large number of book covers on every page. They'd really attract people's attention. What do you think?
- Designer It's a bit too much, I'd say. A lot of pictures take too long to download. I'd prefer one big image. How about that?
- Michelle Mmm, I don't know. People like to see the book covers. It draws them into the website, believe me.
- Designer Maybe you're right. How about two covers per page, then?
- Michelle OK, that sounds reasonable. Now, what else do we need to discuss before you get started?

C Role-play this situation

A representative of a website maintenance company meets a company manager to negotiate a maintenance contract.

Website representative: turn to File 3.

Company manager: turn to File 4.

Read your role cards. Then do the negotiation.

Useful language

Stating aims

We'd like to have it in a month's time.

We must have delivery by the end of next week.

Making concessions

If I have to finish in one month, I'll need to have an extra designer.

That could be all right- as long as I get some money in advance.

Rejecting suggestions

We'd prefer to pay you a fixed amount.

Bargaining

How about paying me half when I start the work?

Focusing the discussion

Let's talk about the time for setting up the website.

File 3

Website maintenance company representative

You want:

1. A three-year contract
This allow you to offer the best service to your customers and it will be profitable for you.
2. To test the website each month
This will give you the best level of service to the clients and increase your earnings.
3. Response time 24 hours
You want the company contact you by e-mail if there is an emergency. You want up to 24 hours to solve any problems.

File 4

Company manager

You want:

1. A one-year contract
You want to see how well the company does the job and if they are reliable before giving them a long contract.
2. To have the website tested every three months
You want the maintenance costs to be as low as possible. However, you would like to have the weekly checks on the security of the website.
3. Response time 2 hours
You want to contact them at any hour by phone if there is an emergency. You want the maintenance company to solve any problems within two hours.

14.4 Negotiating on the phone

- A** **Work in pairs** You'll read part of a telephone negotiation about the sale of yogurt between a salesperson and a buyer (**File 7**). Note down your answers to these questions:



1. What are they talking about?
2. What significant points were made?
3. Who made them?
4. What do you think the salesperson will do after the telephone conversation?
5. Is the fax below an accurate reflection of the phone call?

**North Holland Dairy Cooperative, Volendam, Postbus
4550NL-4452**

Ms Irena Eichelberger
Wholesale Groceries Inc.
P.O.B 5678
Austria

Dear Ms Eichelberger,
Telephone conversation 29 February 2010

This fax is to follow up our telephone call of this morning.

We are willing to supply 2,000 (two thousands) tones of our variety Splendide at \$150 (one hundred and fifty dollars) per tone. We expect to make the delivery at the latest by 15th March.

Janna Geden

- B** *Work in groups of two* You are going to take part in a telephone sales negotiation. Student A is the buyer and looks at **File 5**, student B is the seller and looks at **File 6**.
- C** *Work alone or in pairs* Draft a follow-up fax to the buyer or customer confirming your call and what you agreed on. (The fax in **A** can serve as a model.). Give your fax to another pair to respond to.

File 5

You are the buyer for your company. You are calling to negotiate an order

1. *State that you need 10,000 cartons of yogurt by three weeks today, at €1,500 per 100 cartons.*
2. *Make clear that you want this for a customer, three weeks from today's date.*
3. *Ask how many cartons they can deliver for three weeks from now.*
4. *Suggest that you could go to another supplier, although you have been satisfied with this company in the past. But you could offer to take the order somewhere else.*
5. *Try to find out if the other side want to keep your order. (Because you know the alternative distributors are a little dearer)*
6. *If no suggestion comes from the other side suggest that you are willing to compromise on the delivery time if the price is reduced.*
7. *Accept if the conditions are favorable, within 10% of your desired price €1,350.*

File 6

You are in the sales department of your company. you'll receive a call from a buyer.

1. *Reply that the largest quantity you can provide is 5,000 cartons, at €1,545 per 100 cartons.*
2. *State that you cannot deliver by three weeks from now.*
3. *State that for such large quantities the lead time is going to have to be much longer.*
4. *Suggest that you want to keep the order but know that you can only deliver 2,000 of the 5,000 cartons in three weeks.*
5. *Try to find out what the other side are prepared to do. Perhaps you can play for time, because you guess that the buyer will be eager to strike a deal*
6. *You suggest that the buyer will be a good customer in years to come. So propose that you are prepared to come down in the price*
7. *Agree to the deal as long as the price does not fall below your accepted internal bottom limit, which is €1,468 per 100.*

File 7

A telephone negotiation about the sale of yogurt

- Irena: Let us talk about the yogurt deliveries for the Central European market and the North European market.
- Jan: Yes, sure
- Irena: Is that OK?
- Jan: Yeah, you know for the North European market I can deliver the yogurt fairly quickly.
- Irena: The North European area is not going to be a problem, I have approval. But I need to know about the Central European area.
- Jan: Yes.
- Irena: I am sure we can do a good job.
- Jan: Yeah, but you will have to give me some idea about amounts or quantities, because that way it is easier to get it through our organization, you know. They need sometimes time, but if they know something about quantity, they will be more interested.
- Irena: Well, I can't say exactly. They depend on price and quality.
- Jan: Oh, yes, of course.
- Irena: If you like, I'll send you a fax and I shall be very open.
- Jan: Er...yes.
- Irena: I can put in writing to you, that, say, in quantity terms that we can take two thousand depending on the price and quality. And then if you come back to me by fax, I can tell quality is not good and your prices are not competitive, then that'll be the end of our business.
- Jan: Sure, of course, I understand. But if the quantity is interesting, I am sure that our organization...
- Irena: In that case.
- Jan: Mrs Eichelberger... I'm sure we can be flexible, because we need, and want, figures or quantities.
- Irena: I, that is, we are not talking less than one thousand tones...
- Jan: Good.
- Irena: I am ready to say even a minimum of one thousand tones.
- Jan: Yes, good.
- Irena: But what if the matter is pushed through quickly? Will everything be OK?
- Jan: Yes, of course.
- Irena: Perhaps things will move too fast for you and then maybe we'll find that the prices you are quoting us are much too high and the quality is not good and then...
- Jan: And then you will have to tell us.
- Irena: Yes, then maybe we will stop the order, I tell you, because of that.
- Jan: Yes, I see.
- Irena: And so can't you let us have one thousand tones now?
- Jan: That might be easy, because...
- Irena: You don't want to do it, that's all.
- Jan: It depends, you see.
- Irena: OK, then, we'll give you time to decide. How long do you need?

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PPENDIX1

BẢN CÂU HỎI KHẢO SÁT**(For Vietnamese Informants)**

Chúng tôi thiết kế bản câu hỏi khảo sát này nhằm phục vụ cho đề tài nghiên cứu về những khác biệt giao văn hoá Việt – Mỹ trong việc mặc cả khi mua bán. Mong quý vị vui lòng bớt chút thời gian trả lời câu hỏi trong bản điều tra này giúp chúng tôi.

Xin đ- ọc khẳng định cùng quý vị rằng, chúng tôi sẽ không nêu danh quý vị trong bất kỳ tr- ờng hợp nào. Xin chân thành cảm ơn quý vị.

Xin quý vị đánh dấu (√) vào các ô thích hợp sau đây

- **Tuổi của quý vị:**

- | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|
| D- ưới 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30-39 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40-49 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 50-59 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Giới tính của Quý vị:**

- | | |
|-----|--------------------------|
| Nam | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Nữ | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Tình trạng hôn nhân của quý vị:**

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| Đã có gia đình | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ch- a có gia đình | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ly dị | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Nghề nghiệp của quý vị:.....**

- **Nơi quý vị sống lâu nhất:**

- | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|
| Thành thị | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Nông thôn | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Quý vị biết những ngoại ngữ nào? ở trình độ nào?**

	Giỏi	Khá	Trung bình	Yếu
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tình huống 1:

Quý vị nói nh- thế nào với những ng- ời bán hàng sau đây để mặc cả mua một chiếc áo khoác mới tại một cửa hàng bán quần áo?

1. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn của mẹ quý vị.

.....

2. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn học cũ của quý vị.

.....

3. Ng- ời bán hàng là hàng xóm của quý vị.

.....

4. Ng- ời bán hàng là ng- ời xa lạ.

.....

Tình huống 2:

Quý vị nói nh- thế nào với những ng- ời bán hàng sau đây để mặc cả mua một chiếc điện thoại di động cũ ở một cửa hàng bán điện thoại di động?

1. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn của mẹ quý vị.

.....

2. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn học cũ của quý vị.

.....

3. Ng- ời bán hàng là hàng xóm của quý vị.

.....

4. Ng- ời bán hàng là ng- ời xa lạ.

.....

Tình huống 3:

Quý vị nói nh- thế nào với những ng- ời bán hàng sau đây để mặc cả mua một chiếc đèn trang trí kiểu Pháp cổ ở một quầy hàng tại khu chợ bán đồ cũ?

1. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn của mẹ quý vị.

.....

2. Ng- ời bán hàng là một ng- ời bạn học cũ của quý vị.

.....

3. Ng- ời bán hàng là hàng xóm của quý vị.

.....

4. Ng- ời bán hàng là ng- ời xa lạ.

.....

Xin chân thành cảm ơn quý vị đã giúp đỡ!

APPENDIX 2

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(For American Informants)

This survey questionnaire is designed for my research into “A cross-cultural study on how to make bargain”. Your assistance in completing the following items is highly appreciated. You can be confident that this survey questionnaire is for research purpose only and you will not be identified in any discussion of the data.

Please tick (✓) and fill in where appropriate

- **your age:**

- | | |
|----------|--------------------------|
| Below 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21-29 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30-39 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40-49 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 50-59 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Your gender:**

- | | |
|--------|--------------------------|
| Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Your marital status:**

- | | |
|---------|--------------------------|
| Married | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Single | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Divorce | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Your occupation:.....**

- **Area where you spend most of your time:**

- | | |
|-------|--------------------------|
| Urban | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Rural | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Acquisition of language(s) other than your mother tongue?**

- | | Good | Fair | Poor |
|-------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Situation 1:

How would you verbally make a bargain with the following seller to buy a new coat in a clothes shop?

1. S/he is your mother's friend.

.....

2. S/he is your old friend at high school.

.....

3. S/he is your neighbor.

.....

4. S/he is a stranger.

.....

Situation 2:

How would you verbally make a bargain with the following seller to buy a second-hand cell phone at a cell phone shop?

1. S/he is your mother's friend.

.....

2. S/he is your old friend at high school.

.....

3. S/he is your neighbor.

.....

4. S/he is a stranger.

.....

Situation 3:

How would you verbally make a bargain with the following seller to buy an old styled lamp at the flea market?

1. S/he is your mother's friend.

.....

2. S/he is your old friend at high school.

.....

3. S/he is your neighbor.

.....

4. S/he is a stranger.

Thank you kindly!

APPENDIX 3: Summary Table of utterances collected from informants

SITUATIONS <i>Communicating partner's social distance</i>	AMERICAN-ENGLISH	VIETNAMESE
<i>The seller is your Mother's friend</i>	<p>Dear Mum, it is so nice! What's a pity, it's a bit expensive for me. Could you look for whether there is another cheaper?</p> <p>I like this nice one so much. If only it were 10% discount.</p> <p>It's really beautiful. But I can't afford this.</p> <p>Dear Mum, this is really nice. Is there any chance of increasing the discount for luckiness?</p>	<p>Bu à, chiếc áo này đẹp quá, nhưng tiếc là nó hơi đắt.</p> <p>Bác ơi, bác tìm giúp cháu cái nào giá rẻ hơn một chút không ạ?</p> <p>Cháu thích cái này quá, giá mà nó rẻ hơn khoảng 10%.</p> <p>Cái này đẹp thật bác à. Nhưng cháu chưa đủ tiền mua rồi.</p> <p>Bu ơi, cái này đẹp nhỉ. Bu có giảm giá cho con lấy may được không?</p>
<i>The seller is your old school mate</i>	<p>Mate, reduce the price a bit!</p> <p>We are old friends, give me some discount, please!</p> <p>Hey, offer your old friend some discount. Why's so expensive?</p> <p>Honestly, I like this one so much. But it's quite expensive. Could I get any special discount as I am your old schoolmate?</p>	<p>Mày ơi, bớt thêm tí được không?</p> <p>Bạn bè cũ mà, bớt cho mình tí nhé!</p> <p>Này, bớt cho bạn cũ tí. Sao lấy giá đắt thế?</p> <p>Thực ra mình cũng thích lắm nhưng nó hơi đắt nhỉ?</p> <p>Tớ có được giảm giá đặc biệt vì là bạn cũ của cậu không?</p>
<i>The seller is your neighbor</i>	<p>Sister, we are next door, I wonder if you could offer me a bit discount?</p> <p>I like this one so much, but its price is so high.</p> <p>My goodness, it is such a nice one, would you offer any discount?</p> <p>I am your neighbor, Can I expect</p>	<p>Chị à, hàng xóm láng giềng với nhau, chị có thể bớt chút cho em được không ạ?</p> <p>Em cũng thích cái này lắm nhưng nó giá hơi cao chị à.</p> <p>Anh ơi, cái này cũng đẹp thật, anh bớt cho em được chút nào không?</p> <p>Em là hàng xóm với chị, em có</p>

	the discount?	được giảm giá không?
<i>The seller is a stranger</i>	<p>You offer such an expensive price, it is not the new one.</p> <p>Lower the price, please!</p> <p>Dear sister, the possibly lowest price!</p> <p>Please, reduce the price! I can not afford at this price.</p> <p>Can you offer me 10% discount?</p> <p>It is such an expensive price, give me some discount.</p> <p>Will you accept the price of VND 1 million?</p> <p>Give me some discount, sister.</p> <p>Please, the right price!</p> <p>Can you increase your discount?</p> <p>It's only the second- hand, why you give so high price? Reduce by half price, OK?</p> <p>There is the same one in other stores. Reduce the price, or else I'll leave it.</p> <p>If you offered me some discount, then I would be your regular customer the next time.</p> <p>Lower the price, mate. It looks quite old and it might not work that well.</p> <p>Offer me a bit lower price, brother.</p>	<p>Chị nói thách thế, cái này cũ rồi mà. Giảm giá đi chị.</p> <p>Chị gái, lấy giá thấp nhất là bao nhiêu?</p> <p>Giảm giá đi anh. Giá này em không mua được.</p> <p>Chị giảm giá 10% đi.</p> <p>Giá đắt thế chị, giảm giá cho em đi.</p> <p>1 triệu chị nhé.</p> <p>Giảm giá đi chị, đúng giá là bao nhiêu?</p> <p>Anh bớt nữa đi.</p> <p>Đồ cũ mà chị nói giá thách thế? Giảm giá một nửa chị nhé.</p> <p>Ở bên hàng kia cũng có cái này, chị bớt đi, nếu không em đi.</p> <p>Anh giảm giá đi, lần sau em còn quay lại.</p> <p>Cậu giảm giá cho mình đi, điện thoại này cũ rồi.</p> <p>Chú bớt cho anh chút đi.</p>