

TEACHING NEGOTIATION: THE CHOICES

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I dedicate this paper to all teachers
who try to make the classroom a better place.

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the choices for teaching business skills in an elective negotiation skills course in the graduate program for entrepreneurs at the Department of Economics, University of Osijek. The paper first describes the author's teaching context. Then, it offers the author's views of learning and teaching, and discusses the relationship between students and the material they learn, between students and teacher, between individual students as well as the relationship the student has with himself. Next, the theoretical frameworks of Reflective Model, Experiential Learning and Reflective Teaching are presented. In the third chapter, the paper discusses techniques and materials for the negotiation course that the author has used. A number of practical ideas are included here. Finally, the challenges for the future are briefly examined.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION
The Problem

When I was asked to teach a twenty-hour elective negotiation course in the graduate program for entrepreneurs at the Department of Economics, University of Osijek, it was a tremendous professional challenge, but also a daunting one because I realized that despite a dramatic proliferation of negotiation courses in the U.S.¹ there are very few comparable courses taught in Croatia. Very few books on the subject are available in Croatian. Nothing has been published and there are no there explicit discussions in academic settings on how negotiation should be taught. Finally, there is little faculty experience or skill in this area.

The course in negotiation that I was asked to teach, has been quite popular. Part of the popularity of the course is probably due to its novelty and to the fun of the experience. Program evaluations show that students are satisfied with the content as well as the process of the course. The other part of its popularity certainly lies in the fact that negotiation is considered one of the most important business skills.

¹ In 1986 a survey of over 500 institutions of higher education in the U.S. identified "838 courses taught by 636 instructors in 294 institutions across 43 states" (Wehr 1986), quoted in C. Gregory Buntz, and Donald L. Carper, "A Conflict Management Curriculum In Business and Public Administration, "*Negotiation Journal* 3, no. 2 (1987): 201.

The twenty-first century has rightly been called "the age of communication". As the world is turning into the "global village", Croatian businesspeople are doing business around the globe. Negotiation is a key area in which business people need to become experts, particularly within the new economy, as individuals engage in an ever-increasing number of entrepreneurial activities. As a result, there is going to be an increased demand for skillful negotiators and thus need to train these people. Parallel with this process, it's going to be necessary to train teachers to deliver such courses. The question of how to achieve expertise in negotiation is paramount.

Examination of the literature on expertise provides some important, yet daunting facts about the development of expertise. One often cited claim is that it takes a minimum of ten years of dedicated study to become an expert. A recent claim is that it takes thousands of hours of deliberate practice to perform at high levels.² As businesspeople do not have thousands of hours to invest in learning to negotiate, and companies cannot afford to provide such long periods of training, a question arises as to alternative methods for developing expertise in negotiation.

One could argue that a course lasting twenty hours is too short to really influence students' negotiation skills. My goals were far more modest than preparing skilled negotiators. I only wanted my students to get some idea of and feeling for the process of negotiation. I would like to stress that this course offered only the starting point for obtaining the experiences necessary for becoming really skillful in negotiating.

A lot has been written about teaching foreign languages, especially English. Unfortunately, it's not the case with teaching other skills, e.g. negotiation skills. I feel that

² Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Roemer 1993, cited in Jeffrey Loewenstein and Leigh Thompson, "The Challenge of Learning," *Negotiation Journal* 4 (2000): 400

the two areas have a lot in common and as there is a wealth of experience that is transferable, in this paper I aim to apply what I have learned during my studies for a Master's degree at the School for International Training and what I know about teaching English as a foreign language to teaching negotiation skills. Furthermore, I intend to explore some of the central problems and dilemmas in teaching negotiation. While some of these issues are unique to teaching negotiation, many others are typical to teaching other business skills and skills in general, so I believe that many of the ideas presented in the paper will be of interest to educators from other disciplines, too. The paper does not intend to present a revolutionary new approach to teaching negotiation skills, neither does it plan to offer a recipe for a perfect negotiation course, but rather seeks to present a coherent rationale for current good teaching practice, which has been tried and tested in a specific context, as well as offer some food for thought about the larger context of teaching business skills of which the ideas presented in the paper form a meaningful part.

The Questions

Students taking the course in negotiation expect their teacher to deliver a set of strategies that would routinely lead to effective negotiation. They seek some "magic formula" for achieving good outcomes. There is no magic formula in negotiation, but there is a lot science and art, and the question is how to teach it.

A teacher who has decided to design and teach a negotiation course could ask several questions, with perhaps the most important one of them being:

How is teaching negotiation different from teaching more traditional courses?

1. First of all, there does not seem to be a consensus about whether negotiation can be taught. Some argue that there is no way to learn except by experience, while others claim that it is just "common sense" and you either have it or don't. In agreement with Patton who affirms that "(n)egotiation courses can provide a concentrated input of experiences in a context conducive to reflection, analysis, experimentation, and practice"³ my experience is that it can be taught and that everybody can benefit from practice and analysis.⁴

2. In Croatia, negotiation is a new subject and the few teachers teaching it are "reinventing the wheel," struggling on their own each time they design a negotiation course. While this newness offers opportunities for creativity, it also results in idiosyncrasy in both what is thought and how.

3. Because of the newness of the subject, as well as the lack of open discussion, systematic dialogue and research, the teachers have developed their own personal teaching models based on intuitive judgment.

4. The study of negotiations is very complex and truly interdisciplinary.⁵ Very often instructors borrow models and theories from different contexts and apply them in teaching negotiation as if the contexts were identical. Furthermore, the teachers need to study and follow the developments in a variety of different fields. It is not easy to find materials and they are by large published in English (a foreign language for us Croats).

³ Bruce M. Patton, "On Teaching Negotiation," In Michael Wheeler, ed., *Teaching Negotiation: Ideas and Innovations* (Cambridge: PON Books, 2000), 8

⁴ In the feedback at the end of the course my students declared that the course experiences had a substantial impact on their skills and confidence. They also said that the course had given them the skills to keep learning from their experience after the course had finished.

⁵ There is a lot written about the negotiation process from the perspectives of psychology, economics, communications, sociology, law, political science etc.

This is time-consuming, meaning that the teachers spend too little time considering the best ways to transfer the knowledge and teach the skill.

5. There is a strong prejudice against skills courses (and negotiation courses are no exception) in the Croatian academic setting, the rationale being, that skills courses are lacking in serious intellectual content.⁶ Academic or not, the aim of the course is to teach a skill, and for the teaching to be successful, the course needs to combine intellectual training and skills development.

Negotiation *outcomes* cannot be taught. What instead could be taught is the negotiation *process*. But while interest-based, or problem-solving approaches provide descriptions of the stages of the negotiation process, with prescriptions for diagnosing problems or structuring the deals, fostering participation or building consensus, they "remain formulaic and ill-equipped to address the complexities of interpretative processes that themselves reflect the politics of identity and cultural constraints. So while they provide a working set of global process descriptions, they begin to 'wobble' under the weight of local, practical conditions that are implicated in any interpretative process."⁷

Although our students may yearn for prescription, teachers should adopt an interpretative approach, which is based on 'reflective inquiry',⁸ as a core to the negotiation process, rather than a prescriptive approach when teaching negotiation.

6. Negotiation deals with conflict. Conflict leads to heightened emotions. As such, the course, on one hand, motivates students and makes the class exciting. On the other hand, conflict and competitiveness lead to distortion of judgment and perception, as well

⁶ As if the negotiation course consisted only of exercises negotiated by students in front of the class and discussion of those negotiations.

⁷ Sara Cobb, "Negotiation Pedagogy: Learning to Learn," *Negotiation Journal* 4 (2000): 316.

⁸ The term used by Cobb.

as misattribution of the cause of behavior, thus students get carried away by the moment and angry at one another, and sometimes even at the teacher. The teacher needs to be aware of, and able to manage each dynamics.

7. As the major part of the course consists of simulations, role-plays, discussions and analysis of experience, classroom events are not always predictable. The teacher should be prepared to address, manage and integrate spontaneous classroom events with the learning objectives of the course.

8. In traditional academic courses, the teacher has clear responsibilities.⁹ Teachers in negotiation courses, certainly, have many different roles. They must continue to act as formal educators, but they also have responsibilities as classroom managers, referees and mediators.

As educator, the teacher's responsibility is to be an expert in the conceptual foundations of negotiation and conflict, to convey that expertise through lectures or readings, to facilitate classroom discussions of student's insights, and thus evaluate student learning and performance.

As classroom manager, her job is to orchestrate the learning experience. Simulations and other exercises need to be planned, materials prepared, adequate facilities secured, students organized in groups and pairs...

As a referee, the teacher needs to define the boundaries of appropriate and inappropriate behavior in the classroom. The teacher and the students should negotiate the classroom rules, how to enforce them and what to do when they are broken.

⁹ These include: to structure a coherent course outline, lecture, facilitate discussion and evaluate students.

As already noted, students can get angry and trapped in the conflict dynamics. For learning to proceed, students need to be detached in order to assess the events and behavior. The teacher has to intervene as a mediator to help students achieve this balance. Teachers often need to assume different roles during the course, and very often, different roles during one single session, which further complicates the task.

9. Students enter the course with different degrees of expertise. This is especially true for the course in Negotiation for Entrepreneurs that I teach, where some students have been, either willingly or unwillingly, exposed to the practice of negotiation before they have had any training, while others have not been exposed to negotiation theory or practice at all. Moreover, students often come to class having developed deeply engrained, but usually wrong, theories about negotiation. Very often they are not even aware they have them. The most common 'naïve theories'¹⁰, developed early in life, that are likely to hinder effective negotiation training are, for example, "A gain for you is a loss for me, and vice versa", "I'd better get you, before you get me", "The only important thing is winning", "If two people disagree, they can't both be right", etc. Students have to unlearn old habits and learn the new behaviors. In order to achieve this, both students and the teacher need to first recognize that these theories exist. It is vital to find out where the students are at the moment. Next, it is important to understand that they are very powerful, and not easy to eradicate. In fact, it takes years to undo them, and only the most successful negotiators really abandon them for more productive theories. No professional education can function with maximum effectiveness without these realizations. It is true that any concept of any complexity can be taught in a number of ways. Teachers are more

¹⁰ The term used by Loewenstein and Thompson, *ibid.*, 400

likely to succeed in presenting new ideas about negotiation if they offer a number of different entry points, analogies, etc. Thus, multiple intelligences approach may be "the royal road to a better mastery of negotiations."¹¹

This brings us to more challenges in teaching negotiation. How can negotiation skill be taught effectively? Can 'reflective inquiry' be taught? How can we teach both the science and the art of negotiation? What role does 'expert knowledge' play in negotiation classrooms? What is the relationship between what is learned and the real problems that students have in negotiating? What are the components of the course? How can teachers set up environments to foster learning? How can both teacher and students enjoy learning more? Since negotiation is a practice, how can teachers evaluate students as practitioners? Are traditional grading systems adequate? Are students able to transfer practice in the classroom to practice in other settings?

While it was relatively easy to answer the first question, the others are very complex and the next chapters offer some answers.

¹¹ Howard Gardner, "Using Multiple Intelligences to Improve Negotiation Theory and Practice," *Negotiation Journal*, 4 (2000): 323

CHAPTER 2

LEARNING TO LEARN AND TEACH NEGOTIATION

Views about Learning and Teaching

Following on from the previous chapter, in which I suggested that negotiation is both art and science and that teaching a negotiation course differs from teaching a more traditional course, this chapter picks up some general views about teaching and learning that have influenced the way in which I decided to design and teach the course in *Negotiation for Entrepreneurs*.

Obviously, there are many ways to teach a skill and numerous ways to understand learning. As Spolsky ¹² has written, there are many ways to learn languages and many ways to teach them, and some ways work with some students in some circumstances and fail with others. My intention here, however, is not to present a comprehensive review of all of the ways, neither is it to provide a definite solution to the complex issue of teaching negotiation. In this part of the paper, my goal is to identify for myself (and help others

¹² B. Spolsky, "Bridging the Gap: A General Theory of Second Language Learning," *TESOL Quarterly*, 22 (1988), 383

find for themselves) what Gattegno calls "the awareness of the awareness". It only offers one way among many to teach a skill by proposing options for teachers to choose from. The influence of insights, I got during my study at Department of Language Teacher Education at the School for International Training extend throughout the paper, and it draws heavily on learning from Stevick, Silent Way and Counseling Learning, which have distinctly shaped my understanding of learning and teaching.

Someone once said: "In one sense, all students are different; in another sense, all students are the same." I suppose that it is true that different students meet different degrees of success when they attempt to master a skill. Some major factors which have been hypothesized to explain the fact of differential success¹³ are age, previous knowledge and intellectual skills, cognitive styles,¹⁴ personality,¹⁵ interests, types and levels of motivation,¹⁶ learning styles and strategies,¹⁷ as well as expectations about what is to be learned.

Some very interesting research has been devoted to finding out why and how different students learn.¹⁸ Hudson (1968) and Parlett (1970), for example divide students into those who are *syllabus-bound* and those who are *syllabus-free*. Syllabus bound students need exams in order to study, do not read widely outside the set work, attend classes regularly and may very well have conscientious study habits. Syllabus-free

¹³ Adapted from Diane Larsen Freeman, "Second Language Acquisition Research: Staking out the Territory," *TESOL Quarterly* 25 (Summer 1991): 336-338

¹⁴ Cognitive style is the preferred way in which an individual processes information or approaches a task.

¹⁵ Various personality traits, such as self-esteem, extroversion, risk-taking, reaction to anxiety, and tolerance of ambiguity, have been thought to facilitate or inhibit acquisition of skills.

¹⁶ It has been found that the intensity of motivation is more important than the type (i.e. instrumental versus integrative motivation).

¹⁷ Learning strategies refer to "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge." Rubin, "What the good Language Learner can Teach us," *TESOL Quarterly*, 9 (1975), 41-51

¹⁸ For a comprehensive review see in : Michael J. Wallace, *Training Foreign Language Teachers: A Reflective Approach* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991)

students, on the other hand, operate better when they can pursue their own lines of work, and often feel restricted by course requirements.

A different kind of distinction is made by Miller and Parlett (1974), who have three categories of students: the *cue-seekers*, who actively elicit from their teachers information about their course, examinations, etc.; the *cue-conscious*, who are able to pick up useful hints that are passed on by teachers concerning assignments, or course objectives; and the *cue-deaf*, who do not respond to such hints or information. Students who are alert to finding out "the rules of the game" are usually better off.

Another profound distinction is made by Pask and Scott (1972), who divide students who are required to reach a deep level of understanding into serialists and holists. Serialists like to process step by step, mastering one thing at the time; holists like to get an overview, to make global hypotheses which are checked against experience, and restructured if necessary. They may be over-ready to form hasty, personal judgments, while the serialists may not be fully aware of how the various elements of the topic relate to one another.

I find these results significant, and believe that if teachers are made aware of different styles of learning that their students have, they will be better able to understand why some students may encounter problems in learning. They could be better prepared to tailor the course to meet individual needs of students with different styles of learning, give guidelines, and thus help students learn better.

This brings us to some general characteristics of the learning process, distilled from research, that teachers should be aware of.¹⁹

¹⁹ Adapted from Wallace, and Larsen –Freeman.

1. The learning process is complex. It consists of many complex elements and multiple subprocesses, and therefore teachers cannot seek simplistic solutions.
2. The process is gradual. Learning takes time, and teachers cannot expect their students to master a skill with their first encounter. It is very important that both teacher's and students' expectations are realistic.
3. The process is not linear. Especially when learning a skill, students do not master one element at the time and then turn to another. "Even when learners appear to have mastered a particular form, it is not uncommon to find backsliding occurring when new forms are introduced, presumably due to an underlying restructuring (McLaughlin, 1990) which is taking place."²⁰ Teacher should not despair when such behavior is exhibited by their students.
4. The process is dynamic. The factors that influence the student, and the strategies he adopts, change over time. Teachers should know that what works for a student at one level may not do so at other levels.
5. Learners learn when they are ready to do so. Teachers should not expect students to master skills that are "too far beyond their current stage of development."²¹ Furthermore, teachers should be sensitive to individual differences that exist between students in a class and learn to work with them.
6. Learners rely on the knowledge and experience they have. Students come to the class with some experience and knowledge about the subject being taught. They form hypotheses, and test them both against what they already know, and against

²⁰ Larsen-Freeman., 336

²¹ see Brindley, "Verb tenses and TESOL" In David Nunan,ed., *Applying Second Language Acquisition Research* (Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Centre, 1987), 173-204

the new knowledge . Teachers should look for activities that make use of the previous knowledge, foster the formulation of hypotheses, and student's testing of the input to which he is imposed.

7. Learning involves the transformation of what one knows to new contexts. Teachers should prompt students to apply the new knowledge to new situations.
8. Learning is a social phenomenon. During the process, both teachers and students need activities that would cater for their social needs.
9. Human beings have eight or nine basic intelligences.²² No two individuals have exactly the same profile of strengths and weaknesses; nor does strength in one intelligence predict strength or weakness in other intelligences.

These generalizations should not be surprising for teachers. It is important that teachers integrate these generalizations into their own practice by incorporating them into the framework that guides their decisions about teaching. My experience is that they are often overlooked, and too much emphasis is placed either on the importance of the materials or the personality of the teacher.

Obviously, in order to be good teachers, we should know the subject we teach, but equally important it is that we know ourselves and our students. Some teachers and researchers agree that "the good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher."²³ Others claim that successful learning and good teaching "depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and

²² According to Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory

²³ Parker J. Palmer, *The Courage to Teach: Exploring the Inner Landscape of a Teacher's Life* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1998), 13

between people in the classroom."²⁴ Others, like Krashan, believe that, in teaching, it is important to take into account both learning (acquisition/ learning distinction) and learner (affective filter) factors.

I would argue that, for good learning and teaching, it is essential to consider the harmony among *I* (the teacher), *thou* (the student or students) and *it* (the materials) in a certain context (the classroom).²⁵ First and foremost, teaching should be about students who learn, not teachers who teach. Average teachers tend to overemphasize their role in the classroom, so little attention is left for the students. Also, average teachers do not consider the balance between different agents in the classroom, and I tend to believe this is the reason why they never become really good teachers. Their teaching can hardly be considered effective, as only the harmony in the classroom ensures good teaching.

I shall expand the discussion on the importance of presence or absence of

- a) harmony between the student and the material that is being learned,
- b) harmony between the students and teacher,
- c) harmony between students in the classroom, and
- d) harmony inside each individual student,

that significantly impacts the effectiveness of learning and teaching. I shall discuss the nature of these different harmonies, how they can be achieved, and what the teacher should avoid, if she wishes to achieve the harmony in the classroom.

²⁴ Earl W. Stevick, *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways* (Rowley:Newbury House Publishers, 1980), 4

²⁵ The terms are from David Hawkins, *The Informed Vision: Essays and learning and Human Nature* (Agathon Press, 1967) 48-62

Harmony between Student and Material

Each student has short and long-term goals. If, during an academic course something is presented to him as a new goal in its own right, which does not contribute to the achievement of his other goals, he becomes impatient and considers it irrelevant. If he is forced to do something that makes a little or no difference to him, it has little 'depth', in Stevick's terms, it is too shallow for him. If, and this is often the case, the new information is imposed on students from the outside, they find themselves in the power of the person who is imposing the new information and evaluating the mastery of it, and they have to combine the new information with what they already know. The new information often does not get fully integrated into long-term memory. It usually stays in short-term memory only until the student passes the exam. In such a situation, students are very likely to resist the idea of being taught, because they consider the information "foreign". Therefore, we can hardly speak of learning, as no significant change has taken place. Thus, foreignness, shallowness and irrelevance present true obstacles to student's learning effectively and feeling comfortable in the classroom .

There are several things a teacher can do to restore that harmony between the student and the material being taught. First, the teacher should choose relevant materials that would satisfy student's needs. The teacher should also show students how

the course contributes to the achievement of their long-term goals. Preferably the teacher should teach what students can use immediately in real-life situations.²⁶

Besides that, students' learning should guide the teacher and be the focus of her teaching. Average teachers prepare activities, rush students through them and assume that students are learning. They do not have time to observe students because they are preoccupied with giving them as much new knowledge as possible in a lesson, thinking they will learn more. They lecture at such length that little room is left for questions and comments. Such classes are mostly monologues, and students are usually only the passive audience. These teachers do not realize how important it is to have time to think about what you are learning. Similarly, they do not realize that the more the teacher does for the students what they can do for themselves, the less they will do for themselves.²⁷ If the students are given the answers, rather than being allowed to discover the answers themselves, they are much less likely to remember them. The teacher should take into account what the students already know about the subject and start from where they are (not from where they should be). The tasks should be neither too easy nor too difficult, and they should be meaningful and challenging. Learning tends to take place when the material is neither too new nor too familiar. Thus, retention will best take place somewhere between novelty and familiarity. In order to avoid both shallowness and foreignness, teachers should, at least for a part of the course, use student-invested

²⁶ It should not be difficult, especially not in courses in negotiation because students can try out most of the things they learn immediately in their personal and professional life.

²⁷ Here, I do not mean to say that the teacher should refuse to give students any information in order for them to develop all their knowledge on their own. Given the limited time and resources, it is sometimes more effective for teachers to present the new knowledge making it more comprehensible to learners, too.

material.²⁸ This gives students a chance to work with what interests them most and thus an opportunity to learn best. Although students shouldn't be deprived of the "stable arena for meaningful action they so desperately crave,"²⁹ they must be given the freedom of choice within the teacher's overall plan. Teachers should encourage student initiative and independence. Students learn better when they have a choice of what they do. This makes them feel in control, and if they feel in control, they can take more responsibility for their own learning.

Harmony between Students and Teacher

The teacher's teaching and the students' learning must be in harmony. The importance of balance and harmony between the teacher and the students is beautifully explained in Stevick:

Teaching and learning are two men sawing down a tree. One pulls, and then the other. Neither pushes, and neither could work alone, but cutting comes only when the blade is coming towards the learner. At least that's how it should be. If the teacher pulls while the learner is still pulling, they work against each other and waste their strength. If, in her zeal to help the learner, the teacher pushes, then the blade will buckle, rhythm will be broken, both will become disheartened...³⁰

While some overemphasize the role of teachers in the process of learning, some unjustly reduce it to a minimum, claiming that there can be learning without teaching, but a teacher cannot say she has taught unless someone has learned.

²⁸ Student invested material can have different forms. It can either be what students have selected from a range of topics offered by the teacher, or it can be what students themselves prepare, like presentations or posters covering some parts of the course. They can suggest topics that are particularly interesting to be talked about during the class. Students can do a small research, or a project, discuss them and compare the results, etc.

²⁹Earl W. Stevick, *Working with teaching Methods: What's at Stake* (Heinle&Heinle, 1998), 37

³⁰ *ibid*, 30

In agreement with Stevick,³¹ I would argue that the teacher's role in the classroom is central for several reasons. First, teachers, in most cases, possess the information that the students need. It should be also noted that apart from having the information teachers also know how to access information and how to make it available for students. This is what makes students come to the class in the first place. Next, teachers can make new input comprehensible, so that it can become intake at the first encounter. They can also "help to activate and harness learner's attention, effort, intelligence and conscious learning strategies in order to enhance learning."³² Although these are the most obvious, other functions should also be considered. "(T)he teacher is 'central' with the regard to the cognitive content, the structuring of time, the articulation of goals, the setting of climate, and the final human validation of the whole undertaking."³³ Furthermore, students come to the class and expect the teacher to be central and powerful. What the teacher does, and how she does it, should not contradict students' expectations. Therefore the teacher's role should be to "provide input and to make available further sources of relevant information, to encourage students to articulate what they know, and put forward new ideas of their own, and, above all, to get students to acquire the habit of processing input from either source through using their own experiences, so that they eventually feel personal ownership of the resulting knowledge."³⁴ Thus, the teacher's centrality is indispensable, although I agree that it may be subordinated to the centrality of students.

³¹ *ibid.*

³² Penny Ur, *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), 11

³³ Stevick, 35

³⁴ Ur, 8

One could question the assumption that the teacher is the most powerful figure in the classroom, based on the humanistic techniques that place the emphasis on students' initiative. Another question is whether it is possible to have both, students' initiative and teacher's control. At first it seems impossible, because an increase in students' initiative seems to require some reduction of control that the teacher exercises and vice versa. However, Stevick made me stop and think, and I realized that it is possible if we alter the way we understand control and initiative.

The teacher's control is important because it gives students a sense of structure and direction and thus leads to security. Another aspect in which a teacher exercises control is through correction of students' mistakes. Furthermore, in my experience, students are most influenced by the information coming from an authoritative source. These are clearly all teacher functions. But it is also possible to share control with the students. They too, can provide structure and correct mistakes, among other things. Students, however, need to be prepared to take over the control of their learning.

Initiative, as Stevick understands it, refers to decisions about "choices among a narrow or very broad range of possibilities offered by whoever is exercising control."³⁵ These decisions could include choices about who says what, to whom, how and when. If understood in this way, the teacher's control does not interfere with the initiative on the part of the student. On the contrary, more control in the form of, for example clear structuring, can increase student initiative, as students are allowed to work and develop within this structure. At the same time, by assigning students tasks that give them a sense

³⁵ *ibid.*, 33

of taking control over what they are doing, teachers can make them feel more responsible for their own learning.

Another significant concern for teachers should be their attitude toward mistakes that students make during the learning process. In the classroom, as well as in real-life, mistakes are always with us, they are a necessary and inevitable part of any learning. Why is it then that mistakes are not allowed in Croatian classrooms? Learners are allowed to make mistakes. It's the achievers³⁶ who are not allowed to make them. Our students are achievers, and this is the reason why mistakes are not permitted in our classrooms. Children, who are true learners, are not afraid of taking risks and making guesses. They have faith in themselves. It's the achievers who have doubts, who are afraid of taking risks and making mistakes because mistakes trigger criticism. Both students and teachers should stop thinking of students as achievers, and start thinking of them as true learners who learn from their own mistakes. The teachers who understand learning as an ongoing process agree that there is a place for mistakes in learning and regard them as student's best response at a given moment. Mistakes are valuable for the teacher, because they guide her showing where students have problems, and where more work is needed.

Desire to learn a skill is a response to a demand to do something one couldn't do before. Mastery of a skill is achieved through reducing the number of mistakes. Experts make fewer mistakes. It is important to notice that in order to correct mistakes, students need to understand them first. They have to be fully aware of both, their strengths and weaknesses in order to develop. Without awareness there is no learning. Consequently,

³⁶ By achievers I mean students who are expected (by their parents, teachers and themselves) to work hard and be the best all the time.

full awareness of mistakes insures that students can correct them. Full awareness is also important because students are often "sort of aware of" what they are doing wrong, and they "sort of" try for a while to correct it. Usually, however, they are disappointed when they try to make corrections based on confused awareness and they tend to go back to the old habits. Teachers who pinpoint specific mistakes are one of the best sources in the growth of awareness. Awareness does not happen all at once, it develops, and it takes time. Other students can help in raising the awareness, either as examples or reminders of progress. Videotapes of students' performance can be an excellent aid to the development of awareness.

In conclusion, if a student corrects a mistake himself, he is more likely to remember it. Thus, mistakes should be welcomed as a sign of students' progress, and students should be put in situations in which they would become fully aware of their mistakes in order to facilitate correction, and they should be encouraged to correct the mistakes themselves in order to insure better retention.

There is another reason why self-correction should be practiced. It leads to discovery, and discovery brings excitement to learning. The teacher has no right to deprive students of it. Besides, the ability to correct one's mistakes is crucial, because it contributes to the learner's potential to become not only autonomous and responsible, but independent, too. This means, the learner becomes freer, more himself, and better able to live.

Another important thing is that when evaluating students' learning, teachers should look for progress, not perfection. They should not concentrate on the results, but on what is happening and how. Learning takes place in time and each student learns at a

different pace. What for one student is achievement without effort may be a huge endeavor for another.

Next, I would like to suggest regular use of feedback. Students should be free to talk about their reactions to the course, about what works for them and what doesn't, what they enjoy and what bores them. Good teachers can gain valuable information from that, and students can learn to accept responsibility for their own learning. Feedback can be written or oral, formal or informal. It should be noted that giving and receiving feedback is also a skill that needs time to develop. If neither the teacher nor the students have used feedback, it will take time for both to get used to it.

Teachers should also remember that praise is "two-edged and very sharp, with more potential for damage than many teachers realize."³⁷ The beneficial elements of praise are the information it carries and the feeling of pleasure it gives. The negative elements are the expectations that such performance ought to continue. I have often witnessed that the performance of students drops off after the praise. Recently, I praised one my students on how well she had written her journal on negotiating. As it is difficult to convey the positive without the negative, the other students understood the message as being that they were less clever and capable. They even ironically commented in the class: "Yes, Bozana (the name of the student) is one and only, and we cannot possibly outperform her." I immediately regretted my behavior and decided not to use praise so foolishly again. I am not suggesting here that teachers should avoid praise completely. What I am saying is that it should be used more cautiously than many teachers are used to.

³⁷ *ibid.*, 38-39

Harmony between Students

"The class is one arena in which a number of private universes intersect one another. Each person is at the center of his or her own universe of perceptions and values, and each is affected by what the others do."³⁸ In order to learn, students need support from other members of the group, but in many contexts, including mine, they first need to learn to listen to each other and to rely on each other for assurance, help, and resources. In order to accomplish this, teachers need to motivate students to work in pairs and small groups. In groups, students can begin to feel the sense of community and can learn from each other as well as from the teacher. Community of learners and cooperation should be encouraged at all times. Developing a community among students builds trust and helps reduce the threat of the new situation.

Learning should be fun. It should take place in a cheerful and comfortable environment in which learning comes natural and easy.³⁹ Students should be relaxed and comfortable. I have found it very useful to make use of various visual aids, as well as colorful posters on classroom walls containing information about certain aspects of the course. The posters, in particular, help my students learn from what is present in their environment, even if their attention is not explicitly directed to them.

The teacher should give off "good vibes". They can take the form of facial expressions, body postures, tone of voice, and "inferences which the student may draw

³⁸ *ibid*, 21

³⁹ On the contrary, my students, being exposed mostly to traditional teaching, expect learning to be hard, tasks difficult, and if the learning comes naturally and easy they do not consider it serious or important.

for himself from what the teacher says and how she says it."⁴⁰ They are especially credible and effective because the student does not perceive them as being consciously directed towards him. "These are indications of confidence in oneself and in the student, of acceptance of the student, and the pleasure in the encounter."⁴¹ Good teaching comes from the heart. Students notice and appreciate that. A relationship based on deceit can never yield understanding, security, trust, and mutual respect. All of this will help students build relationship with and among the individuals in the classroom.

Harmony inside the Student

The above-mentioned obstacles to effective learning and teaching originate outside the student. There is, though often a critical obstacle inside the student, which has concerned many researchers. Stevick borrows the terms from Gallwey⁴² and calls it the divide between the Critical and the Performing Self and describes it this way:

The first of these selves is the Critical Self. This self tends to be calculating and verbal, and to impose its expectations on the second, the Performing Self. When the Performing Self fails to perform as the Critical self thinks it ought, the Critical Self typically puts further pressure on it, or punishes it in some way...The trouble is that this kind of interaction between the selves usually produces additional anxiety, greater tension, and poorer performance.⁴³

Galloway also claims that "the relationship that exists between Self 1 and Self 2 is the prime factor in determining one's ability to translate his knowledge of technique into

⁴⁰ ibid

⁴¹ ibid,41

⁴² Timothy W. Gallwey, *The Inner Game of Tennis* (: Random House, Inc, 1974), 25-44

⁴³ Stevick, *Teaching Languages*, 11

effective action."⁴⁴ Student spends his precious time and indispensable energy on struggling inside himself, instead of directing the energy towards achieving the goals. Consequently, the key to a better learning and better performance "lies in improving the relationship between the conscious teller, Self 1, and the unconscious, automatic doer, Self 2."⁴⁵

In this relationship the Critical Self notices what the Performing Self does, and how what the Performing Self has done compares with the goal; yet it notices without praising or blaming the Performing Self, or labeling what it has done as "good" or "bad". The Conscious Self also sets goals for the Performing Self, and exposes the Performing Self to good models of the skill that it has chosen to acquire. At the same time it does not impose obligations on the Performing Self, or interfere with the Performing Self *while* it is performing by telling it *how* to perform.⁴⁶

One can improve a skill only if he sees what he is doing without assigning a negative or positive value to his performance. This can be done only if personal judgment is absent. It is not easy, because we are naturally inclined to judge ourselves, and our performance as good or bad.⁴⁷ If a teacher wishes to create such a learning environment, she should suggest that students stop judging, worrying, fearing, and trying because in order to learn, a student needs to be relaxed. A student cannot loosen up if he is constantly being evaluated by his Critical Self. He has to keep his Critical Self busy with something in order to act unimpaired. Concentrating on what is happening (and not on how it's happening) can help students to be in the moment and focus on what they are doing. Still, it's easier said than done. In order to rebuild the balance between the two selves the teacher should "let go of judgments" in order to see "the events as they are and

⁴⁴ Galloway, 25

⁴⁵ *ibid*

⁴⁶ Stevick, *Teaching Languages*, 29

⁴⁷ This does not, however, mean ignoring the errors.

not adding anything to them." Teachers can take the role of the student's Critical Self and model the behavior first, showing how the student's own Conscious Self should act. The way the teacher relates to student's mistakes affects the way the student sees his mistakes. If mistakes are accepted as a natural part of learning, there is going to be less room for the Critical Self to act. Changing behavior is not easy, neither for the teacher, nor for the student, it is a gradual process and takes time.

An example of this would be if the teacher says to the student after he has finished the simulation "I have noticed that you have used a hard bargaining style during the last simulation. Can you tell us what happened?" Here, the teacher is nonjudgmentally commenting what has happened. It is important to notice that the comment is made after the Performing Self has stopped performing, and that the teacher is deliberately not giving statements about how well or how badly the student is doing. With this observation, the teacher is encouraging the student to pay attention to what was going on during the practice, and thus increases the student's awareness. Awareness begets learning. It is, unfortunately, too often forgotten in teaching skills, although awareness is often all it takes to learn. This attitude can help the student not to see his performance as a failure, but as an effort. My experience is that such nonjudgmental comments build trust in students, and they feel more confident and relaxed. As a result, instead of trying hard, they set themselves attainable goals and improve their skill. It is important to emphasize that both the students and the teacher should pay more attention to the process than to the immediate results of the performance. Making an effort thus replaces trying hard.

In conclusion, for any method to be effective there needs to be harmony between the two selves of each student, harmony among the people in the classroom, as well as

harmony between the people and the subject matter that is being taught. Additionally, in order to ensure that the whole learner is engaged in the learning process, i.e. when both his mind, emotions and his personality are working together, activities and materials need to fit student's interests and needs; provide something for the emotions as well as for the intellect; provide situations as well as material for students to interact with each other and with the teacher; encourage students to be creative, make choices, and take risks that will involve as much of his personality as possible, encourage to explore and enjoy his own powers, and help students feel comfortable and relaxed. When average teachers make lesson plan, they are concerned about the knowledge and skills students need to learn during the class. Good teachers, on the other hand, use the KASA framework,⁴⁸ taking care to include not only the goals that address knowledge and skills, but also goals that address students' awareness and attitude. This is not an easy task, and the following chapters show how it can be achieved.

⁴⁸ KASA is an acronym for knowledge, awareness, skills and attitude, and was developed by the faculty in the Department of Language Teacher Education at the School for International Training. Knowledge goals address what students will know and understand. Awareness goals address what students need to be aware of when learning a skill. These include areas of self-knowledge, such as becoming aware of the strategies they use as learners, understanding of how for example negotiations work, and understanding of how others use the skill. Skills goals are the broadest area and address what students should be able to do, whereas attitude goals address the affective and values-based dimension of learning, such as students feelings toward themselves, toward others, and toward the subject matter.

Reflective Model

In the last chapter I have discussed general characteristics of the learning process, as well as different views about good teaching and successful learning. In this chapter, I would like to concentrate particularly on Reflective and Experiential Learning Models and their significance for teaching courses in negotiation.

Professional knowledge can be acquired in at least three ways. Wallace⁴⁹ distinguishes between the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. In the craft model students learn from the example of a master, whom they observe and imitate. The craft model gives due value to the experiential aspect of professional development, but is essentially static and imitative because students learn by imitating the expert's techniques and by following the expert's instructions and advice. It is essentially conservative as it implies no or very little change over a long period of time. Therefore, it would be inadequate for teaching in a time of rapid change such as ours. Furthermore, it would not be reasonable for learning complex concepts, as for example negotiation, because it does not handle the element of scientific knowledge. The applied science model, which is often used, explicitly or implicitly, in traditional courses offered at Croatian Universities, has taken the scientific concepts into account, but has led to a split between theory and practice. An extreme applied science model would be to teach the subject in its own right and then expect students to apply somehow the findings of

⁴⁹ Michael J. Wallace, *Training Foreign Language Teachers: A Reflective Approach* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991)

these areas of knowledge to their situations. It is also inadequate because it is not possible to deliver a scientific solution to very complex professional dilemmas this way. Wallace proposes a model⁵⁰ as a compromise solution which gives due weight both to experience and to the scientific basis of the profession, and in this way overcomes the main drawback of the applied science model, namely the separation of theory and practice. He calls it the reflective model. Wallace's model is based on Schon's theory,⁵¹ which claims that professional knowledge is actually made up of two kinds of knowledge, namely received knowledge and experiential knowledge. The first one consists of facts, data and theories, often related to some kind of research. For example, negotiators have to be familiar with the dynamics of interpersonal conflict, structure of negotiation, the basics of positional and principled negotiating, use of power in the negotiation process etc. Wallace calls this kind of knowledge the received knowledge because (a) the student has received it rather than experienced it in a professional action, and (b) it is similar to "received wisdom," meaning what is commonly accepted without proof or question.

Received knowledge should be contrasted with another kind of knowledge, which Wallace calls experiential knowledge and which is developed by practice. He defines it as consisting of two phenomena described by Schon knowing-in-action and reflection.

Schon describes knowing-in-action this way⁵²

Every competent practitioner can recognize phenomena... for which he cannot give a reasonably accurate or complete description. ... Even when he makes conscious use of research-based theories and techniques, he is dependent on tacit recognitions. Judgments are skillful performances.

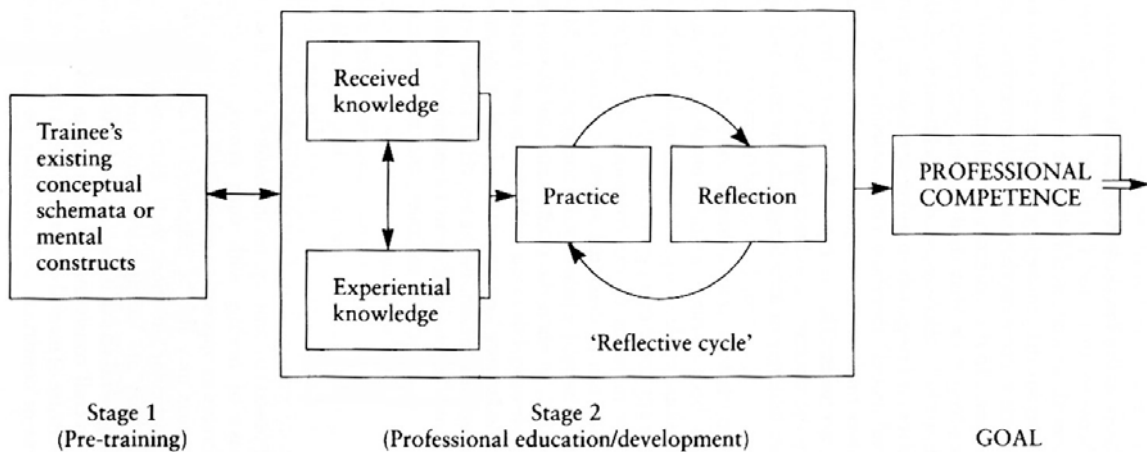
⁵⁰ Wallace proposes this model for teacher professional development, but, if adapted, it can be well applied to teaching negotiations as well.

⁵¹ Donald A. Schon, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* (London: Temple Smith, 1983)

⁵² *ibid.*, 49-50

In other words, experiential knowledge relates to the professional's ongoing experience and a negotiator is using his knowing-in-action when he says that a certain procedure during a negotiation was not working well so he switched to something else.

Apart from using his knowing-in-action, a skilled negotiator is very likely to spend time reviewing the negotiation and reflecting on his feelings and actions, which leads him to conscious development of insights into knowing-in-action.⁵³



Source: Wallace (1991)

Figure 1. Reflective practice model of professional education

As seen from Figure 1, the first stage of professional education is pre-training. As action may precede intellectual discovery, it is vital to take into account and highlight what students bring to the educational process in terms of their previous knowledge and

⁵³ In his research Neil Rackham found out that "over two-thirds of the skilled negotiators claimed that they always set aside some time after a negotiation to review it and consider what they had learned. Just under a half of average negotiator made that claim." in Roy J. Lewicki, David M. Saunders, and John W. Minton, eds., *Negotiation: Readings, Exercises, and Cases*, 3d ed.. The Behavior of Successful Negotiators by Neil Rackham (McGraw-Hill, 1999), 352-353

experience.⁵⁴ This "point of departure" differentiates this model from the more traditional models.

In stage 2, the two elements, received and experiential knowledge, are in a close and reciprocal relationship. Each element both influences and is influenced by the other one. The two alone would not be sufficient without the element of practice in which students incorporate the new techniques and reevaluate them in light of that practice.

To use a concrete example, a teacher may decide to introduce the concept of creating value in negotiation. During the lesson, the students relate this to what they already know about negotiation techniques and may decide it is worth trying. After the class, they try it in a real-life situation and if they are pleased with the result, they may incorporate this into their repertoire of negotiation techniques. The important thing to notice is the reflective element, as well as the fact that "reflective practice" occurs outside the classroom.

This seems to be a sensible way to develop professional competence. In my experience, students yearn for courses which make sense and which give them something they can use right away. Furthermore, when I asked my students where they think they gained their present negotiation skills, the majority replied that personal experience, apart from other sources, was by far the most important. This does not mean that other sources of knowledge do not contribute, but it does mean they are probably less important. Thus, I have decided to base my negotiation course on the reflective model.

⁵⁴ There have been a number of instances when my students have thanked me after a class session for providing intellectual justification for what they have already been doing in their professional environment.

Experiential Learning Model

There are many signs that achieving and implementing an expertise is a challenging endeavor. It is not difficult to find examples⁵⁵ where companies invest large amounts of money in training, education and advice, but only a little change in their practices is evident. This 'knowing-doing gap' is obviously the reason to examine the ways business skills are being taught.

As stated earlier in this paper, students often come to the classroom with preconceived ideas about the topics they are studying. These already developed naïve theories about negotiation are "causal systems in which concepts are embedded."⁵⁶ Hence, learning can, at least in part, be understood as a process of "theory change". If learning requires theory change, then teachers need to expose student's existing theories and provide alternative systems in which the new concepts can be embedded. This constitutes a substantial challenge. Howard Gardner referred to revising naïve theories as "razing the barn of the uneducated mind," highlighting the importance of dispelling naïve theories before progress can occur. Translated to teaching negotiation skills, this means that students need to dispel their naïve theories about negotiation, such as the well-known notion of the "fixed pie,"⁵⁷ before they can become more effective negotiators. The

⁵⁵ J. Pfeifer and R.I. Sutton, *The Knowing-doing Gap* (Boston: Harvard Business Press, 2000)

⁵⁶ S. Carey, *Conceptual Change in Childhood* (Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1985)

⁵⁷ This is the belief that there is the unitary, fixed amount of value on the negotiation table, and the purpose of negotiation is to arrive at how that value will be distributed among the parties. A direct implication of this model is that students assume that gains for one party in a negotiation come at the direct expense of the other party.

discussion about how naïve theories can be supplemented with new, more accurate ones, continues later in the paper.

Furthermore, the assumption that students who were able to solve a problem in a classroom situation would be able to solve another, similar problem in a different context, too often seems to be taken for granted by many educators. But, research by Ross⁵⁸ has shown that differences between the contexts of learning and use decrease the likelihood of transfer. I, myself, am concerned about that because I often hear my students say "I knew that, I just didn't think to use it." So, instead of implicitly assuming that students are able to transfer the knowledge to a future environment and solve real-life problems, I raise doubts that they often do not recognize similarities between problems because they focus on surface aspects and are in general poor in noticing structural similarities. Empirical evidence, too, raises questions about students' ability to learn by example and to retrieve relevant knowledge when solving a problem in a new context (see Reeves and Weisberg 1994 for a review).⁵⁹ In their report on transfer as "the ability to apply a concept, schema, or strategy learned in one situation to solve a problem in a different, but relevant situation," Gillespie et al. suggest that negotiators' ability to access and use negotiation skills heavily depends upon how they are trained.⁶⁰ They report the following findings:

1. Transfer is highly limited;

⁵⁸ B.H. Ross, "This is Like That: The Use of Earlier Problems and the Separation of Similarity Effects," *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition* 13 (1987): 629-639

⁵⁹ L.M. Reeves and R.W. Weisberg, "The Role of Content and Abstract Information in Analogical Transfer," *Psychological Bulletin* 115 (1994): 381-400

⁶⁰ James J. Gillespie et al., "Lessons from Analogical Reasoning in the Teaching of Negotiation," *Negotiation Journal* 15 (1999): 363-371

2. Making an analogical comparison among multiple, structurally-similar examples facilitates transfer; and

3. Recognizing when to make transfer is not obvious.

According to the authors, the reason for a limited transfer is the fact that students do not recognize similarities between situations.

The implication for teaching negotiation is that instead of providing students with isolated examples and cases, teachers should take students through a series of experiences, encouraging them to compare each experience with others, focusing on shared aspects between them in order to "abstract a common relating structure that is uncluttered with irrelevant surface information."⁶¹ In so doing, they will be able to apply the principles later when negotiating. Reading more than one case is not sufficient; it is comparing the cases that will prompt transfer.

Furthermore, novices and experts use a different set of concepts to understand a given situation. A novice might remember a negotiation about an opera singer and her salary, whereas an expert might remember a negotiation that provided a perfect opportunity for value creation. "Interpreting negotiation situations in the light of their underlying structure as opposed to their contexts allows one to create categories of experiences grouped by negotiation principles."⁶² The implication for teaching is that it is more useful to remind students of a negotiation with a matching structure than one in which the same context is at stake. Similarly to what has already been said, Loewenstein and Thompson also argue that "a way to acquire portable problem-solving schemas is

⁶¹ *ibid.*, 366

⁶² Loewenstein and Thompson, 406

through analogical thinking."Learning by analogy means learning by comparing multiple examples which embody the same principle.

In my rather limited experience, using analogy with observation has proven an effective method. Although it appears more time-consuming, research by Gillespie et al. states that it "offers the prospect of shortening the length of time needed to achieve expert levels of performance."⁶³

If we agree that negotiation is a learnable and teachable skill and that the change and improvement in negotiation behavior require a "combination of intellectual training and behavioral skill development,"⁶⁴ as well as that both "received" and "experiential" knowledge, combined with practice, reflection and analogy ensure professional competence, the best way to teach negotiation would be to employ the model of experiential learning.

Learning is often understood as a process whereby concepts, principles and ideas are internalized into the learner's cognitive processes thus leading to changed patterns and actions.⁶⁵ Learning by doing implies that there is the experience that causes thought patterns and theory-practice connections to change. In this chapter, which presents four theories about these processes, I shall identify and highlight the elements of each of the theories that I believe are particularly significant for teaching negotiation, and, thus, offer a perspective of learning that combines experiences, perception, cognition, and behavior.

All four views of learning emerged as a reaction to traditional educational strategy and ask the learner (and the teacher) to embrace a new way of understanding. They

⁶³ *ibid.*, 368

⁶⁴ Roy J. Lewicki, "Challenges of Teaching Negotiation," *Negotiation Journal* (January 1986): 16

⁶⁵ David A. Kolb, *Experiential Learning; Experience as a Source of Learning and Development* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1984)

emphasize the central role that experience plays in the learning process. This differentiates experiential learning theory "from rationalist and other cognitive theories of learning that tend to give primary emphasis to acquisition, manipulation, and recall of abstract symbols, and from behavioral learning theories that deny any role for consciousness and subjective experience in the learning process."⁶⁶ All four theories assume a process of confronting our existing ideas about how and when certain things happen, breaking them down and offering a new model or set of postulates to replace the old ones. The first, from Dewey (1938), stresses the interaction between the learner and his social environment. The second, from Lewin (1951), emphasizes the cyclical process of such experience. The third, by Argyris and Schön (1994) expands on the idea of "looped" learning process. The fourth, drawn from cognitive psychology sees the learner "creating the knowledge by resolving cognitive conflicts" (Piage,1968) which arise from challenging experience. Taken together they provide the justification for the use of the experiential learning model in teaching negotiation.

Dewey's Model

Traditional education⁶⁷ views information and skills as given through history. The educational objective is to ensure that learners memorize (and perhaps internalize) the historical knowledge. Students are viewed as passive spectators with empty minds

⁶⁶ *ibid.*, 20

⁶⁷ Today, still, the education provided, especially at the tertiary level, in Croatia is in general traditional. In Friere's terms, education has become an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor of knowledge. Instead of communicating, all the students do is receive the facts, memorize, and repeat.

waiting to be filled. The teacher's role is simply to supply the learner with deposits of information.

In an opposing view, Dewey describes learning as "intellectually directed development of the possibilities inherent in ordinary experience."⁶⁸ Learning through experience is seen as the "progressive" alternative to traditional education. Dewey's alternative is rooted in the belief that education should come through experience grounded in and relevant to one's social conditions. He talks about "an experiential continuum" in which each subsequent experience should be influenced by prior experiences, whereby every experience "modifies the one who undergoes it and this modification affects the quality of subsequent experience."⁶⁹ When one experience opens the learner to other new experiences, learning occurs. Human contact and interpersonal communication are part of every meaningful learning experience.

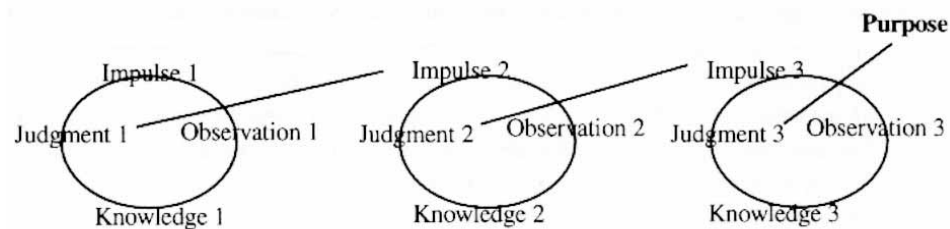


Figure 2. Dewey's Model of Experiential Learning

Source: Kolb (1984)

Another feature of Dewey's theory is the environment (both physical and social) in which experiences occur and through which they are filtered. He calls it the "objective

⁶⁸ John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: Herder and Herder, 1938), 69

⁶⁹ *ibid.*, 36

conditions" which often challenge individual understanding. The sorting of individual (internal) and external (objective) conditions contribute significantly to learning.

The third aspect of Dewey's theory includes "collateral learning". This is the process whereby the student learns a skill relevant to a particular experience and, at the same time, forms attitudes (likes and dislikes) which he carries forward to apply to subsequent situations. Furthermore, he stresses that experiential learning is not about acquiring skills relevant to a single experience but also about understanding the relationship among many seemingly different experiences. This view is strongly opposed to the traditional education where a single skill is taught in controlled conditions where there is little or no room for creative ideas.

The focus of Dewey's learning model is the transformation of an impulse of experience into purposeful action. It is built on a continuum of experience in a social setting where collateral learning helps the student to make judgments. Postponement of action after the observation stage is crucial because a continuum of impulses, observations, and judgments should precede purposeful action and action is essential for achievement of purpose. Dewey describes the process of transformation of blind impulses, feelings, and desires of concrete experience into higher-order purposeful action this way:

The formation of purpose is, then, a rather complex intellectual operation. It involves: (1) observation of surrounding conditions; (2) knowledge of what has happened in similar situations in the past, a knowledge obtained partly by recollection and partly from the information, advice, and warning of those who have had a wider experience; and (3) judgment, which puts together what is observed and what is recalled to see what they signify. A purpose differs from an original impulse and desire through its translation into a plan and method of action based on foresight of the consequences of action under given observed conditions in a certain way... The crucial educational problem is that of procuring

the postponement of immediate action upon desire until observation and judgment have intervened⁷⁰.

Lewin's Model

Lewin's model of the learning process is remarkably similar to Dewey's, although he only implies the developmental nature of learning, which is made more explicit by Dewey. Lewin's cyclical four-stage model is graphically presented in Figure 3. It is similar to Dewey's that it emphasizes learning as a dialectic process integrating experience and concepts, observations, and action.

Lewin observed that the participants in training (T-groups) learned best when they were involved in reflecting and discussing their experience either with other participants or psychologists. The initial emphasis is on the present ("here-and-now") experience (Concrete experience) followed by a collection of data and observations about that experience (Observations and reflections). The data are then analyzed (Formation of abstract concepts and generalizations), and the conclusions of this analysis are fed back to the actors in the experience for their use in behavior modification and choice of new experiences (Testing implications of concepts in new situations). Immediate concrete experience is the basis for observation and reflection. These observations are assimilated into a "theory" from which new implications for action can be deduced. These implications or hypotheses then serve as guides in acting to create new experiences.

⁷⁰ *ibid.*, 69

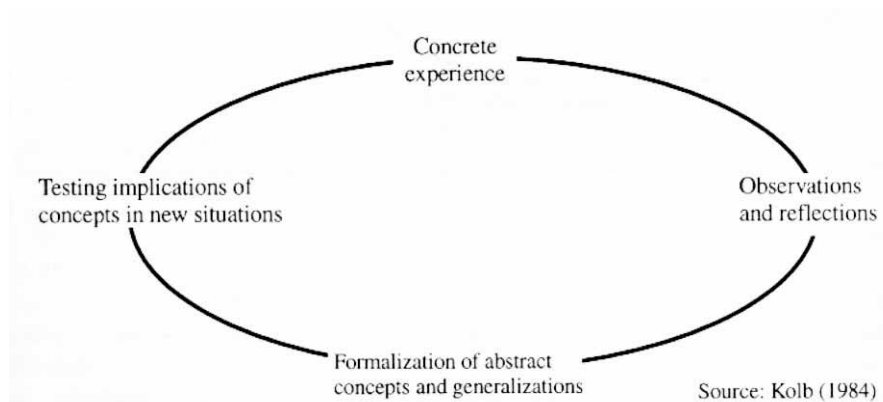


Figure 3. Lewinian Experiential Learning Model

By focusing on the immediate, personal experience, this theory attempts to provide "personal meaning to abstract concepts and at the same time provide a concrete, publicly shared reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process."⁷¹

Lewin viewed experiential learning as social learning and problem solving with the information feedback that provides the basis for a continual process of "goal-directed action and evaluation of the consequences of this action."⁷² Individual and organizational ineffectiveness are mainly due to the lack of adequate feedback processes. On the other hand, learning is optimized when there is a balance between observation of experience and action toward a goal.

My only reservation is that this model can tend to over-emphasize experience and thus neglect the external input, such as readings, lectures, etc. My suggestion is that, a fully effective model should incorporate external, as well as personal input. Personal experience could be supplemented by second-hand observations, or anecdotes reported by others, or video tapes of other negotiators; theoretical concepts could come from other

⁷¹Kolb, 21

⁷² ibid.

researchers and scholars; and ideas for, or descriptions of experimentations from other professionals could be used as sources. In other words, sources of knowledge do not need to be only personal experience, but also input from outside. In either case, however, the knowledge should be integrated into the student's own reflective cycle so that effective learning may take place.

Double Loop Learning

Argyris and Schon suggest that learning occurs "when a match between intentions and consequences is produced for the first time."⁷³ They found that in the learning process, individuals often design and implement "theory-in-use" (actual behavior) that is significantly different from their espoused theory (what they say they do). Argyris and Schon suggest that "single loop" learning involves changing behavior only to address the challenging situation at hand. This learning is merely "satisfies", and does not change the underlying defensive routines that lead to the mismatch, implying that individuals are doomed to repeat the process, never learning enough to understand the mismatch. They are saying that "theory-in-use" (experience) alone is not enough. In order for a more meaningful learning to occur, Argyris and Schon offer a "double loop" learning process where the governing variables - the values and assumptions behind our understanding - are considered and questioned.

⁷³ Argyris and Schon (1996), quoted in Lawrence E. Susskind and Jason Corburn, "Using Simulations to Teach Negotiation: Pedagogical Theory and Practice" in Michael Wheeler, ed., *Teaching Negotiation: Ideas and Innovations* (Cambridge: PON Books, 2000), 295

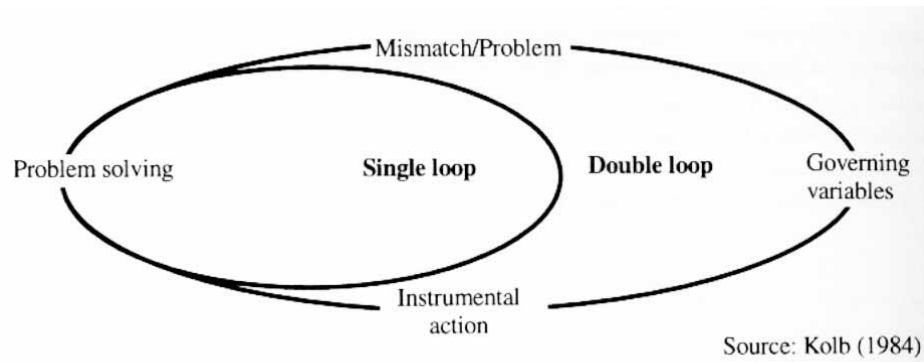


Figure 4. Double Loop Learning

Meaningful learning occurs in the "double loop" process because, in Argyris and Schon's terms, we do not merely solve problems but attempt to understand and challenge our governing variables behind our "theories-in-use".

Piaget's Model of Learning

For Piaget, the dimensions of experience and concept, reflection, and action form the basis continua for the development of adult thought. As a child progresses from a concrete phenomenal view of the world to an abstract constructionist view, from an active egocentric view to a relative internalized mode of knowing, so does the scientific knowledge, too.⁷⁴ In Piaget's terms, the key to learning lies in the interaction of two processes: 1) assimilation in which new information is integrated into existing structures; and 2) accommodation in which a learner's cognitive structure is altered to integrate new knowledge. Learning or "intelligent adaptation" results from a balanced tension between these processes. Assimilation occurs when a new experience is consistent with one's existing cognitive structures and the knowledge from the experience is easily integrated.

⁷⁴ Jean Piaget, *Structuralism* (New York: Harper, 1968)

Accommodation, on the other hand, challenges our established perceptions. In this process, our perception and understanding of the experience do not fit neatly within our existing cognitive structures. We find ourselves in a situation of "cognitive conflict, in which our established perceptions are challenged and we seek new ways to understand our experience." In Piaget's terms, the process of cognitive growth from concrete to abstract and from active to reflective is based on the continual transaction between assimilation and accommodation, occurring in successive stages, each of which incorporates what has gone before into an new, higher level of cognitive functioning. As a result, learning emerges through the reorganization of our cognitive structure.

The theories presented above show the potential of experiential learning and its appropriateness for teaching negotiations.

Implications for Teaching Negotiation

1. Flexibility of experiential cycle

The key lesson form experiential learning that can be applied to teaching negotiations is that learning consists of ideas and concepts being formed, challenged and re-framed in multiple, often linked, experiences. In order to learn, a person must pass though all four stages of the experiential cycle: Concrete experience (CE), Observation and reflections (RO), Formulation of abstract concepts and generalizations (AC) and Testing of implications of concepts in new situations (AE). In the case of teaching negotiation, the teacher may choose to start the lesson at the Abstract conceptualization

stage by giving students selected texts to read before the class developing a framework to explain future observations. She could proceed with a short lecture reviewing the research literature, followed by a simulation in which students use theory to solve problems and make decisions, as well as test the concepts in a new situation (Abstract experimentation). Students might be given a task to engage in real-life negotiation outside the class (Concrete experience) and asked to write a journal reflecting on the experience (Reflection and observation). The teacher may ask individual students to share their journals in the class and the new experiential cycle begins.

One could argue that this way of learning may suit some students better than the others. It should be noted that, while the role of experience is central, as demonstrated above, it is not always necessary for experience to precede learning. Students have a preferred point of entry into the cycle and they spend different amounts of time on each step because their learning needs and life expectations differ. Not all students are ready to start with experience. In general, more quiet students are reluctant to participate from the very start. They prefer to observe, have a demonstration, and reflect before they act. Some prefer theory sessions; they like to read and talk with people. They learn most from abstract conceptualization (AC).⁷⁵ Some students seem to take every chance to structure situations in which they can experiment and try new activities. They probably favor the active experimentation step (AE) in the learning process. This preferred learning pattern is very likely to manifest itself whenever they enter a new situation or seek to learn a new task or behavior. The consequences for teaching are that the teachers need to vary the structure of the lessons, because they are aware of different students' responses, and while

⁷⁵ Croatian academic setting is particularly in favor of these students. Other types who learn better at other stages of the experiential cycle are often limited by the system.

they take all students through all four stages of the cycle, they need to understand individual student's preferences toward different learning patterns.

This model is useful in a number of ways. First, it successfully incorporates received and experiential knowledge, practice and reflection and thus leads to a dynamic, developmental concept of professional competence. Next, it is exceptionally good for learning and teaching skills in particular, as it allows teachers and students to break down the skill development process into its component parts. In this way it reinforces each of the elements and ensures deeper understanding.⁷⁶ Additionally, experience supplements the perspectives gained through reading. Neither experience, nor analysis alone guarantees long-term learning outcomes. Only if they complement each other are the outcomes certain. According to my recent experience, moving from the general (frameworks) to the specific (experience) and back to the general (analysis and understanding) has proven successful. While the students are taken from particular or experiential to general or analytical they are encouraged to consider both the similarities and differences between the everyday negotiations they are involved in, and the complex cases they read or hear about.⁷⁷ This helps them bridge the gap between experience and analysis, theory and practice which some professors who teach negotiation face.⁷⁸ Because of everything said above, this method gives students the active role in the learning process.

⁷⁶ Observation based on students' feedback at the end of the course in January 2002.

⁷⁷ Compare Schon: "We often see an unfamiliar situation as both similar to and different from the familiar one, without at first being able to say similar or different with respect to what." quoted in Susskind and Corburn, 292.

⁷⁸ See Druckman

Another very important benefit of the approach is that it is very flexible and allows entry at any point in the cycle. For this reason it applies to many different situations, from rather simple to very complex.

2. Learning as a process of creating knowledge

Traditional approach to learning and education defines learning in terms of its outcomes, whether these be knowledge in an accumulated storehouse of facts, or habits representing responses to specific conditions. If ideas are seen as being fixed, then it seems possible to measure how much someone has learned by the amount of these fixed ideas the person has accumulated.

Experiential learning aims at changing behavior and attitudes, not the accumulation of factual knowledge.⁷⁹ Besides, it does not see ideas as fixed and immutable elements of thought, but as formed and re-formed through experience, or in Friere's words:

"Knowledge emerges only through invention and reinvention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other."⁸⁰

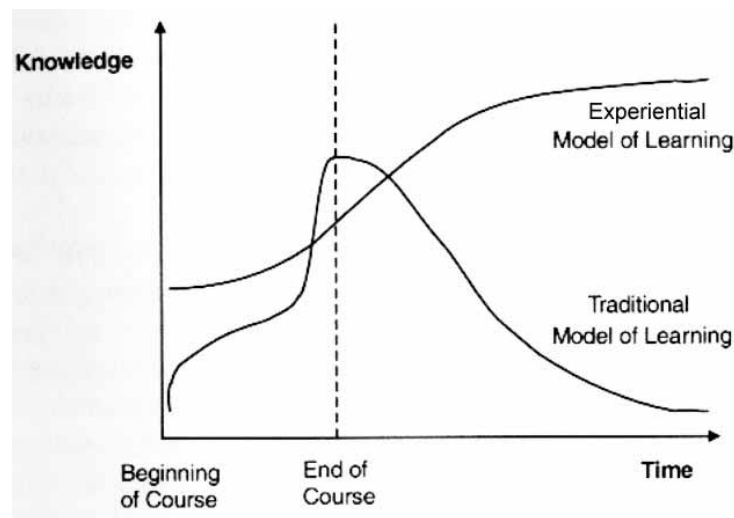
Typically, an immediate reaction to a limited situation or problem is not thought of as learning but as performance. Similarly at the other extreme, we do not commonly talk of long-term adaptations to one's total life situation as learning but as development. "Yet performance, learning, and development, when viewed from a continuum of adoptive postures to the environment, varying only in the degree of extension in time and space. Performance is limited to short-term adaptations to immediate circumstances,

⁷⁹ Although knowledge may be a powerful agent of change.

⁸⁰ Friere, 1974, quoted in Kolb, 27

learning encompasses somewhat longer-term mastery of genetic classes of situations, and development encompasses lifelong adaptations to one's total life situation."⁸¹

In order to ensure that the changes are long lasting, good teaching should help students continue to learn from future experiences. Thus, the learning curve should steadily rise after the course, instead of slowly falling down toward its starting point, as it is so often the case in traditional education. "Good training should be more like a launch than a climax."⁸²



Adapted from Patton (1985)

Figure 5. Traditional and Experiential Learning Curves

The fact that learning is a continuous process grounded in experience has important educational implications. It implies that all learning is in essence "relearning." Everyone enters a learning situation with some knowledge and experience about the topic. The teacher's job should be not only to present and implement new ideas but also to

⁸¹ Kolb, 34

⁸² Patton, 17

be aware of, dispose of, or modify the old ones. In many cases, resistance to new ideas materializes when old beliefs are inconsistent with them. "If the educational process starts by bringing out the learners' beliefs and theories, examining and testing them, and then integrating the new, more refined ideas into the person's belief systems, the learning process will be facilitated."⁸³ In Piaget's terms, there are two mechanisms by which new ideas can be adopted by an individual - integration and substitution. Ideas that evolve through integration tend to become highly stable parts of a person's conception of the world. On the other hand, when the content of the concept changes by means of substitution, there is always the possibility of a reversion to the earlier level of understanding. This is especially relevant to teaching skills, such as negotiation, where teachers often observe such outcomes.

Also, the experience has to be relevant to the social conditions, and the teacher's goal should be to create genuine, positive and stimulating experiences where learning can occur. When available, original documents, transcripts, memoranda, or direct observation are preferred sources of data. Thus, for learning to be effective, interaction between the individual and the environment is essential, but it will not be sufficient, unless both assimilation and accommodation take place, otherwise, "when accommodation processes dominate assimilation, we have imitation... When assimilation predominates over accommodation, we have play- the imposition of one's concepts and images without regard to environmental realities."⁸⁴

"Let me define a bit more precisely the elements which are involved in such significant or experiential learning. It has a quality of personal involvement -- the whole person in both his feelings and cognitive aspects being in the learning

⁸³ Elkind, 1970, quoted in Kolb, 28

⁸⁴ Kolb, 23

event. It is self-initiated, Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from the outside, the sense of discovery, or reaching out, of grasping and comprehending comes from within. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behavior, the attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner. It is evaluated by the learner. He knows whether it is meeting his need, whether it leads toward what he wants to know, whether it illuminates the dark area of ignorance he is experiencing. The locus of evaluation, we might say, resides definitely in the learner. Its essence is meaning. When such learning takes place, the element of meaning to the learner is built into the whole experience."⁸⁵

Reflective Teaching

Teaching can be viewed as a job, as something for which effort is expended and money, received. However, many teachers, including myself, think it is more a calling, an endeavor to which one should be passionately committed. It is certainly not an easy task, and all good teachers are often challenged. I have asked myself many times what it is that distinguishes a good teacher from an average one. Now I understand that it is through reflection on teaching that teachers become more skilled, more capable, and in general, better. In the next part of the paper, I shall outline the assumptions and beliefs that distinguish the concept of the reflective teacher, on one side, from the technical teacher, e.g. the teacher as mere technician, on the other.

Reflective teaching has been adopted by teachers, teacher educators, and educational researchers all over the world "as a reaction against the view of teachers as technicians who narrowly construe the nature of the problems confronting them and

⁸⁵ Carl Rogers and William R. Coulson, eds., *Freedom to Learn* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969)

merely carry out what others want them to do."⁸⁶ Reflective teaching emphasizes the importance of examining the thoughts and understandings that teachers bring to their teaching and the efforts in which they engage while teaching. Obviously, a purely contemplative stance for teachers is neither appropriate nor possible. A balance between reflection and routine, between thought and action is needed because without some routine, teachers would not be able to act and react in the classroom. Although all teachers think about what they do in the classroom, not all thinking about teaching is reflective teaching. If a teacher never questions the goals and the values that guide her work, the context in which she teaches, if she never examines her assumptions, and automatically accepts the view of the problem that is commonly accepted in any given situation, if she fails to realize that there is more than one way to frame the problem, then she is not engaged in reflective teaching. Thus, reflective teaching emphasizes the following five key features. A reflective teacher "examines, frames, and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice; is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching; is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches; takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts; and takes responsibility for his or her own professional development."⁸⁷

According to Dewey⁸⁸ there are three characteristics of reflective teachers: openmindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. Openmindedness is an active desire to listen to more than one side, to give full attention to alternative possibilities, and to recognize the possibility of error in one's beliefs. Reflective teachers are constantly

⁸⁶ Kenneth M. Zeichner and Daniel P. Liston, *Reflective Teaching: An Introduction* (Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1996), 4

⁸⁷ *ibid.*, 6

⁸⁸ John Dewey, *How We Think* (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1933)

asking themselves why they are doing what they are doing. Obviously, it is not necessary (and not possible either) to reflect on everything all of the time. Responsibility involves careful consideration of the consequences to which an action leads. Reflective teachers evaluate their teaching by asking the broader questions, "Are the results good, for whom and in what ways?" and not only "Have my objectives been met?" Teachers, who approach their work wholeheartedly, regularly examine their own assumptions and beliefs and the results of their actions and approach all situations with the attitude that they can learn something new. They continually strive to understand their own teaching and the way in which it impacts their students and they make deliberate efforts to see situations from different perspectives. Reflective teachers are committed to the education of all of their students and to their own development as teachers.

According to Griffith and Tann,⁸⁹ there are five dimensions of reflection. The first one, which is likely to be personal and private, is called *rapid reflection*. Teachers reflect automatically and immediately while they are acting. For example, when a student asks a question the teacher instinctively decides whether to give the answer, refer the student to a section in a book, or invite the class to give the answer.

The second dimension of reflection is also what Schon calls "reflection-in-action", but here there is a quick pause for thought. This stage is called *repair*. An example of this stage is a teacher reading students' reactions to a particular lesson and adjusting her teaching on the basis of these readings, e.g. slowing the pace, giving more elaborate explanations or more examples than originally planned. All other dimensions of

⁸⁹ M. Griffith and S. Tann, "Using Reflective Practice to Link Personal and Public Theories," *Journal of Education for Teaching* 18 (1992): 69-84

reflection are part of what Schon means by "reflection-on-action" and take place after the teaching is completed, and the class over.

The third dimension called *review* is often interpersonal and can happen at any time during or after the teacher's working day. Here teachers think about or talk over such things as the progress of particular students or groups of students, or the development of curriculum units, and, as a result, existing plans or ways of doing things may be modified.

In the fourth dimension of *reflection*, research, the teacher's observations and thinking become more systematic and focused around particular issues. This often leads to changes in the teacher's practices. This is the situation when a teacher who is teaching a course in negotiation decides to examine the effectiveness of pair work compared to small group work and conducts an action research.⁹⁰

In the fifth and final dimension of reflection, *re-theorizing and reformulating*, reflection is more abstract and rigorous than in other dimensions and takes place over a longer period of time. Here, while the teacher critically examines her practical theories, she also considers these theories in the light of academic theories. This paper is an example of this dimension of reflection. Although some consider this final dimension, the only really worthwhile type of reflection, others have found that all five are needed and important. It takes time and effort to develop a purposeful reflective teaching practice. According to Claire Stanley,⁹¹ during this process teachers need to accept three basic principles. The first is that, for teachers learning to reflect on their teaching, the

⁹⁰ Action research is a form of research in which a teacher is engaged in a research that is directed and focused on one particular element of her own teaching practice.

⁹¹ Claire Stanley, "Learning to Think, Feel and Teach Reflectively", unpublished, page 9, given to me through personal communication.

affective dimension, although very often ignored in professional literature on reflective teaching, is very important. Teachers need to develop skills in becoming aware of their emotions, recognizing their own nature, and identifying ways to process these emotions. "By developing ways of working with the affective dimension of their own learning, teachers are more prepared and skillful in helping students with the same issues."⁹² The second principle is that teachers have choices about the ways and means of implementing reflection. The third principle is that teachers learn reflection in relationship with themselves, through the initiation of inner dialogue; in relationship to their students' learning; and in relationship with other teachers through dialogue about their work.

In conclusion, "(l)earning how to think, feel and teach reflectively gives teachers direct access to the integration of theory and practice in their everyday working lives."⁹³ Furthermore, teaching is work that includes both thinking and feeling. The reflective element should be considered an important part of it because those who can reflectively think can find their work more rewarding and their efforts more successful, while at the same time becoming better teachers.

In this chapter, I have proposed the Reflective and Experiential Learning Models as ways to teach negotiation skills. The argument for picking out these particular models is that teaching practice has proven that the best way to learn negotiation skills is through experience, knowledge of theory, and models of application.⁹⁴ Thus, a program that combines theory and practice through lectures, readings and exercises, and real-life

⁹² *ibid.*

⁹³ *ibid.*

⁹⁴ For more details see Robert Bordone and Bob Mnookin, "Hewlett Pedagogy Survey: Report on Negotiation Teaching in Law Schools," article on-line, available from <http://www.pon.harvard.edu/events/hewlett/summary.shtml>.

experience, as well as student research complemented with analogy (which includes comparison and contrasting)⁹⁵ seems to be the right model. The rest of this paper will be an explanation of the implications of this view of teaching, and practical implementation of the models in teaching my negotiation course.

⁹⁵ Additionally, the teacher's role is to provide good matches to avoid negative transfer, i.e. transfer of concepts and principles to an inappropriate situation.

CHAPTER 3

TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING NEGOTIATION

Following on from the previous chapters, and what I believe about learning and teaching, I decided to organize my negotiation course keeping in mind the balance between skill development and negotiation theory. Specifically, I focused on teaching students how to learn from their experience and be reflective, as well as on developing students' awareness. Limited to twenty teaching hours, I was forced to make choices about what to include into my course. The key concepts included:

1. An introduction to negotiation in which I taught both positional and principled approaches to negotiation,⁹⁶ exposing students to both approaches, discussing the pros- and cons- of each, without advocating either one,
2. The Seven Elements of Principled Negotiation as the main framework for preparation and measuring a good outcome, focusing on interests, options, alternatives, criteria and relationships

⁹⁶ For the course outline please see Appendix 2.

3. The so-called "Three Tension Framework", focusing primarily on the tension between creating and distributing value, and the tensions between empathy and assertiveness

In addition to these concepts, students learned about different negotiation styles (competitive, cooperative, collaborative and problem-solving), and psychological barriers to success. I also spent some time giving students the tools to become more aware of their own negotiation styles, and helping them learn from their own experience. The course was focused on business, but it also discussed situations from other fields. In order to make the concepts more salient, many examples were taken from every-day life. I was the only teacher teaching the course, and I had the use of video and computer equipment.

Before I describe different teaching techniques used in the course, I would like to discuss the application of Gardner's Multiple Intelligences Framework to teaching negotiation. Intelligences that are core to learning negotiation skills are, first of all, linguistic intelligence (because so much of negotiation involves speaking and listening); interpersonal intelligence (because negotiators need to understand those with whom they are dealing); intrapersonal intelligence (because one needs to know one's own needs and desires as well as modes of operation). A degree of logical-mathematical intelligence certainly helps but it would be dangerous to assume that negotiation is a purely rational process. The newly found⁹⁷ form of intelligence, the existential intelligence⁹⁸ can be crucial in a successful negotiation, too. It should be noted that learning is maximized by accessing different intelligences. In order to increase the number of intelligences

⁹⁷ See in Howard Gardner, *Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligences for the 21st Century* (New York: Basic books, 1999).

⁹⁸ Existential intelligence helps us to ask and answer the questions of life, for example: Who are we? What are we trying to achieve?

activated in the negotiation classroom, the teacher should use a variety of teaching techniques.

Having adopted the frameworks of the Reflective Model and the Experiential Learning Cycle, as well as Multiple Intelligences, I have used a combination of the following techniques to handle 'received knowledge' area in teaching negotiation:

FOR PRESENTING NEW INPUT	FOR PRACTICING
<p style="text-align: center;">Lectures Class discussions Readings</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Group and pair work Simulations Games and exercises Poster presentations Video materials</p>
FOR TESTING	
<p>Students' journals Preparation memos Alternative assessment Student feedback</p>	

In this chapter, I am going to discuss each technique in greater detail. I am going to list their advantages and disadvantages, and my experience in using them. But first, I would like to explain why a variety of techniques is necessary.

One of the most striking features of tertiary education programs in Croatia is the restricted range of teaching techniques that are used. In many institutions, the dominant teaching mode is formal lecture, usually backed up by tutorials. The reason for this is

simply tradition. Many teachers say that they teach that way because it is the way it has always been done. I believe another reason is that this format is easy to organize.

Be that as it may, there are several reasons why it is advantageous to involve students in different teaching and learning techniques. It has been generally accepted that teachers should motivate their students by introducing a variety of learning opportunities in their lessons. Variety fights boredom and adds incentive. Variety makes teaching more interesting for the teacher, too. Second, students' learning styles⁹⁹ vary, i.e. different students have different ways of learning, and this should be reflected in teaching strategies. Third, students should be exposed to different learning contexts in which they can explore different learning strategies and develop the ones they haven't used before. Fourth, the teacher gets to know the students better, and is in a better position to evaluate them, if she has seen them operate in different learning situations. Finally, but not the least important, successful negotiators use a variety of ways to reach an agreement, so it seems sensible that a variety of ways for doing things is demonstrated in classroom situations.

The techniques I used varied in a number of ways.

1. The amount of student/teacher interaction, with formal lecture on one end of the scale and discussion on the other.

2. The amount of teacher's control - at one extreme is lecture and on the other, for example, students' poster presentations.

⁹⁹ Different people have different attitudes to learning and their own individual ways of learning. When these are unconscious or an integral part of student's personality, they are called learning styles. But, if students have considerable control over which style of learning they use in particular situation, we talk about learning strategies, which can be adopted.

3. The amount of attention given to the individual student - here we may contrast the use of lecture, and students' journals.

4. The level of applicability to real-life - all techniques can be more or less applicable, but we can, for example, contrast reading theoretical texts with taking part in simulations.

5. The amount of student's active involvement, during a lecture or an exercise

6. The extent to which feelings are expressed - some techniques inhibit the expression of emotions, others are more suitable for it. Feelings are always present in human interaction, and it would be foolish to ignore them, especially in a negotiation course because emotions play such an important role in negotiation.

7. The amount of visual aids used, such as blackboard, video, computer programs, etc.

8. Physical arrangement of the classroom - arrangement of furniture for a lecture differs greatly from the arrangement of desks and chairs for group work or a poster presentation.

My decision about when to use which technique depended on the desired learning outcomes, i.e. the answer to the question: What is the best technique available to meet a particular purpose? It is worth noting here that one technique can meet a wide range of purposes, and that one purpose can be accomplished in a variety of ways. For example, a lecture may be used to provide guidelines for a subject that is new to the students. It may be intended to stimulate students by posing an interesting problem, or by showing the relevance of the topic to students' professional concerns. If the purpose is to convey

information, this can be done in a variety of ways: by a handout, lecture, by assigned reading, or by reference to a chapter in a textbook, etc.

It is important to notice, though, that each technique ought to feature, in various ways, the following key aspects of the academic process:¹⁰⁰ acquisition, reflection, application and evaluation, whereby each stage or aspect forms the basis for the next one. It would, however, be too ambitious to expect all four aspects to be a part of every technique. This offers another justification for the use of a variety of techniques in a course. Only in case that different techniques stressing different aspects of the academic process are used, the teacher can take into account all aspects of the academic process.

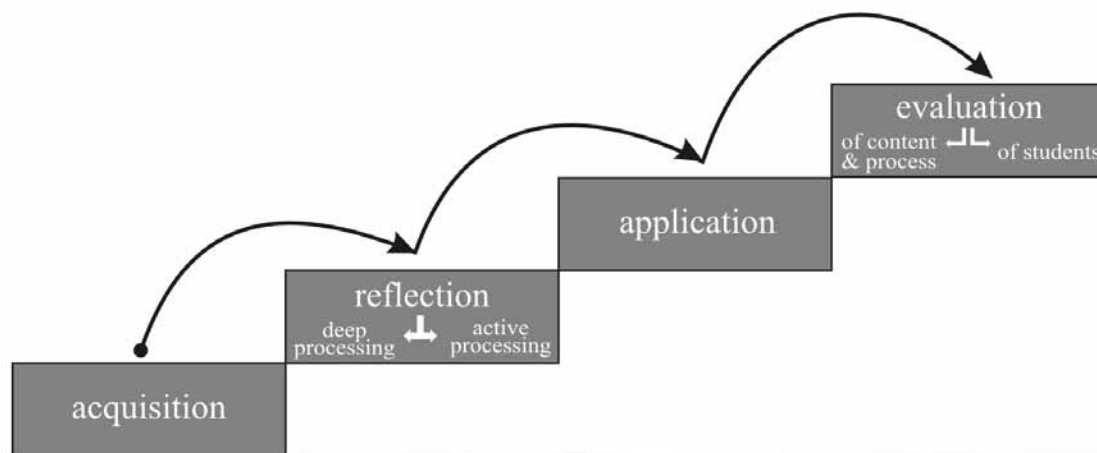


Figure 6: Aspects of the Academic Process

Acquisition refers to knowledge acquired from books, lectures, discussions, personal experience, etc. Reflection applies to two aspects of handling of new information - *deep processing*, in which students develop an understanding of the

¹⁰⁰Adapted from J.C. Parker and L..J. Rubin, *Process and Content: Curriculum Design and the Application of Knowledge* (Chichago: Rand McNally, 1966).

essential underlying meaning of the new knowledge, and *active processing*, in which students relate the new knowledge to their previous knowledge and experience.

Application stage refers to the application of new knowledge to the solution of practical problems. Evaluation aspect has two stages: students' evaluation of content and process, in which students evaluate the new information which they have received, and how it has been presented in the form of student feedback, and assessment, which should reveal to the student and the teacher how far the course objectives have been achieved by individual students.

Lecture

It seems fairly obvious that in order to learn something new, students need to be able to perceive and understand it. One of the teacher's jobs is to mediate such new material so that it appears in a form that is most accessible for learning.¹⁰¹ One of the forms of this mediation is lecture. The ability to mediate new material is an essential teaching skill; it enables the teacher to facilitate understanding and thus promotes further learning. Lecture is a form of teaching and learning where a teacher talks to the students for an extended period of time. Usually it is for 45 minutes and the students' participation is not welcome, except perhaps for the questions at the end. Apart from this formal lecture, there are other variations. For example, a lecture may be delivered less formally, in which case students' reactions during the lecture are welcome. Another variation is

¹⁰¹ It would be too ambitious to expect students to use the insights spontaneously while, for example, evaluating their behavior after simulations. I believe that the introduction of some basic theoretical concepts is required in order to make practical experiences more valuable.

when teachers deliver short lectures that are as effective, or even more effective than formal-forty-five-minute lectures. Some teachers employ the Socratic method in their lectures, and thus by actively engaging students in questions and answers, gradually lead them to the elicitation of certain truths.

Characteristics of good lectures are students' attention, a clear perception of the target material, understanding the material being introduced, and the powerful impact that the lecture has on students' short-term memory. It should be noted that some students retain the material better if the material is seen, others if it is heard, yet others if it is associated with physical movement. These should, ideally, all be utilized during a lecture.

Various findings among university students¹⁰² show that one of the most valuable qualities of a lecture in the view of many students is clarity of presentation. There are various ways to achieve it. First, teachers should constantly relate what they are saying with either previous lectures or some area of knowledge or experience that is familiar to students. Following on what has previously been said about Dewey's concept of 'experiential continuum' and Piaget's argument about learning occurring in successive stages, put together with Ausubel's¹⁰³ assumption that no learning can take place which is not anchored in previous learning, and Kant's claiming that new information, new concepts, new ideas can have meaning only when they can be related to something the

¹⁰² For example in P. Maris, *The Experience in Higher Education* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1964).

¹⁰³ D.P. Ausubel, "Cognitive Structure and the Facilitation of Meaningful Verbal Learning". In R.C. Anderson and D.P. Ausubel, eds., *Readings in Psychology of Cognition* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965)

individual already knows,¹⁰⁴ the benefits to be gained from making explicit links to the previous material are substantial.

Next, the teacher should make clear what purpose she has in mind, and what kind of learning activity she expects the students to undertake. For example, whether they should make notes, or only listen carefully because they'll get the handouts later. Gibbs, Habeshaw and Habeshaw¹⁰⁵ call this procedure: briefing.

Another thing teachers should do to add clarity to lectures is provide students with an overview of the lecture, indicating the gist and outline of the presentation. This information can be provided orally, by a handout, on OHP, or on the blackboard. Additionally, signposting should be used to indicate clearly what point in the lecture the teacher is currently at.

Finally, before the end of a lecture, the teacher should briefly summarize the main points to ensure that student leave the classroom with the main points from the lecture. This can be done either by the teacher, or individual students.

As mentioned above, the use of visual aids is welcome. Studies have shown that lectures that use well-prepared and appropriate visuals are more convincing and more memorable than those that don't. A listener who misses the oral message may not have a chance to hear it again. Because of this limitation, lectures need strong visual support. Some even claim that visuals are as crucial to the success of a lecture as the ideas presented. Visuals should be used to eliminate vagueness, simplify complex information, emphasize important points, attract students attention, and add interest. When making

¹⁰⁴ The topic of schema theory has only been touched upon here, and will be dealt with at greater length later in the paper, when reading as a technique is discussed.

¹⁰⁵G. Gibbs, S. Habeshaw and T. Habeshaw, *53 Interesting Things to Do in your Lectures* (2nd ed.) (Bristol: Teaching and Educational Services, 1987)

use of visuals, teachers should aim for clarity, simplicity, brevity and should not forget to use color.

Like many other techniques, lecture has certain advantages and disadvantages. The secret in using it is to maximize the advantages and minimize the disadvantages. Concerning the four aspects of academic process, acquisition is very strong in lectures, whereas other three, reflection, application and evaluation rarely occur, with the exception of active processing which should be incorporated into each lecture, as previously discussed. I would say that the main advantage, and there need be many, as lectures are perhaps the most common way of transferring the knowledge in higher education, is that by giving lectures, the teacher meets students' expectations. In my teaching context, teachers who do not, at least occasionally, give lectures are not considered knowledgeable, or serious. Other advantages are administrative in nature: lecture is cheap in terms of human resources (e.g. no need for teaching assistant support), relatively easy to arrange (little or no equipment needed), and it is a relatively flexible technique. It is true that most teaching purposes can be achieved by a well-presented lecture, especially if it includes some kind of discussion or feedback session. It saves time, particularly when complex concepts are presented, or when students need too many resources and too much time to collect the findings, to make conclusions, or discover the answers and solutions themselves. How economical it is in terms of learning achieved by the students, is another matter.

Students' expectations, economy of use, flexibility and human contact are the reasons why I use lectures when teaching negotiations. I try to maximize its advantages

by making use of the human contact aspect, such as eye contact, gesture, personal anecdote, as well as my personal commitment as lecturer.

The most serious disadvantage is probably that the new knowledge, which is imposed from the outside, is considered by the students to be irrelevant and is often rejected as such. Another disadvantage is that in a lecture, students are given the answers, which they do not have time, or need to process. In Piaget's terms, assimilation of new knowledge might take place because the knowledge from the experience that is consistent with students existing cognitive structures can easily be integrated. Accommodation, on the other hand, rarely takes place during lecture. If established perceptions are challenged, it takes time and effort to alter the existing structure in order to integrate the new knowledge. As the occurrence of both processes is a precondition for learning, if only assimilation happens, the learning process is not complete, and students forget what they have been taught. If students are passive observers, and there is no investment on their side, poor retention results. To compensate for this disadvantage, students should be given opportunity to process the information they have stored in their short-term memory in other ways, by making links with the previously learned material, by further working with it to consolidate learning, and making use of it later in the course. Lectures also emphasize the unequal power relationship between students and the teacher, which poses a potential threat to student's self-esteem. In response to such feelings, students are "prone to fall back on their usual repertoire of dissonance-reduction strategies."¹⁰⁶ As a result of that, and in line with Patton's observations, I have experienced students

¹⁰⁶ Patton

disengage from the experience, or withdraw into passiveness without any conscious rationale.

Sustaining students' attention is, certainly, another disadvantage. There is a research to show that there is almost universally a drop of attention after fifteen or twenty minutes.¹⁰⁷ Obviously, the lack of feedback from students, due to limited interaction with the teacher, can be a significant disadvantage, too. The larger the audience, the greater the likelihood that they will come with different expectations, different previous knowledge, and different abilities. Very often lecturers can only guess what effect the lecture is having on the audience.

In order to minimize or overcome these weaknesses, I use lectures to introduce the subject or concept and to present findings or results of a research, for example, to deepen the learning experience. Providing additional information on issues involved, summarizing the main point of the literature, and above all, motivating students through (enthusiastic) oral introduction serves the "warming-up" function. I never lecture for more than twenty minutes and always use visual aids. During the lecture, I move around the class and interrupt my presentation with questions for students, to check their understanding. Alternatively, students are given the questions before the lecture and asked to answer them at the end. I also use participatory questions,¹⁰⁸ which increase students feeling of engagement in the activity by raising their level of activity. For example, I may say "We have all asked for something in the negotiation and got it. How many of you, in such a situation, have thought that you could have gotten more? Raise

¹⁰⁷ See in D.A.Bligh, *What's the Use of Lectures?* (Harmondsworth: Penguin Books, 1971).

¹⁰⁸ A term I found in Bruce M. Patton, "Some Techniques for Teaching Negotiation to Large Groups": *Negotiation Journal*, 11 (1995): 403-407.

your hand." Or, I ask them to express whether they agree or disagree on certain points by a simple show of hands. My students like the technique "Think, Pair, Share"¹⁰⁹ which I often employ. I have students think about a question, have them pair up, and share their responses with each other and talk about them before beginning the class discussion. It may seem more time-consuming, but it isn't, because the discussion that follows is more comprehensive, exploratory and intense. Students are also more comfortable and confident expressing their opinions if they have shared them first in pairs. I also encourage students to ask questions during the lecture. I take great care to answer these questions to the student's satisfaction, or give the reason why I don't.¹¹⁰ I often use the simple technique of repeating students' questions before answering them, and asking the students if they are satisfied with the answer. I do this for two reasons. One is that it reinforces the importance of each individual student in the class, and second, it puts the responsibility on the student to listen and think about what I am saying, while I am answering his question.

When I feel the energy in the classroom dropping, I change the pace, by telling personal anecdote, for example, or by asking students to restate the concept in their own words. Sometimes I use the activity called *buzz groups* in which groups of students have a brief discussion (for five minutes) to generate ideas, or answer specific questions. For example, I may say to the students: You have five minutes to see if you can think of three arguments against the view I have just presented to you. Discuss it in groups of five with people sitting nearest to you. After five minutes, some groups give their views, and the

¹⁰⁹ I learned the technique during my study at School for International Training in 2001.

¹¹⁰ The reasons being the scope of the question and the limited time available, or my being unable to provide the answer on the spot, etc.

answers are used as a link to the next section of the lecture. Lectures are best for the transfer of the "received knowledge". To overcome its drawbacks, I always combine the lecture with other, more experiential techniques, such as simulations or students' journals.

Guided Readings

This is another technique widely used for the "received knowledge" input. Under guided reading, I understand a form of teaching and learning in which students are asked, prior to coming to the class, to read specific articles or sections of books with a particular purpose in mind.¹¹¹

It should be noted that reading is a process in which "students interact with the text in order to create meaningful discourse."¹¹² Although reading has sometimes been characterized as passive or receptive, as early as 1917, Thorndike¹¹³ established the notion that reading is an active process related to problem solving. According to the psycholinguistic perspective¹¹⁴ of reading, efficient readers develop predictions about the content of the text. Thus, reading is an integrative process between the student and his prior background knowledge on one hand, and the text itself on the other. Along the textual clues, knowledge and experience help readers develop expectations about what they will read. The efficient reader reads rapidly to confirm or refute these predictions. If

¹¹¹ For the list of readings that I used in the course see Appendix 2.

¹¹² Sandra Silberstein, *Techniques and Resources in Teaching Reading* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994), 6

¹¹³ Cited in Silberstein.

¹¹⁴ K.S. Goodman, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game," *Journal of the Reading Specialist* 6 (1967): 126-135

hypotheses are confirmed, the reader continues with an increasing store of information on the topic. If they are not confirmed, the reader returns and rereads more carefully.

Grabe claims that two types of cognitive skills, identification and interpretation are employed in reading. Fluent readers simultaneously employ the lower level skills that allow them to rapidly and automatically recognize words, i.e. identification (unconscious processing), as well as higher level skills that allow them to comprehend and interpret, which demands interaction between the reader and the text. I have noticed that my students tend to simply read the texts, recognizing words, employing only the lower level skills for identification, believing this is enough for understanding and learning.

In contemporary approaches to reading, meaning is not seen as being fully present in the text waiting to be decoded. Rather, meaning is created through the interaction of the reader and the text. Reader's expectations are based on reader's prior knowledge.

The theoretical framework of schema theory emphasizes the role of preexisting knowledge (a reader's schemata) in providing the reader with information that is implicit in the text. Additionally, a large body of literature has argued that prior knowledge of text related information strongly affects reading comprehension. Reading comprehension depends largely on the reader being able to relate information from the text to his extant background knowledge. From this perspective, text comprehension requires the simultaneous interaction of two modes of information processing. Bottom-up or text-based processing occurs when the input from the text is mapped against reader's previous knowledge. This process can also be called "data-driven" because it is evoked by the incoming data. Top-down, or knowledge-based or conceptually driven information processing occurs when readers use prior knowledge to make predictions about the data

they will find in the text. Successful reading requires skill in both top-down and bottom-up processing.

When using reading as a technique the teacher has the control because she selects what students have to read outside the class. The students, on the other hand, have the initiative in so far that they can choose when to read, and how much time they want to spend on reading. They can also choose what to do with the text, whether to make notes while reading, underline parts of the text, write a double-entry journal, or something else. In order to reduce teacher's control and increase students' initiative, from time to time, I give my students the opportunity to choose between two texts about the same topic, or I bring up the topic, such as influence of gender in the negotiation process, and ask students to find appropriate texts themselves. I consider the fact that students must use their own initiative the main advantage of this technique. Students can read at their own pace and thus have enough time both to assimilate the new knowledge, and to accommodate it. For these reasons, I consider the technique particularly suitable for introducing complex concepts, as well as those concepts that contradict students' existing knowledge and experience.

The main disadvantage of the technique is that it is time-consuming and rather complex, so the students must be self-disciplined in order to accomplish the task. The acquisition and reflection are usually incorporated in this technique. My experience is that the application and evaluation aspects are often ignored if not emphasized by the teacher. The teacher's concern should be to include all four levels of understanding, as students need both opportunity to apply the solutions offered in the readings to practical situations, as well as the chance to evaluate the ideas presented in the text.

Following on the discussion about the importance of the schemata, the need for top-down and bottom-up information processing, and the fact that students tend to employ only lower-level cognitive skills when reading extensive texts, I propose the following steps for using reading to learn about negotiation theory.

The first step is to establish relevance and to access background knowledge in the pre-reading discussion. Reading is ineffective when students read 'cold', without any preparation. Students need reasonable context and some knowledge of the topic to begin to learn from reading, as both top-down and bottom-up information processing is required for successful reading. Students need access to background knowledge to facilitate the top-down processing, which in turn assists the bottom-up information processing. In addition, in the pre-reading discussion, teachers should elicit the existing knowledge about the topic to initiate the processes of assimilation and accommodation of the new information from reading. Without some schema into which it can be assimilated, the experience is incomprehensible, and therefore little can be learned from it. It should be pointed out that the pre-reading discussion happens in the class, while other steps occur outside the class.

When reading individually, students should form hypotheses, read rapidly to confirm the expectations and reread more carefully, which allows them to evaluate the evidence and argumentation with respect to their previous knowledge and personal beliefs. The teacher should remember that reading should not be too long or only partially relevant. It should have a direct and clear relationship to the precise subject matter being studied.

The teacher's role is not only to provide reading material that is relevant, applicable to the real world and that meets students needs, but also to prompt students to come up with expectations for the selected text, to give the tasks that will help them read more effectively, and to work with students to evaluate what has been read, both in terms of the ideas and concepts presented, and the usefulness of the text. In conclusion, the teacher's role is to prompt students to read carefully, employing both identification and interpretation skills.

I have noticed that my students do not read effectively, although the readings for this course are mostly in their mother tongue. They have no problem in understanding the surface meaning of the text. As it is not words, but ideas and concepts that need to be processed, I realize it is inappropriate to simply give students the texts, and expect them to read and truly understand them. I have decided to give my students series of exercises to accompany the reading, the next time I teach the course, not to test their reading, but to develop their reading skills. Apart from my students not being able or used to reading effectively, they are seemingly not prepared to take the initiative that I offer them. It could also be that they do not feel completely responsible for their learning and need some control and guidance in the form of exercises to accompany the reading.

For example, I am going to give them the true/false exercise before they read the text. This will not only activate their schemata, but also motivate them to read. Similarly, I can, after I introduce the topic, ask them to write down questions they want to get answered by reading the text. With the text to be read, I could include a list of terms from the text in the order they appear in the text, and students have to as a pre-reading activity identify the ones they understand, and the ones they don't understand. This will help them

relate to the terms while reading. Next, I am going to encourage students to make semantic maps. By drawing semantic maps I hope to allow students to demonstrate their understanding of the relationship between various ideas presented in the text. I believe that this procedure will allow students the freedom to visually present a hierarchy of ideas in a diagram format. Maps can be used both as pre-and post-reading activities. If they are made prior to reading, they can incorporate students expectations and background knowledge and can be supplemented by the new information from the text after the reading. Another possibility is for students to make the outline of the text, identifying main ideas, the conclusion, and the examples.

Students may be asked to identify the main ideas and after the reading, in pairs, find the supporting details. They can also be asked to match the list of main ideas with the corresponding details. These exercises can help students to understand how the text is organized, and to learn to distinguish important from unimportant pieces of information.

Students need writing to understand the reading.¹¹⁵ I can, therefore, ask them to copy the most powerful paragraph,¹¹⁶ and then write their reaction to it, explaining why it is meaningful to them. Classroom discussion can be very interesting because different people connect to different parts differently. This exercise can contribute a lot to building a student's security because there are no right or wrong answers. They might be asked to write a summary, or even more interestingly, to write a letter to the author or editor and express and justify their opinions, concerning the ideas expressed in the text.

I think that my students also need practice in differentiating between statements of fact and expressions of opinion, as well as understanding when the author suggests

¹¹⁵ Foster once wrote: How do I know what I think until I see what I say?

¹¹⁶ This will additionally give them practice in using quotes.

something indirectly. Namely, they need practice in understanding what the sentence implies. This may be very important, as the inferred information can be one of the main points made in the text. Equally important is the practice of separating what the writer *says* from what the reader *thinks*. It is important to note that teachers should encourage students to relate the reading with what they previously read, and to look for similarities, and ideas that either supplement or contradict each other, which promotes critical thinking. It can be very useful to ask students to find examples in real-life for the concepts presented in the text. In the class, they can discuss the examples. This can significantly contribute to reflection, and both deep and active processing.

Pair and Group Work

In this technique, the class is divided into smaller groups, which interact in various ways. It should be distinguished from class work, in which the whole class works together. When using this technique, the teacher has two goals: to help students learn, reflect on, process their experience of the exercise, and help groups function effectively.

Apart from giving each student more opportunity to be actively involved, group work has other important features that are often ignored by teachers. Groups allow students to participate in the part of the activity that they can do best. This boosts their confidence and increases their motivation. Group work, in general, makes every student feel that he is an important part of the learning process, and responsible for one's own learning as well as the success of the whole group. Competition between groups is more comfortable, and, in general, less threatening than is competition between individuals.

Furthermore, by giving and receiving support from other members, students cater for their social needs, and "working, risking, and suffering together for even a short time can produce noticeable feelings of mutual loyalty."¹¹⁷ Also, correction from peers is much less threatening than when coming from a teacher because "the one doing the correction is not the person who gives out the grades, and because the correction is less likely to come in a reproachful or other judgmental tone of voice."¹¹⁸

Group work can take many different forms. I have already mentioned the *buzz groups* and how they share their findings or opinions with the large group. There are other possibilities along these lines, such as *pyramid* or *snowball groups*, in which a small group, or a pair draws up a list of suggestions or ideas. These are then shared with another small group or a pair, whereby some ideas are accepted, and some rejected. The groups are doubled again, sharing their ideas and making choices. The process finishes with a plenary session in which the whole class discusses the ideas and suggestions, which were generated during the group work. Another similar activity is *cross over groups*, in which students discuss target issues, divided in groups. At the end of a specified period, members of each group cross over and join other groups, sharing the views of their group with the new group. Each group has to agree on what it has decided, before it dispatches members to the next group. This tool is rather time effective because ideas from different groups are shared without the need for a formal feedback session, in which individuals report back to the class on what they have been researching or discussing. Once used to functioning in groups, students can meet in small groups outside the class, which can operate without the teacher, who may, however, be available

¹¹⁷ Stevick, Working with Teaching Methods, 55

¹¹⁸ *ibid.*

as a resource. These support groups, or D-groups as they are sometimes called, can be valuable not only when students work on a project, but also when they need to submit a written product of some form, such as essays, and when they employ the process writing technique. The reason I make use of support groups is that I hope to encourage students to see each other as resources, hopefully even after the course finishes.

Flexibility and variety are major advantages of group work, but there are others, too. One of the most important is that groups work is suitable for learning-by-doing which is very important for learning a skill such as negotiation. It also provides a good opportunity for reflection, both active processing and deep reflection, particularly in terms of students being able to relate new information and ideas to their previous knowledge, concerns and experience, as well as application of the new knowledge in practical situations. Discussions in small groups allows them to "articulate their own perception of the new ideas, and practical sessions allow them to apply theoretical knowledge to realistic or quasi-realistic situations and to monitor the outcomes."¹¹⁹ I shall discuss this in more detail later, when I write about simulations. Since group work is interactive in nature, it increases the chance both for the teacher and students to give and get feedback. First, group work gives the teacher more feedback on how the students understand the material under discussion than some other less interactive techniques like, for example, a lecture. It is also easier for students to get feedback on how they are doing from the teacher in an informal setting of a group work, as well to clarify unclear issues with other members of the group. "There may also be feedback on the different levels of

¹¹⁹ Wallace, 41

ability and the different attitudes of the various members of the group which may be valuable for the successful conduct of the course."¹²⁰

The most commonly recognized problem with group work is that some students in some groups feel that the sessions are aimless, and that nothing has been achieved in the learning process. This is certainly a drawback of reduced teacher's control. It is possible that nothing, in fact, has been learned. But I tend to believe that, more often students have in fact learned, but due to the poor teacher's evaluation of the group work, students are not aware of what it is they have learned. For this reason, not only clear goals and instructions, but also a closing plenary session or whole class discussion after the group work is very important. It is always worthwhile to present a brief summary of the main issues that have been raised and resolved. It is also useful to record these main points in some form to give them added substance.

It is useful to bear in mind that group work is one of the situations when emotions are very likely to come into play, and both students and the teacher have to be able to deal with them. This is important because feelings, as well as relationships within a group, can be the reasons for the failure of group work.

In summary, concerning the four levels of understanding, group work is not so effective for the acquisition as lecture or reading is, but very suitable for reflection, application and evaluation.

¹²⁰ *ibid.*

Discussions

I find discussions and would like to list some thoughts on facilitating discussion.. First of all, each discussion should consist of three parts: the introduction, the discussion itself and the closure. It is ineffective to jump into the discussion without properly introducing the purpose of it. The introduction need not be long and it may include an explanation of the task, or a reflection on the topic, a free-write, etc. Stone¹²¹ claims that the two most important things that come into play in the discussion phase are asking initial questions and following up. Initial questions frame the discussion and give it the right direction. By asking good questions, and by providing a moment or two for students to reflect, the teacher focuses the students thinking along the productive lines. Questions may either be open-ended or focused. As a general rule it is better to start the discussion with open-ended questions as it offers students possibility to express different thoughts and views. In general, good questions are those that arise from the learning points that the teacher hopes to get across during the discussion.

Following up includes responding to a student's question either by acknowledgement, by another question, or by a comment. This helps the discussion to move on. They also help the student clarify his own thinking, and help the teacher and other students find out more about what is being said.

The final part of a discussion should be the closure which should include the summary of the main points discussed, the teachers statement of her view on the subject,

¹²¹ Douglas Stone, "Thoughts on Facilitating Discussion About Negotiation," in Michael Wheeler, ed., *Teaching Negotiation: Ideas and Innovations* (Cambridge: PON Books, 2000), 347-356

or a statement about where the students were before the discussion, where they are now, and where this should take them next.

A piece of advice given by Stone is that, during a class discussion, the teacher should be a good listener who is curious. Furthermore, the teacher should listen carefully to every comment, and acknowledge it in some way, remain present and engaged, and not be afraid to show surprise.

Simulations

Learning to negotiate is not like learning a formula or an equation, which, once mastered, can be used again and again to solve similar problems. Negotiation involves more art and science than that. The Experiential learning model suggests taking part in a structured experience, reflecting on that experience, abstracting concepts from the reflection, and moving on into subsequent experience. Thus, for students to learn the art and science of negotiation, the course should be structured around actual negotiations and negotiation exercises. As taking part in real negotiations will have the greatest impact, the teachers should look for opportunities to negotiate with students in the class about various issues, such as the number of assignments, the deadlines, duration and frequency of breaks, even the grades. Discussions about students' experiences outside the class, the observation and the analysis of real-life negotiations should also be an important part of the course.

As real-life negotiations are not easy to plan, simulations are the next best choice.¹²² I strongly believe that well-designed simulations are the key to teaching students and professionals about negotiation. The program on Negotiation at Harvard Law School found that "overwhelmingly, negotiation instructors rely on simulations to help students become better negotiators."¹²³ This claim is rooted in the idea that negotiation is best taught by doing it, and through reflection on one's own practice. Roger Fisher notes that "you can't tell someone how to deal with others and expect them to understand. They need to do it. There is clearly a difference between telling someone to put themselves in another's shoes and having them experience another's point of view in a role-reversal. Simulations are one way to do it."¹²⁴ For this reason, there is no substitute for simulated experiences in which students can practice getting along with others.

Furthermore, effective negotiation involves a vast set of skills that represent a "complex collection of elements that entail aspects of strategizing, advocacy, communication, persuasion, and cognitive packaging and repackaging of information."¹²⁵ This diversity of skills suggests that perhaps the best way to teach negotiation is by having students practice it in actual situations.

Additionally, simulations offer a way to deal with supplementing students' naïve theories about negotiation, which have been discussed earlier in this paper, with more

¹²² Simulation is a group activity which imitates (simulates) situations, usually those which are likely to arise in one's real-life professional activities.

¹²³ Robert Bordone and Bob Mnookin, "Hewlett Pedagogy Survey: Report on Negotiation Teaching in Law Schools," article on-line, available from <http://www.pon.harvard.edu/events/hewlett/summary.shtml>.

¹²⁴ Cited in Lawrence E. Susskind and Jason Corburn, "Using simulations to Teach Negotiation: Pedagogical Theory and Practice" in Wheeler, 299

¹²⁵ Roy J. Lewicky, "Teaching Negotiation and Dispute Resolution in colleges of Business: The State of Practice," *Negotiation Journal* 13, (1997): 265

accurate theories. According to Loewenstein and Thompson,¹²⁶ the process consists of three steps.

Step 1: *Learning by doing* which provides a real-life activity that engages student's naïve theories of negotiation, such as a one-on-one buying and selling situation in *Appleton and Baker* simulation.

Step 2: *Reveal expectation failures* which provides feedback about how people did, specifically to show them the limits of their naïve theories, as well as that there is more a student needs to know to be successful.

Step 3: *Offer explanations* which provides insights into the expert model through outlining alternative interpretations and listing courses of action that students can take to reach better outcomes.

Loewenstein and Thompson claim that a careful use of this three-part approach typically results in confidence that concrete lessons have been learned. As a result, students seem more ready to deal with similar problems in real-life situations.

This is how it looks, applied to the classroom situation. "Simulations place students in an assigned role in a specific situation and challenge them to find ways to address the circumstances and the consequences likely to follow from various courses of action."¹²⁷ Simulations can be based on real-life situations, or purely hypothetical premises. They are usually carried out in face-to-face interaction. Using simulations effectively requires teachers to actively engage students in the process of listening and

¹²⁶ Jeffrey, Loewenstein and Leigh Thompson, "The Challenge of Learning," *Negotiation Journal* 4 (2000): 399-408

¹²⁷Lewicky, 285

questioning. This is how they will increase their understanding of their own interests and those of others. Having in mind that different students have different points they prefer to enter the experiential circle, I sometimes let students discover the key learning points themselves through simulation before codifying them in a lecture or summary points. At other times, I give students pre-class readings or offer study questions to stress key points for students to catch.

I have experimented in some simulations and assigned some of the students the role of an observer. Their job was to observe two parties negotiating a case and to give each of the parties constructive feedback after the simulation. Different students learn in different ways, and I have observed that some students need to see others do the simulation to feel comfortable enough to try to do the same. This is especially important at the beginning of the course. I have also noticed that observation helps students shape the way they later approach problem solving. In addition, I find this teaching tool very useful for all parties involved because it gives students an opportunity to receive detailed coaching that I cannot give to each individual student.

Simulations combine elements of games and role-plays. They typically consist of at least three parts: a written background information that sets the stage, confidential instructions for each player, and a teaching and debrief note. Typically, multiple groups play the simulation at the same time so that the results can be compared. Generally, in the course I teach, the ranking of results is distributed to students after the simulation, so they can compare their outcome to those of other students in the class. In my opinion, scorable simulations have the advantages over the non-scorable ones because students can compare how well they did relative to the highest possible score. However, I agree that

what is negotiated is not always and only money, and that some dimensions, such as time, space, willingness to work with others are difficult to score.

The debriefing of results provides an opportunity for the whole group to examine the differences in outcomes. Experience is important, but even more important is the opportunity to reflect on that experience. Students are encouraged to reflect not only on their own results, but on why the outcomes of the other groups playing the same game were different. I use simulations that are all scorable, but I do not grade students based on the outcomes. I decided not to grade them based on the outcomes in simulations because I wanted them to be creative and ready to take risks. I also strongly disapprove of penalties for experimenting or doing badly. In the future, I might consider giving outcomes some weight, but assign them only a minor role in evaluation, 10 % of the final grade.¹²⁸ This approach might have some advantages, such as this percentage is sufficient to bring out the students' competitiveness, but not so much as to outweigh all other considerations.

The teacher's role is to highlight the commonalities and differences that teach the most important lessons. She also has to link the outcomes to the key negotiation concepts and theory. Students should also be encouraged to reflect on how the simulation outcome relates to an experience in their real life and how they might have handled the real life situation differently in light of what they learned from the simulation. In my experience, it is in the debriefing, where most of the learning takes place.

Reviewing what was done, either by talking about it or by listening to others talk about it, is crucial. Wheeler claims that "debriefing is everything. I can't imagine people getting much value from simply doing a series of negotiations." Kolb continues that "if

¹²⁸ A suggestion proposed by Williams in G.R. Williams, *Legal Negotiations and Settlement-Teacher's Manual* (St.Paul, MN: West Publishing Co., 1983).

you can't debrief it, there is not much to learn - the debrief is a way to make the theory meaningful."¹²⁹

The success of a debriefing session depends on providing reflection space for experiential learning. It is difficult to provide this space with a large group of students. For this reason, some teachers have students discuss the experience in small groups first. This ensures that each student gets the air time, and has a chance to express his ideas about what some of the crucial lessons are. Others are more inclined to take an active role in framing the discussion with the large group. Whatever approach the teacher adopts, the "most critical aspect of the debrief is for the teacher to both be able to use and build on what the students are saying on one hand, and at the same time have an idea ahead of time what major messages you want to get across. "The skill is to build on their own experience to get to your messages."¹³⁰ Therefore, before using a simulation, teachers have to be very clear what lessons the students should walk away with after the simulation. Bazerman stresses that far too often, teachers pick an interesting exercise, but after an ambiguous discussion, students leave the classroom not knowing what they have learned. He states, "(s)tudents should never be confused over why we did that case or what it is they were supposed to learn."

I usually prefer to focus on 'failures' over 'successes' because people do not need to change what they got right. It is very powerful to have data on what students got wrong and look for ways to make it better. Failure in the classroom is simply data.

As it has already been discussed in this paper, analyzing isolated simulations without making comparisons and analogies will not help students transfer the knowledge

¹²⁹ Both cited in *ibid.*,302

¹³⁰ Robert Mnookin in *ibid.*, 302

to real-life situations. So the teachers need to provide students with situations in which they can compare and contrast seemingly different situations and notice structural similarities. Because students tend to make connections only between situations that have matching contexts, they need to be constantly reminded of negotiations with matching structures. In this way, the new knowledge will not remain tied to the learning context alone, and its application will be possible not only in situations with highly similar surface aspects.

In conclusion, carefully structured debriefings with clear analytic lessons are crucial to teaching negotiation skills

Among many advantages of simulations is the fact that while making classroom activities more relevant and real by introducing the element of 'make believe', simulations offer students a safe setting in which errors are not costly and experimentation is encouraged. Some educators consider engaging students in actual negotiation exercises, as opposed to artificial tasks, the key to learning. In addition, students accumulate negotiation experience that they might be able to draw upon later. Simulation should be as varied and broad in scope as possible so that students may broaden their experience and develop a general theory. Students typically enjoy engaging in negotiation simulations, and are thus motivated to engage in the task. An additional purpose of each simulation is to provide an opportunity for immediate feedback about the quality of agreements that students have reached.

When students' expectations or naïve theories, are proven wrong, they have a true reason to learn. If the teacher provides an explanation, students are likely to be willing to work to understand. Also, according to Max Bazerman "the most important thing

simulations do is unfreeze people from past practice", especially if the results of a simulation are bad. Similarly, in his teaching Robert Mnookin tries to "provide students with an intellectual framework for understanding negotiations and prescriptive advice on how to most effectively negotiate. Through simulations, students actually experience the negotiation process and as a teacher, I can use these students' own experience in the simulation to both develop conceptual frameworks and get them thinking hard about what does work, what doesn't work and why?"¹³¹ For these reasons, providing students with negotiation simulations appears justifiably widespread in negotiation classrooms.

Simulations have several limitations. First, before the negotiation begins, students have to read a great deal of material quickly so that everyone is working with the same set of facts. Improvisation is not allowed. Some teachers express the concern that simulations often trivialize the complexity of the issues and "mask important questions of identity, relationship, and even ethics."¹³² The need to highlight certain issues, and to keep the exercise from becoming all-consuming, important aspects of the negotiation preparation, discovery, weighing out interests, or pursuing non-agreement alternatives are squeezed out. "In order to get people to a point where they can actually come to 'agreements' we often push them well down the negotiation road, saddling them with assumptions that are not their own and may be of dubious plausibility."¹³³

Apart from the deadline pressure which is sometimes unrealistic, students may also feel unrealistic pressures to reach agreement. In addition, because simulations tell people what to look for, they are never, by themselves, a sufficient reflection of reality.

¹³¹ Cited in *ibid.*, 299

¹³² Wheeler cited in *ibid.*, 301

¹³³ *ibid.*,

Finally, it has been observed that students show little ability to transfer knowledge gained from one negotiation to another. In order to avoid this, teachers have to encourage students to compare examples and thus promote learning the underlying principles in those examples sufficiently well to use those principles in new contexts.¹³⁴ In addition, what in my experience seems to be very effective in linking classroom learning and external application is giving students the task to negotiate something for real, like buying a used car, settling a dispute with the landlord or a sibling, and write a paper analyzing this negotiation addressing preparation, power, outcomes, strategies used, etc. If this task is done early in the course, negotiations analyzed by students can be used throughout the course to highlight important concepts or ideas.

In the future, I plan to use some variations, such as a combination of student observation and simultaneous negotiation. For one simulation, I may assign all pairs except one to negotiate outside the class. The remaining pair negotiates the same problem in front of the class. After that, the whole class is engaged in discussing their performance. As it is impossible for a single teacher to observe and give feedback to twelve pairs negotiating at the same time, I am considering another variation. I could divide the class into pairs, with each pair playing one party in the simulation. After the simulation, they evaluate their performance first in pairs, and then together with the pair they negotiated with. Finally, a class discussion would follow with all participants and the teacher about the results obtained and processes used. This would reduce the number of simultaneous simulations to six, and improve the feedback because while one member

¹³⁴ Research by Loewenstein and Thompson has found that even brief examples are sufficient to enable students to grasp complex negotiation principles and enable them to solve analogous negotiation problems in new contexts.

of the pair negotiates the other observes and gives him feedback. Before the negotiation the pairs would be encouraged to prepare their strategy together, which may stimulate them to think better about the means they want to employ to meet their goals. Because students are not used to observation and giving feedback, they should be given guidelines and handouts to make it easier to observe and give feedback. Although I envision some problems here, I think it's worth trying because it would be easier to manage the class. In addition, students can benefit from the feedback, and they will enjoy working together.

In summary, simulations produce the best results when combined with other techniques, such as lecture, readings, and games during the course. No matter what the mix of simulations and teaching techniques in class, reflection outside of class on the experience, and making comparisons are crucial to teaching negotiation.

It should be noted that simulations work best when they are a part of an overall teaching strategy, grounded in experiential learning, not simply as isolated exercises to supplement traditional curricula. Susskind and Corburn offer four basic suggestions for using simulations to teach negotiation: start simple, rely on layering, encourage constant reflection, and use mixed media. Following this advice, I started with simple, two-party, one issue simulations such as *Appleton and Baker*¹³⁵ to introduce key negotiation concepts to students, and to unfreeze their old 'theories-of-use'. Although these simulations do not relate to students' real-life situations they worked very well.

Correspondingly, Susskind claims that "the more abstract or generalizeable the initial

¹³⁵ *Appleton and Baker* is a two-party simulation with an aim to negotiate the purchase and sale of an unimproved adjacent lot developed by The Program on Negotiation, Harvard University. It requires very little preparation time and only 20-30 minutes of class time to negotiate. The distinction between distributive and integrative bargains can be developed, with an analysis of how the parties may enhance the agreement by adding additional issues.

lessons, the better."¹³⁶ I continued with two other simple simulations, *Sally Soprano*¹³⁷ and *George and Martha*,¹³⁸ which highlight fundamental negotiation themes such as distinguishing interests from positions, creating value and distributing value in a way that doesn't undermine relationships. The purpose was to encourage students to re-think the way they view conflict situations, examine the strategies they use to resolve these conflicts, and provide a framework for integrating additional negotiation skills later on. In addition, Susskind and Corburn suggest that getting the 'ah-ha' is often a crucial step before more complex simulation will work.

I have also accepted the second suggestion to add on complexity one step at the time. For example, my students moved from single-issue to multiple-issue negotiation. Also, the subject matter involved became more and more complicated with each new simulation. Finally, with each simulation, more and different aspects of the negotiation process were discussed and taught. Taking part in simulations was a new experience for my students, and I had to motivate them to participate and to build up their confidence throughout the course. Moving from simple to more complex exercises was a way to do it.

Moreover, to provide students with material for analytical thinking, I believe, each simulation should build on the themes of previous simulations. It should be borne in

¹³⁶ Susskind and Corburn, 304

¹³⁷ This simulation by The Program on Negotiation, involves a negotiation between an opera singer and an opera company over salary. It provides a good chance to use integrative bargaining to create inventive win-win outcomes. This simulation illustrates how each side can soon realize that the weakness of its own situation is complementary to the needs of the other. Listening, learning about the other party's concerns and desires, and using external standards of pay to each party's advantage is crucial to a good outcome.

¹³⁸ *George and Martha* is a one-on-one simulation designed to illustrate integrative bargaining and creating joint gain. George and Martha are about to be divorced, and have reached agreement on all issues but one: child support. The husband and wife are in different tax brackets, and value child support and alimony differently. It is also written by The Program on Negotiation, and like *Appleton and Baker* has the advantage of requiring very little preparation and playing time. Since it is a scorable game it allows parties a chance to see how successful they have been at negotiating joint gains.

mind, however, that each simulation has to be different because it is important to be good in different negotiations, between different people and in different situations. "The goal is to break people out of thinking and acting on the basis of being good at one trick."¹³⁹ Susskind and Corburn suggest that as the complexity increases, it is often useful to offer simulations that more closely (contextually) relate to the situations that students face in real life. "¹⁴⁰This will enable students to apply what they have learned in simple simulations to more complex negotiations where they might be 'stuck' in old ways doing things." For these reasons, I finish the course with the simulation *Powerscreen*.¹⁴¹

From time to time I ask my students to keep a journal as a written record of their reflection. I find journals valuable because they allow students to go back periodically throughout and after the course, and review what they have learned.

Whereas the usefulness of simulations for *reflection* is beyond doubt, the degree to which they are useful for the *application* aspect of the learning process remains to be determined. Concerning evaluation of usefulness of simulations as tools for teaching particular negotiation lessons, my experience is very limited and relies primarily on the insights from students final papers, post-course students feedback¹⁴² and word-of-mouth. My major concern is whether and to what extent they are ready to implement the lessons learned during the course to real-life negotiations months after the course is over. In the future, I will have to develop an instrument for a long-term post-course evaluation to find

¹³⁹ Ron S. Fortgang, Guhan Subramanian, and Michael Wheeler, "Analysis of Negotiation Programs at Schools of Business and Management, available from <http://www.pon.harvard.edu>, 2000.

¹⁴⁰ Susskind and Corburn, 305

¹⁴¹ This is a negotiation between lawyers of the two partners of HackerStar, Inc., concerning the ownership of a new computer program one of them has developed. Because of the complex set of facts and issues involved in this case it may be used to illustrate the importance of good preparation and negotiation process to a successful negotiation. Relationship issues may also be explored.

¹⁴² See Appendix 4 for details.

out how much of the new knowledge students actually apply to real-life situations. In addition, in the future I am going to ask students to write down one or two things they have learned and want to remember from the simulations. They will give it to me at the end of the course and six months later I'll mail it to them. I hope this may help skill retention over a longer time.

In conclusion, teaching negotiation by having students participate in simulations builds on the experiential model of learning, e.g. students have the opportunity to build theory from their own experience. Simulations help unfreeze "theories-in-use" and provide valuable space for reflection. "Teaching negotiation through simulation is most likely to be effective when simulations are chosen with specific learning objectives in mind and when simulations are linked to create a continuum of experiences and managed reflection in an experiential learning environment."¹⁴³ "They are a great way to learn about general concepts and principles, moving students to a general level of understanding about negotiations."¹⁴⁴

Games and Exercises

Games in teaching negotiations have the serious function of raising students' awareness about certain research findings related to the topic. If they are well-chosen, they also make the main ideas to be learned more salient in students' minds. These short exercises enable the teacher to demonstrate more efficiently negotiation phenomena taking five minutes instead of ninety. Exercises such as *Oil Pricing Exercise* and *Win-as*

¹⁴³ *ibid.*, 309

¹⁴⁴ Fortgang, Subramanian, Wheeler, 70

much-as-you-can,¹⁴⁵ can be used to demonstrate a point by creating a memorable 'ah-ha' effect.¹⁴⁶ Similarly, instead of explaining how different people perceive the same things in different ways, and how first impressions are often incomplete, a teacher may choose to do a simple exercise showing students an ambiguous drawing¹⁴⁷ and ask them to share what they see. Students in the class are then asked to estimate her age, individually. The results are collected and a short discussion follows. Finally, the experience is analyzed.

When discussing the importance of having the right information during the negotiation and when noting that it isn't always easy to get the information, I do a short 'persuasion exercise' in which I ask my students to determine my age without asking me directly. They have to figure out the way to get that information effectively and tactfully.

One of the first hands-on negotiation exercises I use is the classic known as *Win-as-much-as-you-can*, written by professor Michael Wheeler of the Harvard Business School. This clever exercise can encourage competition at different levels, and helps students redefine the notion of winning from a strictly selfish model to one that fosters cooperation. "The exercise is particularly interesting in its ability to expose base personalities among the students: the amoral economist, the pleaser, the 'sacredly cat', the righteous advocate, etc."¹⁴⁸ I still remember how I kept the memories of my peers from this exercise, when it was introduced to me during my training. I later avoided a

¹⁴⁵ I was introduced to these games during my training at Harvard University, the course on Teaching Negotiation in Corporation, organized by Program on Negotiation in fall 2001. *Oil Pricing Exercise* and *Win-as much-as-you-can* are similar games used to illustrate the dynamics of negotiation. They are two-team, multiple round, pricing games. The parties have little information about one another and a high degree of interdependence with them. They are both "prisoner's dilemma" games which provide the bases for a discussion of distributive bargaining and ethical issues.

¹⁴⁶ This is the critical moment when a student experiences a key lesson in the exercise.

¹⁴⁷ See Appendix 1.

¹⁴⁸ Abram W. Kaplan, "Integrating the Undergraduate Experience: A Course on Environmental Dispute Resolution," in Wheeler, 245

peer whom I perceived as deceitful in this game, although his behavior has improved. I have observed the same thing happening with my students. This proves how powerful the exercise is.

Another game I use is the *Dollar Game*¹⁴⁹ in which the students are told that the teacher is going to give one person in the pair a ten-dollar bill. This student has to share it with his pair. The amount they have to give the other student is not fixed, but if the other student refuses the offer, the student has to give the ten dollars back to the teacher. I use this exercise to make the topic of fairness in negotiations clear, and to stress the importance of human relationship in the negotiation. It is very effective, powerful and amusing.

As it can be seen from the examples above, games complement other techniques and tools in important ways. They are memorable and make teaching points more salient. Furthermore, by increasing students' participation, games add variety, and make classes more interesting and enjoyable. For these reasons, they should be a part of every negotiation course.

Posters Sessions

Posters as a teaching tool are in this paper understood as a form of teaching and learning in which different students cover different areas of a topic and later share their knowledge, which is presented visually on posters. Thus, this technique emphasizes the completion of a particular task, which has a highly observable outcome.

¹⁴⁹ The got to know the game from Robert Bordone in personal communication.

Negotiation is a huge field and it is very difficult to make the choice about which topics to include in the twenty teaching hours allotted. I am aware that what seems important and relevant to me will not necessarily be so for all my students. For this reason, I have decided to give my students the task to choose an aspect of the negotiation process that particularly interests them, and that they feel is relevant, but that has not been dealt with during the classes, to study books and other sources available in the library or on internet on this topic, and for the end of the course, in the form of a poster, visually present the main ideas they have discovered. I encourage them to design the poster in an interactive way, so that other students are engaged in doing something while looking at the poster. Students evaluate each other on the basis of criteria previously negotiated with the whole class.

This activity usually involves an extensive amount of independent work. In order to choose the topic and make the poster, students have to read a lot. They otherwise do not have much time to read, and this is a perfect way to make them research the literature without feeling they are forced to do that. This technique is very similar to in-class presentations. The purpose is the same but because poster presentation is less formal, more creative, more interesting, and more novel, I prefer it to in-class presentations.

Feedback I got from students after the poster session was very good. They thought the technique was very creative and useful, and that they learned a lot from each other. They realized that they needed to think and incorporate a lot they have learned during the course into their poster. Moreover, students emphasized this as a novel way not only to learn something new, but also to revise what has been learned. Students considered equally important the work on their own poster, and the poster presentation, in which

they enjoyed what others did. The activity gave them the chance not only to present what they have found out about negotiation, but to be creative at the same time. In addition, this task has helped them get to know others in the group better. Other adjectives students used in the feedback were: memorable, instructive, interesting, relaxing atmosphere, excellent, impressive, such learning is fun, etc. Some students felt restricted with having to make only one poster, and suggested making one poster at the beginning of the course and one at the end, hoping to be able to visually measure their development over time.

It has been proven once again that student-generated material is most memorable and powerful, and that teachers need to look for ways that would make use of it. I have found another use of students' posters. The next time I am teaching the course, to a different group of students, I plan to bring individual posters to the class each time I teach, and use them as peripheral source of information. I hope students will learn a lot from them and enjoy the experience as well.

In conclusion, I think this technique has proven to be very successful, and a wonderful way to end the course

Using Video Material

Video in a negotiation classroom offers exciting possibilities for teaching negotiation skills. The combination of sound and vision is dynamic, immediate and accessible. This means that communication can be shown in a context, and that many factors in communication can easily be perceived by students. The actors can be seen and

heard, so that students can observe the body language, use of gestures, facial expressions, their mood and feelings.

I can see three ways video material can be used in a negotiation course. First, popular movies can be used in order to engage students around the theoretical concepts they are hearing about in the lecture sessions. Besides, movie clips provide a model of effective (or ineffective) negotiation behavior and excellent material for discussion and analysis. Movies can also be used as an introduction to a topic.

Watching movies is always welcome by my students, it adds variety, makes classes more enjoyable and makes learning points memorable. By generating interest and motivation, video movies can create a climate of successful learning. It is stimulating and in general captures the interest of students. As with other techniques, teachers should take care not to use video material per se, but integrated with other tools and techniques, as an additional resource.

They should also be aware that students are used to watching movies for relaxation and entertainment. They are pleased that movies have so much to offer and that there's no need to take any special action. Teachers have to clarify to students that in the classroom context, there is a special need for interaction with each movie scene. In order to ensure active viewing, teacher should give students specific tasks before they start watching the scene. This can increase the enjoyment and satisfaction gained from viewing, as well as maintain students' motivation. Furthermore, when working with video materials, the teacher has to watch the material herself, choose appropriate scenes, design tasks for working with these materials, and make sure the equipment is in order.

As an illustration, I use a scene from the film *Return of the Jedi* when we discuss the importance of coalitions, or *War of the Roses* to illustrate the hard bargaining style, as well as the lack of active listening and its consequences. In this way, a five-minute movie clip substitutes for a lecture that would take much longer.¹⁵⁰

Apart from popular movies, there are commercial movies made for the purpose of teaching negotiation rather than for public broadcasts. They have the obvious advantage of being produced for a special purpose and audience. The lesser quality compared to professional movies is their major drawback. Some are professionally produced, while some have informational significance but lower production values. I have used *The HackerStar Negotiation* made by the Harvard Negotiation Project in conjunction with the *PowerScreen* case. It is a realistic example of principled negotiation during a bitter business dispute. It illustrates well the power of preparation and the Seven Elements Framework. The tape can be stopped at any point to discuss appropriate responses, strategic choice points, or tactical alternatives. Using a tape in this manner permits teaching of negotiation as a dynamic process.

By providing self-access to video recordings and the possibility for private study in the library, I hope to encourage students to watch movie clips in their own time, and thus make further use of a stimulating source of material.

There is another challenging use of video. It can be used to record student negotiations, preserve student's performance, and provide opportunities for either classroom viewing or private review and critique. Evaluating the recorded material

¹⁵⁰ This is very important in Croatian context where long lectures are the norm.

should be the integral part of the process. It should be noted that students should have the opportunity to see what has been recorded as soon as it is possible.

Working with a video camera in class offers both students and the teacher many possibilities for creative work, but due to a combination of technical, organizational and psychological problems, the results may be disappointing. The psychological problems on the side of the teacher may come from a lack of experience of working with the equipment, and students are usually shy and embarrassed. Furthermore, lack of confidence on the teacher's part can engender in students a lack of conviction about the value of the video project. Organizational problems, like having to book special equipment and rooms, lack of tapes for recording, and others are real and unfortunate. However, in my experience, successful work with a camera may arouse the enthusiasm of students and the teacher, which may contribute to the solution of institutional problems. Furthermore, once students get used to videotaping, most of them enjoy it. For quite lot of them, it is the first time they can watch and hear themselves. Although it is often a sort of a "shock therapy", in general, they find it useful.

While I agree that this is a highly effective way to help students learn and develop appropriate skills and behavior, as well as to provide students and the teacher with excellent feedback about negotiation performance and competence, I have found that providing direct feedback to individual students is rather difficult and time-consuming. While the opportunity to see and review one's own negotiation actively is crucial to skill development, the time- and labor-intensive nature of this process limits its applications. The time devoted to playing the tapes and discussing it is too short. In addition, the group is so large and the time so short that students get the chance to be

videotaped only once during the course, which means that videotaping does not serve "the purpose of improving performances through repeated training."¹⁵¹

Being aware that a few people have the analytical skills to analyze the recording on their own, in the future, I am going to have students work in support groups of four, out of the class, watch each other's recording of negotiation, and provide oral feedback. A dialogue with another person who listens well and asks good questions can help re-shape the quality of one's thinking and understanding. It should be noted that the feedback has to be sympathetic, meaning that comments should be made in a friendly, constructive manner, and generally restricted to the areas under critical analysis. Finally, students will have to write a reflection paper in which they would have to include comments given to them by other members of the group, as well as their observation, analysis and ways of improvement.

I am aware that my students, not being used to reflective thinking, won't be able to accomplish the task alone, and I am going to provide them with some guidance. They would have to provide answers to the following questions: what went well and why? What did not go well and why? After investigating the reasons for the events, they will be asked to re-frame events in the light of the theoretical frameworks studied and decide what needs to be done next in the relation to the analysis of what has happened.¹⁵²

I hope that focusing on both strengths and weaknesses will not only increase their confidence and effectiveness as negotiators, but also raise their awareness of the strategies they use and mistakes they make when negotiating. It will also further develop

¹⁵¹ Huub Spormans, Job Cohen, and Jos Moust, "The Course on Negotiation at the Faculty of Law, University of Limburg, Maastricht, The Netherlands," *Negotiation Journal*, 7 (1991): 331-337

¹⁵² The sequence adapted from D. Schon.

their understanding of the negotiation process, and give them tools to monitor their negotiation behavior in the future. Finally, I sincerely hope, reflection will help them integrate theory and practice I their everyday lives.

In conclusion, whereas the benefits of video in the negotiation classroom, especially for observation purposes and reflection, are beyond any doubt, teachers have to be careful how they use the media and for what purposes. If the teacher is not clear about the purpose why she has chosen to use video, students are very likely to leave the classroom unsure about what to make of it. Furthermore, the teacher has to find ways to give students enough time to decode the video and make most of it. It should also be noted that while using videotaping of classroom negotiations for later review and critique is a highly effective way to help students learn and develop negotiation skills and behavior, it also adds some fun and excitement to learning.

Preparation Memos

Understanding the value of good preparation for the negotiation, I require preparation memos from my students for at least two simulations. Students have to use the Seven Elements and the Three Tension Frameworks. I review these memos and return them to students with comments. Students are not given grades for this task. My major goal in this activity is to give students the opportunity to learn-by-doing. Usually students are asked to prepare the memos alone, but sometimes I ask them to prepare alone, work in twos outside the class and then in groups, and discuss the memos they have produced.

This shows them they can learn from others in the class, and helps build the community of learners.

Students' Journals

The power of experiential learning and the importance of student reflection have already been discussed. One of the techniques that makes the best use of them is journaling.

I believe that journals are very effective in teaching negotiation skills for several reasons. Certainly, it is important to learn how to solve problems in general, but it is equally important (if not more so) to learn how to solve a particular problem by applying the concepts learned. A journal is a student's written response to negotiation experiences. Students are asked to write as regularly as possible over a period of time, and to analyze these entries. A journal can also function as a place to "criticize, doubt, express frustration, and raise questions."¹⁵³ Keeping a journal serves two purposes: (1) events and ideas are recorded for the purpose of later reflection, and (2) the process of writing itself helps trigger insights about negotiating. Writing in this sense serves as a discovery process. Many different topics from negotiations can be explored through journal writing, for example: personal reactions to things that happened in the negotiation, questions or observations about problems that occurred during the negotiation, descriptions of significant aspects of negotiation events, ideas for further analysis.

¹⁵³ Kathleen M. Bailey, "The Use of Diary Studies in Teacher Education Programs," In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan, eds., *Second Language Teacher Education* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990), 43-61

Journals encourage students to collect and analyze data, pose and solve problems, and think about the matters concerned with their course of study. Furthermore, journals help bridge the gap between what the students read or discuss in the class and how they actually think and react in their out-of-class experience, i.e. connect theory and practice. Finally, they are an excellent way to practice analytical thinking, which through recognition of similarities between problems, ensures the transfer of knowledge to real-life situations.

During the course, I require from my students to journal daily about negotiation situations they are involved in, or that they have witnessed in some way, in the class or outside it, and to write six papers based on their journal entries. In my experience, students need to be made aware that the journal should be made up of reflections on their experience, not only catalogues of events.

Students write to complete different tasks, but the emphasis is always on reflection. Sometimes they are asked to reflect on some negotiation problems mentioned in the class. In general, I do not suggest a topic or ask a question, because I want students to write about the aspect of the class that they feel is the most powerful and significant. I have noticed, though, that some students prefer guidance.

From time to time, I ask them to reflect on parts of the readings they did, or on the experience they shared during the last simulation. In at least two of the journals, they are asked to analyze a real-life negotiation situation using the framework that they have been exposed to in the class.

In general, students' journals consist of a short vignette, a description of the negotiation situation, which they have either personally experienced, witnessed, or seen

in popular films or read about, a student's reflection and analysis, and the conclusion in the form of lessons learned from it. As it can be seen, students start with the description, but are asked to shift to prescription, pulling out lessons from cases, finding similarities between different situations, and making generalizations. The emphasis is on being involved in an experience, analyzing it, using theories to explain the experience, and finding out what went wrong and explaining why by using the concepts discussed in the class. The key is to get students to reduce the description to the bare essentials that readers need to understand the analysis.¹⁵⁴ The weight is on making issues problematic, e.g. turning them around so that they become problems or puzzles to be solved by students using their own ingenuity, background knowledge, experience and what they have learned during the course.

Gebhard¹⁵⁵ proposes two directions for writing journals: intrapersonal and dialogical. In intrapersonal journals students are both writers and the audience of their own journals. I encourage this type of writing because writing freely about whatever comes into their minds is a form of exploration that can generate lots of ideas and awareness about themselves as negotiators. If students worry about what the audience will say, they censor their writing and are cautious about what to include in it. As a result, some ideas and awareness are lost.

On the other hand, I realize that because journals are kept private, many wonderful ideas and powerful insights do not get shared among students. The alternative is a dialogue journal. Its purpose is not introspection, but gaining awareness through

¹⁵⁴ Otherwise, students tend to write pages of description, and only a couple of lines of analysis.

¹⁵⁵ Jerry G. Gebhard, "Reflecting through a Teaching Journal," In Jerry G. Gebhard and Robert Oprandy, *Language Teaching Awareness: A Guide to exploring beliefs and Practices* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1999), 78-98

interaction with other. The objective is to connect with other students in the class and the teacher, to establish rapport through which they can ask each other questions, respond to them, and react to comments. Being aware of many advantages of the dialogue journal, and at the same time understanding students' needs for privacy, I have combined the two ways. Students keep the intrapersonal journal and revise the entries to create a public version,¹⁵⁶ which is submitted to the teacher, and shared with other students. I believe that students are equally capable of providing meaningful interaction through their responses, and for this reason I put students in journal groups (J-groups) and encourage them to read each other's journals and write comments on them. This also gives them the opportunity to synthesize their experience. This process can provide many benefits to students, and as Brock, Yu and Wong state, "Through diary writing and sharing experience, we gained new suggestions and idea from one another and discovered new options for approaching particular (teaching) tasks" (parenthesis added).¹⁵⁷ They also point out that "the sharing of feelings and opinions through responding to one another and discussing experiences provided encouragement and support."

When I read my students' journals, based on the experience gathered at SIT, as well as on the investigation of Brinton, Holten and Goodwin,¹⁵⁸ and my own exploration, I respond in the following ways.

¹⁵⁶ The idea is adapted from Bailey, 1990.

¹⁵⁷ M.N. Brock, B. Yu and M. Wong, "Journaling Together: Collaborative diary-keeping and Teacher Development. In J. Flowerdew, M.N. Brock and S. Hsia, eds., *Perspectives and Second Language Teacher Education* (Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong, 1992), 295-307

¹⁵⁸ D.M. Brinton, C.A. Holton and J.M. Goodwin, "Responding to Dialogue Journals in Teacher Preparation: What's Effective?": *TESOL Journal* 2 (1993), 15-19

I very often give students personalizing comments because when reading the entries, I often have a feeling I am reading a personal letter. In addition, providing a personal tone contributes to establishing a rapport and helps to build confidence.

Sometimes I give procedural comments, especially when I feel the student needs to be reminded of established rules and procedures. This is also a way for me to communicate my expectations about the tasks.

Next, I give direct responses to questions. My students seem to appreciate it when I provide the immediate answers to their concerns. I understand that, but I also believe that they can benefit from searching for answers to their own questions. When I feel the students are able to explore and find the answers themselves, I show understanding for their concerns and offer exploratory suggestions without telling them how to solve the problem. Although my students are not used to this, I believe it is a very useful practice because it raises their awareness and puts them in control of their own learning. I like to remind my students of what Fanselow points out that being given information perpetually could imply that the person is incapable of discovering that information by himself.¹⁵⁹

From time to time, I give unsolicited comments that draw students' attention to a significant aspect of negotiation that wasn't directly referred to in the writing. In order to help students discover patterns and similarities, I sometimes give synthesis comments, which provide a link between previous and present comments. They also aim at providing an opportunity to pull together pieces of knowledge to form new concepts.

As journals give a rich insight into student's effort, depth, and quality of thinking, I have used the papers that students write based on their journal entries as an assessment

¹⁵⁹ Cited in Gebhard.

tool. My experience is that it is not especially difficult to sort journal into categories for grading. Deciding on the grades to assign to these categories has been far more difficult. Another point important to mention concerning grading is that students need to know that the grade is based on the quality of the analysis, not the effectiveness of the behavior or outcomes presented.

In the future, I plan to change is the task for the last paper that students have to submit. It would be a kind of 'self-assessment' paper in which they would have to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses as negotiators, the most important learning points for them, association between class materials and their experience outside the class, and ways for improvement. This task would serve another purpose, namely, raising students' awareness. As it has already been discussed in this paper, the reason for this is that there is no learning without awareness of both strengths and weaknesses and it is especially the novice negotiators who are blind to their own behavior and the consequences it has in the process of negotiation.

To sum up, journals are very good for the reflection, application and evaluation aspects of learning process. Although, it is less important what the students find during this reflective practice, but more important that they engage in it, if students have not had any experience with journaling, they will need help and guidance. Providing samples of exemplary journals could be illuminating and stimulating to students. Other possible disadvantages of journal requirements include the time spent on writing, as well as the fact that this technique emphasizes writing and analysis over results in actual negotiation.¹⁶⁰ The main advantage is that they give an opportunity for a perfect bland of

¹⁶⁰ But any kind of paper requirement would share the same disadvantages.

'received' and 'experiential' knowledge, and thus lead to development of professional competence.

To conclude the discussion of techniques for teaching negotiation, I would like to point out once again that each technique has advantages and disadvantages and a skillful teacher will find ways to exploit the advantages and minimize the disadvantages. There are certainly other techniques and tools that can be used to make negotiation classes more effective, some of which I plan to use in the future, such as inviting outside speakers, experts and practitioners¹⁶¹ to link the material to the applied world, and using electronic bulletin boards for the exchange of students' ideas, using each other as a resource, and making associations between course material and their personal experience.

¹⁶¹ My only concern is that they are very good at what they do, but bad at describing it. Also, some are reluctant to disclose what and how they are doing it.

CHAPTER 4

CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE

This negotiation course was successful for several reasons. The first reason was certainly the shift of focus from the abstract (discussions about theory and readings) to more concrete and real activities. Students became heavily involved in exercises and simulations, and remembered them long after the course is over. Second, the course met the needs for students to learn both theory and skills. Finally, students saw the course as being directly helpful and relevant to their career. All this creates a strong reputation for the course, still challenges remain.

First, computers are an area needing more attention in the course. The development of new media has begun to change the way we teach. As a result, the use of sophisticated technology, such as computer programs for teaching negotiations could be more excessive. Saunders and Lewicky¹⁶² suggest three potential uses of computer simulations: (1) for acquiring new knowledge; (2) for reinforcing and practicing the

¹⁶² David M. Saunders, Roy J. Lewicky, "Teaching negotiation with Computer Simulations: Pedagogical and Practical Considerations" In Michael Wheeler, ed., *Teaching Negotiation: Ideas and Innovations* (Cambridge: PON Books, 2000), 357

acquisition of knowledge previously acquired; and (3) evaluating and testing the acquisition of that knowledge. The authors are not clear about which lessons may be best acquired through a computer simulation, and add that they suspect "that many lessons can be acquired more efficiently through more traditional pedagogic methods, such as books and lectures. Perhaps the best use of computer simulations is to emphasize those lessons that occur as the negotiation process evolves."¹⁶³

Further, Lewicky¹⁶⁴ proposes there are two major ways in which computers can be used to facilitate learning about negotiation: unilateral and bilateral application. "Unilateral applications pace negotiators through a sequenced strategic planning process that helps negotiators prepare for an upcoming deliberation (e.g. *Negotiator Pro* 1993). These applications present a series of screens that require participants to define the issues, develop priorities among them, set targets and resistance points, identify interests, invent options, profile opponents, and anticipate their positions and interests."¹⁶⁵ When used bilaterally, computers serve as both simulation tool and database. Additionally, computers can be used together with the video to provide a major interactive negotiation training device. The negotiation simulator creates a realistic opponent whose complex, preprogrammed responses effectively duplicate the behavior of a real opponent in a multi issue negotiation. This tool not only teaches strategic interaction, but can record and measure which skills were acquired and developed through the simulation, and how durable and applicable these skills are. In addition, the simulator can be used to sharpen the pedagogical focus on effective and ineffective strategic response alternatives.

¹⁶³ *ibid.*, 358

¹⁶⁴ Roy J. Lewicky, "Teaching Negotiation and Dispute Resolution in colleges of Business: The State of the Practice and Challenges for the Future," in Wheeler 173

¹⁶⁵ *ibid.*

Computer simulations have a significant advantage in that they add a measure of control that other tools cannot achieve. For example, in traditional simulations, poor preparation often goes unnoticed. With computer simulation, however, the lesson about the importance of preparation can be made very clearly. Furthermore, traditional simulations provide a learning experience that is yoked to the other party participating in the exercise. Computer simulations provide a programmed response to the participants' strategic choices and thus overcome this weakness.

Besides, I find it very useful that computer simulations can be used in measuring the extent to which participants integrate new negotiation skills into their behavioral repertoire and use these skills during negotiations.

In summary, complex simulations and interactive scenarios are available on the new media and create significant new opportunities for teachers. They can be very powerful tools for reinforcing negotiation lessons, but they are restricted in modeling the complexity of real-life negotiations. Thus, computer simulations, as any other pedagogical tool, have to be integrated into the broader pedagogical foundation of the course.

Next, I have to say that the course I taught was largely western (American) and male style. Although I have made some modest attempts to integrate the elements of both gender and cultural differences towards the end of the course, a serious endeavor needs to be made to compare cultural differences in negotiation style and approach, and to help students understand how to interpret the impact of culture on negotiation process and the outcomes. Further, as theory work has argued for gender difference, and as students themselves have expressed interest in this matter, these need to be included in the course

as well. I am not saying that there exists a need to significantly reconstruct the core principles of the course, but that this issue needs to be dealt with explicitly in some way during the course.

Another instructional challenge is raising issues of ethics and values in the teaching of negotiation. Most of my students entered the course believing that they needed negotiation skills for career success, to help them win, i.e. be more successful competitors. In simulations, they experienced the long-term consequences of short-term distributive behavior. They learn how to be both competitive and collaborative, both strategic and tactical, and to understand the virtues of both the distributive and the integrative approaches to conflict resolution. I have to say that it wasn't easy to address the ethical and value issues in the world that still rewards people for getting everything they can and by any means. At the same time, I admit that avoiding the topic would not have been the right choice, either.

Next, negotiation is a very complex process and it includes more than one skill. Whereas I can identify some of the skills that an effective negotiator¹⁶⁶ needs, my list is far from being complete. Research is still to be done into what skills are required to be effective in negotiation. The negotiation course can specifically address these particular skills only if it is based on such research.

There is also the need to improve our ability to measure skill acquisition. Whereas students journals and their final papers can measure improvement, I do not consider them accurate measures of skill acquisition.

¹⁶⁶ Skills such as determining one's interests, values and preferences, framing the issue, reframing the issue if that would lead to better outcomes, listen actively, ask questions, trade-off issues and concessions, etc.

In addition, I am still looking for more effective techniques to teach negotiation that would be less time and resource intensive. The computer/simulation technology could be a huge contribution.

Additionally, I need to find out whether the model I have used, i.e. theory, plus simulations, plus real-life application, plus reflection actually produces changed behavior. Evaluation research is needed to discover if and to what extent the students are able to translate their knowledge to new situations after the course. I would really like to follow-up with students to determine whether they are more capable of effective negotiation as a result of taking the course. Following from such research, we might witness a change in how meaningful negotiation course is created, as well as in what we as teachers consider most important.

Finally, the teachers engaged in negotiation courses need to initiate and keep a dialogue about teaching, their experience and concerns. To my knowledge, there has been no attempt in the recent past to structure such a dialogue in the region. While agreeing that teaching is in many ways a lonely profession, I strongly believe that this professional isolation is ultimately a barrier to professional development. As Some remarked "Without community you cannot be yourself. The community is where we draw the strength needed to effect changes inside of us."¹⁶⁷ Teachers can profit tremendously from polling and tracking what is taught and how, from discussions of what should be taught in a negotiation course, as well as from making use of other ideas, insights, and findings of colleagues. Being aware of other colleagues' ideas can give us a fresh view on problems and ideas for our own research, to say nothing about saving the time when solutions are

¹⁶⁷ Malidoma Patrice Some, *Ritual: Power, Healing and Community*, (Portland, Oregon: Swan/Raven and Company, 1993), 67

presented to us ready-made. Similarly, sharing our own ideas with others can be beneficial in many obvious ways. "Sometimes the mere necessity of having to articulate our ideas to an audience can help us to develop them in ways that might not otherwise have happened."¹⁶⁸ The feedback from colleagues can be motivating and rewarding, as well as providing the basis for further reflection. These points may seem so self-evident that they hardly need stating, but the fact remains that, at least in Croatia, the level of sharing ideas among people who teach negotiation courses is far lower than it should and could be. There may be a number of reasons, such as pressure of work, present popularity of courses, lack of motivation or reward for professional development, natural differences, professional insecurity, lack of physical contact, and so on. Whatever their origin, their continued existence should be a source of regret.

In summary, without a social forum, our development as teachers is inhibited because our ideas become more real and clearer when we can speak about them with others.

"Because of the deeply ingrained nature of our behavioral patterns, it is sometimes difficult to develop a critical perspective on our own behavior. For that reason alone, analysis occurring in a collaborative and cooperative environment is likely to lead to greater learning. (Osterman&Kottkamp, 1993, p.25)"¹⁶⁹

¹⁶⁸ Michael J. Wallace, *Action Research for Language Teachers* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001), 208

¹⁶⁹ Quoted in Zeichner and Liston, 18.

CONCLUSION

When we teach students to negotiate, we need to know not only about negotiation, but also about learning and teaching. Otherwise, given the challenge of learning, students may leave our hard-won wisdom about negotiation behind in the classroom. Furthermore, negotiation is more than a set of skills and a body of substantive knowledge. It is also a basic form of human interaction that offers an opportunity for students and teachers to gain greater self-understanding as well as greater appreciation of others.

APPENDIX 1: Ambiguous Drawing



APPENDIX 2: Course Outline

Week	General Topic	Readings	Simulation & exercises
1.	Introduction to the Course The Nature of Negotiation		Mini simualtions <i>Win-as-much-as-you-can</i>
2.	Perspectives on Conflict Negotiation Styles Negotiation Power	Tudor, p.13-17, Lewicky, p.12-21 Shell,	Questionnaire, adapted Thomas Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument
3.	Positional Bargaining Powerful Negotiator	Lewicky, Ch 3 Tudor, p.21-32	<i>Three-party-coalition exercise</i>
4.	Principled Negotiation Introduction	Fisher, p.3-14 Tudor, p.36-41, 65-67	Simulation: <i>Apleton&Baker</i>
5.	The Seven Elements Framework: Interests, Options, Alternatives	Fisher, p. 40-79 Tudor, p. 53-63	
6.	The Seven Elements Framework: Criteria, Relationships	Fisher, p. 81-92, 18-37	Simulation: <i>Sally Soprano</i>
7.	Value Creating and Claming	Lex and Sebenius, p. 29-46	Simulation: <i>George & Martha</i>
8.	Barriers to Agreement		Simulation: <i>PowerScreen</i>
9.	Planning and Preparation	Lewicky, 40-53	HackerStar video
10.	Poster Presentations		

Readings - The Titles

Fisher, Ury, Paton: Getting to Yes

Lax and Sebenius: The Manager as Negotiator

Lewicky, Saunders, Minton: Essentials of Negotiation

Tudor: Kompletan Pregovarač

APPENDIX 3: Key Aspects of the Course Compared (Source: Williams and Geis, 2000)

	Fisher&Siegal 1987	Mnookin 1996	Williams 1996	Riskin 1996	Sedlan-Konig 2002
Type of Course	Negotiation Skills Course	Negotiation Workshop	Negotiation Skills Course	Negotiation Theory & Skills Course	Negotiation Theory and Skills Course
When	appears 2L/3L	Law and other graduate students	2L/3L	2L/3L	Graduate Students of Economics
Teaching Methods	Simulations video taped	Simulations, demonstrations, communication exercises, videos	Lectures, demonstrations, videos, fishbowl & out-of-class simulations (duplic. tournament), group debriefings of simulations	Demonstrations, simulations, videotape students, guest lecturers	Mini-lectures and discussions, simulations, exercises, video
Class Size		144 students taught in groups of 24	unlimited (60+)	20 (approx.)	24
Course Elements and Objectives		By combining theory and practice, helps students improve understanding of negotiation and effectiveness as negotiators	Empirical data on cooperative and aggressive patterns; distributional and integrative; students encouraged to be proficient in and know how to deal with both negotiation styles; objectives range from settlement to healing from effects of conflict	Adversarial & problem-solving (identifying interests) negotiation with overriding emphasis on Lax & Sebenius' tension between value creating and value claiming	Improve students' understanding of the negotiation process, distributional, integrative, problem-solving models, creating and claiming value, effective negotiation practices
Grading Criteria	"Process Grading ": professor rates student performance using "Process Grading Scale " while viewing video	Pass/fail or letter grade based 2/3 on class participation on one-third on final paper	Journal 45% Simulation results 10% Midterm 25% Final 20%	Journal 35% Negotiation case study or paper 65%	Class attendance and participation 20%, Journals 60%, Poster presentation 40%
	"Process Grading " as described above	Outcomes not ranked	Based on deviation from mean settlement amount, students scored for each problem	Ranking of adversarial simulations only	not graded

Aids to Self-Understanding		Interpersonal Skills exercise with psychological consultants; Thomas Kilman conflict mode survey; videotaped sessions	Emphasis on Jungian psychology; psychologist explains results of Myers-Brigs Type Indicator	Lecturer discusses stress management; psychologist discusses Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)	Thomas Kilman Conflict Mode Survey (adapted)
Course Reading Materials		Mnookin, Peppet & Tulumello (unpublished); Fisher, Ury and Patton (1991) and other workshop readings	Binder, Bergman & Price (1991); Hall & Nordby (1973); Fisher, Ury & Patton (1991); Lax & Sebenius (1986); Williams (1983); Williams (1992); (1996)	Fisher, Ury & Patton (1991); Ury (1991); Riskin & Westbrook (1987); and other photocopied material. Optional Freund (1992)	Fisher, Tudor, Lewicky, Lax and Sebenius
Written Reflection		daily journal and final 7-10 page paper	Journal on readings and simulations; submitted during semester & bond for final grade	"Working File" (journal)-submitted during semester, bound & resubmitted at end of semester	Journals submitted during the course, final paper

APPENDIX 4: Student Feedback on Simulations: The Analysis

TABLE 1: How enjoyable are the simulations?

Simulation	Rating values					\bar{X}	S
	1	2	3	4	5		
Mini simulations	-	5	4	6	9	3.79	1.17
Appleton&Baker	-	1	6	9	8	4.00	0.88
Sally Soprano	-	1	7	9	6	3.87	0.89
George&Martha	1	3	3	11	6	3.75	1.11
PowerScreen	-	3	6	7	8	3.83	1.05

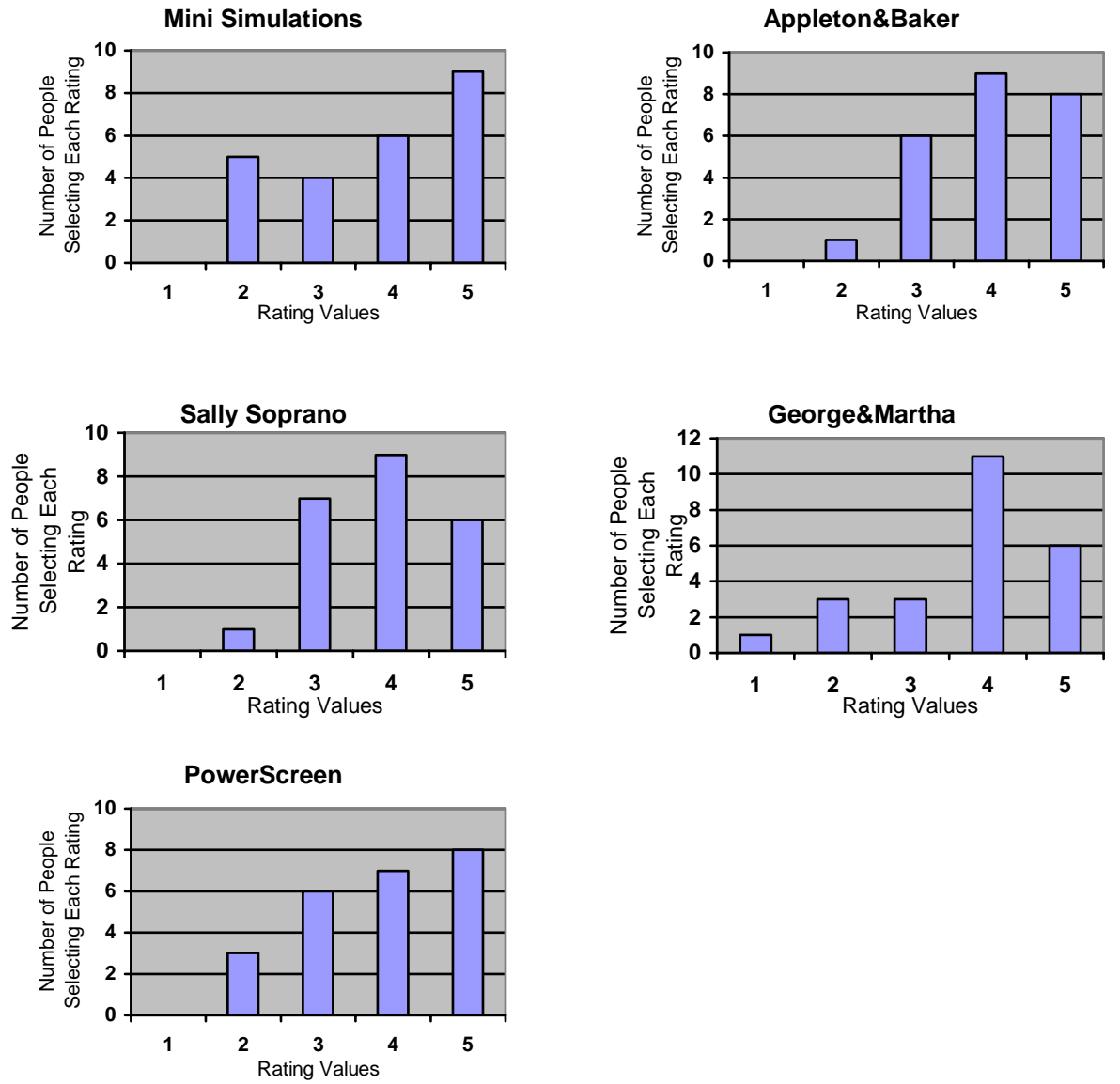
TABLE 2: How useful are the simulations?

Simulation	Rating values					\bar{X}	S
	1	2	3	4	5		
Mini simulations	1	3	10	8	2	3.29	0.95
Appleton&Baker	-	-	4	10	10	4.25	0.73
Sally Soprano	-	1	2	8	12	4.34	0.83
George&Martha	-	1	4	8	11	4.21	0.88
PowerScreen	-	-	-	2	22	4.92	0.28

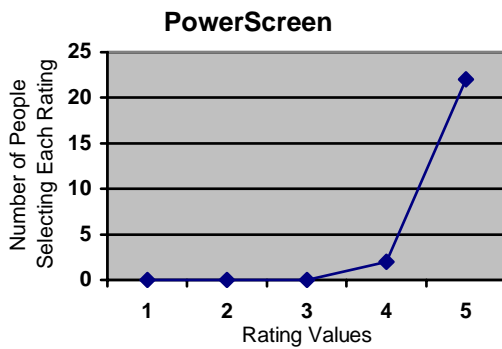
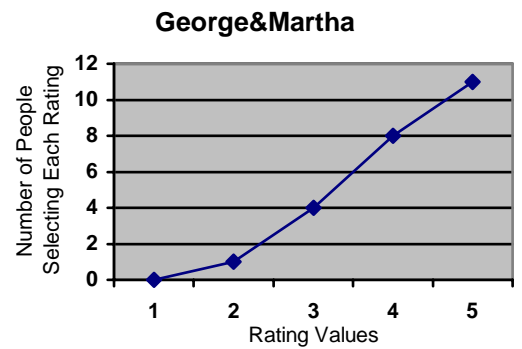
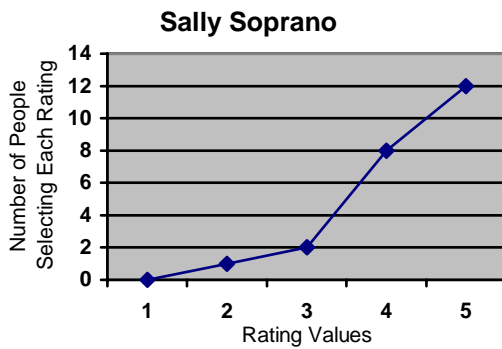
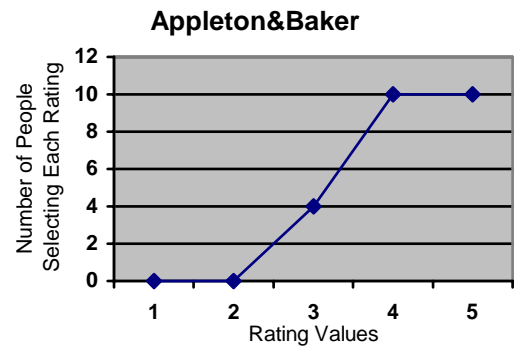
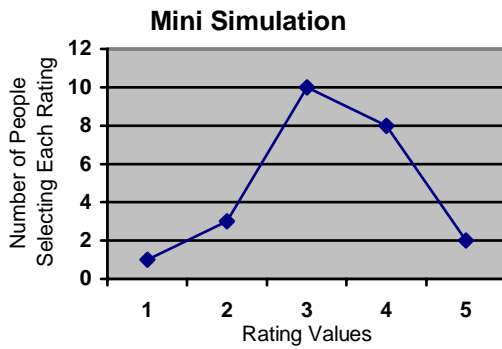
TABLE 3: Ranking

Simulation	Z	Rank
Mini simulations	3.54	5
Appleton&Baker	4.13	2
Sally Soprano	4.11	3
George&Martha	3.98	4
PowerScreen	4.37	1

Frequency Poligons for Question 1: Fun in Simulations



Histograms for Question 2: Usefulness of Simulations



Interpretation and Conclusion

At the end of the course the students were asked to give a formal, written feedback on five simulations they took part in, during the course. They were asked to rate the

simulations with values 1 to 5 on two criteria, on how useful and on how enjoyable they were. Tables 1 and 2 give the rating values for each criterion separately. The name of each simulation is in the left-hand column, and the central part of the table shows how frequently each rating level was selected by the respondents. The same information is presented visually in a slightly different format in five frequency polygons and five histograms, respectively. Both tables also give the mean values and the standard deviations. We can see that in both tables, standard deviations show little difference from the mean in the given data set. In Table 3, I calculated the mean of the rating values in both tables, which enabled me to rank the simulations according to both criteria.

We can see that, *PowerScreen* is ranked the most useful and the most enjoyable simulation, followed by *Appleton and Baker*, although the disparities in the range between the simulations are little. Not surprisingly, *Mini Simulations* are considered the least useful and enjoyable. In summary, students' feedback shows that the simulations used in the course are considered by my students equally useful and enjoyable.

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