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**Integrace evropských a globálních témat do
gymnaziální výuky anglického jazyka**

**Integration of European and Global Issues into
Upper-Secondary English Classes**

Disertační práce

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Jana Němečková

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Abstract

The thesis deals with the integration of a selected cross-curricular subject of the national curriculum for upper-secondary schools (Framework Educational Programme for Upper-Secondary Schools, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia), namely Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts, into English classes. The thesis contains an overview of academic literature and research studies dealing with the integration of global education and language and culture education. It presents the global simulation method as an innovative method of foreign language teaching in the context of contemporary language teaching approaches and psychological theories. The paper includes an original teaching model of an integrated subject called “Model United Nations”, namely its syllabus, guide for teachers, and worksheets. This model was tested both with regard to its suitability for the integration of the listed educational areas, as well as to its impact on the development of the students’ self-perceived communication competence in the English language. The action research took place in three stages with a total of 307 research subjects. The core of the research was the testing of the teaching model with six research groups of upper-secondary school students at three upper-secondary schools in Prague. The data was collected by means of standardised (Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale) and non-standardised questionnaires (expectation and motivation questionnaire and feedback questionnaire). The main research stage was preceded by a pilot study at the PRAMUN conference and complemented by semi-structured interviews with teachers of English as a Foreign Language who have experience with the MUN (Model United Nations) global simulation. While the impact of the simulation on the development of global competences has not been confirmed by the selected research instruments, research results suggest that the participation in the “Model United Nations” subject develops self-perceived communication competence, especially in formal communication contexts.

Key words: global simulation method, innovative methods of foreign language teaching, curriculum, action research, upper-secondary school (ISCED 3), global education, Model United Nations

Abstrakt

Práce se zabývá problematikou integrace vybraného průřezového tématu z Rámcového vzdělávacího programu pro gymnázia, konkrétně Výchovy k myšlení v evropských a globálních souvislostech, do hodin anglického jazyka. Práce obsahuje přehled odborné literatury a výzkumných studií týkajících se integrace globální výchovy a jazykového a kulturního vzdělávání a věnuje se globální simulaci jakožto inovativní metodě výuky cizího jazyka v kontextu soudobých lingvodidaktických a psychologických teorií. V rámci výzkumné části byl navržen model integrovaného předmětu „Model United Nations“, konkrétně jeho sylabus, metodický manuál pro učitele a doprovodné materiály, a tento model byl následně ověřen, jak z hlediska jeho vhodnosti pro integraci uvedených vzdělávacích oborů, tak z hlediska vlivu účasti studentů v předmětu na rozvoj jejich subjektivně vnímané komunikační kompetence v anglickém jazyce. Jako výzkumný design byl zvolen akční výzkum, kterého se ve třech stádiích zúčastnilo celkem 307 respondentů. Jádrem výzkumu bylo ověřování modelu v rámci práce se šesti pokusnými skupinami středoškolských studentů na třech pražských gymnáziích. Sběr dat probíhal zejména formou standardizovaných (Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale) a nestandardizovaných dotazníků (dotazník očekávání a motivace a dotazník zpětné vazby). Hlavnímu šetření předcházela pilotní studie na konferenci PRAMUN, doplněno bylo polostrukturovanými rozhovory s učiteli anglického jazyka, kteří mají zkušenosti s globální simulací typu MUN (Model OSN). Zatímco vliv simulace na rozvoj kompetencí v oblasti globální výchovy se za použití zvolených výzkumných nástrojů potvrdit nepodařilo, z výsledků výzkumu vyplývá, že účast na předmětu „Model United Nations“ přispívá k rozvoji subjektivně vnímané komunikativní kompetence v anglickém jazyce, zejména v oblastech souvisejících s formálními komunikačními kontexty.

Klíčová slova: akční výzkum, globální výchova, gymnázium, inovativní metody výuky cizích jazyků, kurikulum, střední škola (ISCED 3), metoda globální simulace, Model United Nations

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List of Abbreviations

- CC – Communicative Competence
CCS – Cross-Curricular Subject
CEF / CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT – Communicative Language Teaching
CoE – Council of Europe
EAP – English for Academic Purposes
EFL – English as a Foreign Language
ELP – European Language Portfolio
ELT – English Language Teaching
ESL – English as a Second Language
ESP – English for Specific Purposes
ETEGC – Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts
EYP – European Youth Parliament
EU – European Union
FEP – Framework Educational Programme
FL – Foreign Language
FLT – Foreign Language Teaching
ICJ – International Court of Justice
ICT – Information and Communication Technologies
IR – International Relations
L1 – First Language (Mother Tongue)
L2 – Second Language (First Foreign Language, Target Language)
L3 – Third Language (Second Foreign Language)
MUN – Model United Nations
NEP – National Educational Programme
RVP G – Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia (Framework Educational Programme for Upper-Secondary Schools, i.e. national curriculum for upper-secondary schools)
SEP – School Educational Programme
SLA – Second Language Acquisition
SPCC – Self-perceived Communication Competence
TEFL – Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL – Teaching English as a Second Language
UN – United Nations
WTC – Willingness to Communicate
ZPD – Zone of Proximal Development

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1 Introduction

Far more than any generation before us, we face an uncertain future. To be sure, conditions of life for previous generations were always insecure... But though we are largely immune from plague and famine in the industrialized countries today, we must deal now with the social forces we ourselves have unleashed. These forces bring social change into our lives in a continuous way. (Giddens, 1997, p. 520)

According to Anthony Giddens, the “global change” in the modern world has been brought about by economic, political, and cultural powers, which have a huge impact on all aspects of our lives. “No society on earth any longer lives in complete separation from others, and even in the wealthiest countries everyone is dependent on goods from abroad... Processes of globalization are among the most important social changes occurring today” (ibid., p. 64). When discussing globalisation, politicians as well as academicians often talk about the ongoing removal of barriers in communication, information, trade, or travel. The associated interest in world cultures and languages is accompanied by the efforts to preserve cultural and linguistic diversity and the need for respect and appreciation of this diversity.

Globalisation, linguistic diversity, or international trade are just a few of the many so called global issues, or challenges faced by the whole mankind. These issues, further including sustainable development, climate change, terrorism, refugee crisis, and many others (United Nations, 2016a) cannot be dealt with on a local scale, but rather need a global – ‘whole-world’ – solution. This is because global issues have an impact on the lives of every single individual living on the planet.

How are these issues relevant to education and to language teaching in particular? In terms of language teaching and learning, we can identify at least two tendencies associated with the global change described above.

First, the growing integration and increased mobility in the globalised world requires people to be able to communicate in a common language, often one that differs from their mother tongue. This puts pressure on foreign language teaching, aiming to produce successful foreign language users capable of not only speaking the target language (communicative competence), but also of being able to effectively communicate with people with different socio-cultural backgrounds from all over the world. These users must be aware of other cultures’ customs and traditions (intercultural competence). Nowadays, the concept of language learning and teaching includes not only the development of linguistic skills, but also increasingly more sociolinguistic and cultural aspects. This is why, through its language education policy, both the European Union and the Council of Europe aim to promote plurilingualism, linguistic diversity, mutual understanding, democratic citizenship, and social cohesion. Furthermore, European institutions endorse intercultural education and intercultural awareness development by encouraging the introduction of relevant topics and / or subjects into school curricula.

Second, many theoreticians as well as practitioners believe that a radical change in the approach to education in global matters has to occur in order to prepare young people for their role as global citizens. A new content area, global education, is thus finding its way into

school curricula, which is closely related to language teaching. In fact, many believe that the foreign language classroom is actually “the right place for global education” (Yakovchuk, 2004, p. 31), as it enables “students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required by world citizens to solve global problems” (Cates, 2002, p. 41).

It is precisely this combination of language and culture learning and teaching and global education that is the main interest of this dissertation. We are exploring effective ways of linking the two areas in order to educate a cosmopolitan, a citizen of the world (Kemp, 2013).

NB Please note that the text directly quotes several articles written by the author of the paper – see References.

2 Aims and Structure of the Dissertation

The aim of the dissertation is to find a suitable method and teaching model for the integration of global issues and English as a Foreign Language at the upper-secondary level of general education, within the specific context of the Czech educational system. Such a method should have the capacity to fulfill the dual goals of developing communication skills in English as a Foreign Language while meeting the goals of global education.

The main goal can be further divided into several individual aims:

1. to review available academic literature and research studies relating to the integration of global education, culture learning, and foreign language teaching and learning
2. to clarify the concept of innovative foreign language teaching method and to introduce the simulation method
3. to develop the conception (teaching model) of an integrated subject "Model United Nations" for upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language students
4. to investigate the suitability of the conception for the development of communicative competence of students of English as a Foreign Language, as well as for the integration of global issues at the upper-secondary level

With respect to the aims of the dissertation, it is structured into two parts, namely the theoretical framework and the original research.

The first chapter of the theoretical framework (Chapter 3) develops in detail the ideas outlined in the Introduction chapter. It specifically focuses on global education and education for European citizenship, and on language and culture learning. It clarifies the concepts of globalisation, cosmopolitanism, global education, European dimension in education, and European citizenship. Furthermore, it explains the notion of culture learning, dividing it into culture-general and culture-specific learning, and links it to language education and specific competences.

Chapter 4 introduces European and Czech education policies, again with a focus on global education and language learning and teaching. The first section outlines key documents in the area of language learning and teaching and lists some support programmes of the two major European institutions, namely the Council of Europe and the European Union. The second section focuses on the Czech national curriculum, with a special focus on the educational conception and objectives of upper-secondary general education, in particular in foreign language teaching and global education areas.

Building on the curricular insights, Chapter 5 pays a closer attention to selected approaches in contemporary foreign language learning and teaching. It describes main trends that are prevalent in the area, including the concept of innovative method. Some examples of innovative methods are also introduced.

The final chapter of the theoretical framework (Chapter 6) presents a selected innovative teaching method, namely the simulation method, in detail. Using the example of the global

simulation method, we demonstrate how global education and language and culture learning and teaching can be interconnected.

The research part comprises of two chapters. In chapter 7, research methodology is introduced. The chapter justifies the choice of action research as the research design, presents the research question, and describes organisation of the research, as well as data collection and analysis methods and research limitations.

Next, chapter 8 presents the results of the research. This chapter is structured according to the individual stages of the research, i.e. introductory stage (pilot study), main stage, and follow-up stage. Furthermore, the chapter presents a discussion of the results of the research and answers to the research questions.

Finally, chapter 9 concludes the dissertation and introduces ideas for further research.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3 Starting Points:

What Do Globalisation and Language Learning Have in Common?

In the given chapter, some of the most important concepts in contemporary general education, as well as foreign language education, will be explored. The aim is to provide the reader with a brief theoretical overview. Some of the concepts will be further elaborated in the subsequent passages of the text.

We start with the concept of globalisation and of global dimension in education before moving to the European dimension. The second section focuses on language and culture learning and teaching. The areas were selected with respect to the theme of the paper.

3.1 Education for Global and European Citizenship

In order to understand why the new curriculum includes a separate subject called “Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts”, we first need to have a look at the origins of global education and its content and goals. Next, we look into how the global dimension in education is translated to the European dimension within the context of our continent and transnational organisations that we are members of.

The beginnings of the ‘globalisation’ concept can be traced back to Marshall McLuhan who, in 1964, used the term **global** to describe the communication process that allows the whole world to experience the same thing at the same time. The 20th century world became a “global village” in which information and communication technologies played a key role and at the same time presented a crucial condition for such a world’s existence. The term **globalisation** was coined by Theodore LeVitt in an article from 1983 in which he describes the challenges of international markets, using the word in its economic meaning. Finally, in 1990 Kenichi Ohmae extended the term to the current understanding, i.e. global exchange of goods, services and people. (Kemp, 2013)

Globalisation is a very complex and rather ambiguous phenomenon and as such, there are both advocates and opponents of the process, and both positive and negative aspects to it. On one hand, globalisation brings along the reduction or removal of barriers between national borders and thus facilitates the flow of goods, people, information and technologies. Accordingly, theorists such as Anthony Giddens claim that globalisation strengthens individual’s possibilities for development and mutual enrichment, thanks to an extensive and unprecedented level of communication (Kemp, 2013). Others, including Jean Baudrillard, believe the very opposite is true and claim that globalisation is something that actually systematically threatens and suppresses individual’s possibilities for an independent life, as he or she has no control over matters of importance; everything is decided elsewhere, typically ‘from above’ (Kellner, 2007). This can make citizens feel helpless and unimportant, reducing their interest and involvement in public affairs, both on a local and global scale, resulting in them disposing of their responsibilities as well as rights as global citizens (Kemp, 2013; Skalková, 2000). Moreover, globalisation causes a number of serious global problems, such

as uneven economic growth, homogenization of cultures (cf. “McDonaldization”¹; Ritzer, 1983), or environmental problems. As Csikszentmihalyi (1995, p. 113) points out, “the problem is that in our current environment opportunities for passive and purposeless behaviour seem to far outnumber opportunities for experiencing active, growth-producing happiness.”

The key question follows: How do we solve these pressing problems? Many believe that in order to do so, we need to become cosmopolitans. A **cosmopolitan**, literally **citizen of the world**, is a person who understands and accepts his / her co-responsibility for the world, and is ready to face global problems and contribute to their solutions (Kemp, 2013, p. 13). True cosmopolitans “understand themselves as citizens of two societies, the national one, to which they are born or integrated, and the universal one, where they belong simply by the virtue of belonging to humanity” (Kemp, 2013, p. 45)² and are thus able to expand their “social consciousness to include the people of other countries” (Strain, 1999).

This is where education comes into play. Becoming a world-conscious person who accepts his/her responsibilities, including the responsibility for the world as inseparable from rights obviously does not ‘just happen’; rather, a person has to be educated for it (Kemp, 2013). Thus, education is no longer seen solely as the acquisition of knowledge or professional competencies; rather, it should develop the whole personality and potential of every single person (Skalková, 2000), and equip learners with civic and personal competencies. To sum up, in order for education to be of use and to be global, democratic citizenship education, intercultural education, and personal education must become integral parts of educational contents at all stages and have to be intertwined with global education (Kemp, 2013; Skalková, 2002)³ and education for sustainable development (Sund & Öhman, 2011). Not all authors are in favour of such a cosmopolitan approach to citizenship, however. Birzea (2005, p. 36) e.g. maintains that references to cosmopolitanism are “rather identity utopias than plausible political projects... It goes without saying that politicians and leaders never took such identity speculations into consideration.” The contrary is, nevertheless, true, at least on the level of educational policy (see section 4).

Even though global education may seem to be a new phenomenon, it has actually existed for several decades. “Education aimed at promoting world citizenship began after World War II and has developed under various names since then: Education for International Understanding (1947), Education in World Citizenship (1952), World Studies (1980s), and Global Education (1980s)” (Cates, 1999).⁴ The most recent term, **global education**, is understood as an

¹ McDonaldisation of cultures is characterised by predictability, calculability, and the focus on quantity.

² “Det er det menneske, der forstå sig selv som borger i to samfund: Det nationale, som det er født ind i eller er optaget i – og det universelle, som det tilhører blot i kraft af at tilhøre menneskeheden.” (Kemp, 2013, p. 45)

³ As will be demonstrated in the following chapters, this educational approach is reflected in educational policies of both European institutions (see section 4) and the Czech ministry of education (see section 4.2).

⁴ In the Czech Republic, a number of overlapping concepts have been used that correspond to the definition of Global Education, namely Globální výchova (GV, global education), Globální rozvojové vzdělávání (GRV, global development education), and Výchova k myšlení v evropských a globálních souvislostech (VMEGS, Education towards thinking in European and global context). VMEGS is a compulsory educational content at secondary schools (see section 4.2.3). GV has been employed in correspondence to Pike and Selby’s monography (Czech version published in 1994). GRV has been promoted mainly by the Czech NGO People in Need that focuses on humanitarian aid and development. In their

educational approach that “opens people’s eyes and minds to the realities of the world, and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all” (Council of Europe, 2002, p. 2).

The **goals** of global education can be split into four areas, namely knowledge, skills, attitudes, and action (Cates, 2002, p. 41):

- **Knowledge** about world problems is the first goal. If we want students to work for a better world, they must know the nature of world problems, their causes, and viable solutions.
- Acquiring **skills** – communication, critical and creative thinking, cooperative problem-solving, nonviolent conflict resolution, informed decision making, and the ability to see issues from multiple perspectives – necessary to solve world problems is the second goal.
- Acquiring global **attitudes** – global awareness, curiosity, an appreciation of other cultures, respect for diversity, a commitment to justice, and empathy with others – is the third goal.
- The final goal of global education is **action** – democratic participation in the local and global community to solve world problems.

Global education thus involves teaching and learning about **global issues**, “contemporary phenomenon[s] affecting the lives of people and/or the health of the planet in a harmful or potentially harmful way” (Pike & Selby, 1988, p. 22, cit. in Erfani, 2012, p. 2412). The United Nations provide a list of 30 global issues (United Nations, 2016a), a number of which have been reflected and addressed in the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2016b) and Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2016c). Global issues can be arranged into several categories, such as the following (Yakovchuk, 2004, p. 32):

- *Environmental issues*: pollution, deforestation, endangered animals, global warming, recycling, natural disasters, etc.
- *Peace education issues*: wars, nuclear arms race, refugees, etc.
- *Human rights issues*: racism, gender issues, children’s rights, etc.
- *Intercultural communication issues*: cultural issues, global citizenship vs. national identity, multiculturalism, etc.
- *Socio-economic issues*: poverty, wealth, consumer society, advertising, etc.
- *Health concerns*: drugs, AIDS, etc.
- *Linguistic imperialism*

There are several reasons for the inclusion of global issues in education (Cates, 1997, 2002, 2004; Dyer & Bushell, 1996), be it their seriousness to the whole world or the interdependent nature of today’s global-village world. There are also motives stemming from the educational systems, namely the inadequate preparation of the youth to cope with such complex problems, or the problematic “attitudes of apathy, selfishness, and ignorance of many modern young people” (Cates, 2002, p. 42). All in all, global education is seen by many as a remedy for the lack of basic values in youngsters, such as “justice, freedom, peace, dignity, equality, rights, democracy, social responsibility, tolerance, independence, environmentalism,

understanding, GRV fully corresponds to VMEGS, but stresses the problems and issues of the developing countries and their place in the globalised world (Skalická & Sobotová, 2009, p. 6).

The Czech Republic has a national strategy on implementation of global education, namely “National Strategy on for Global Development Education 2011-2015, revised for 2016-2017” (Ministerstvo zahraničních věcí ČR, 2016) which, among others, introduces the goals of this content area.

multiculturalism, anti-consumerism,” etc., in other words, **global values**, i.e. “goal[s] or standard[s] vital for living in the interdependent world” (Yakovchuk, 2004, p. 33).

Even though most of the listed global values can now be found in education policy documents, there is still a number of practical constraints found in schools all over the world. To start with, authors agree that global education is rather controversial, often resulting in teachers’ as well as textbook publishers’ reluctance to deal with global issues. According to Erfari (2012, p. 2412), “publishers advise coursebook writers to follow a set of guidelines to make sure that controversial topics are kept out of their books.” Next, controversy concerns the fact that the nature of global education is transformative, which means that “students are often challenged to examine and perhaps change their assumptions and values” (Dyer & Bushell, 1996). Furthermore, teachers feel uncomfortable about and are afraid of imposing values that are often seen as controversial by the society itself (e.g. anti-consumerism), especially in multicultural contexts (cf. Becker, 1988). Another obstacle pinpointed by Dyer and Bushell (1996) is the fact that successful implementation of global education is interconnected with a responsive (e.g. learner-centred) school climate; its absence makes it very difficult, if not impossible, to implement global values. Closely related to this issue are two barriers highlighted by Metzger (1988), namely “teachers themselves” and their lack of information about world issues and cultures, and the teachers’ teaching styles and methods, which, even today, 30 years later, are often way too teacher-centred.

Having said that, global issues and global education are slowly finding their way to schools and curricula. There are a number of studies reporting successful realization of such topics, including those integrating them into foreign language classes (see section 5.3.2).

In the European context, not only global dimension of education, but also specifically European dimension is deemed necessary for the development of a democratic and cosmopolitan society. According to Walterová (2001), the “European project” is only likely to work and become real if young Europeans understand the importance of a common future, perceiving Europe not only as a geographical term, but rather as a place for meeting and cultural sharing. Correspondingly, she understands the **European dimension** in education as “the process of cultivating a relationship towards Europe and the uncovering of its values... associated with the search for one’s identity”⁵ (ibid., p. 47; cf. Verhaegen & Hooghe, 2015). This aims to prepare young people for life in common Europe and develop their key competences, such as the competence to learn, communicative competence⁶ in three languages (plurilingual competence, see chapter 4), critical thinking skills, problem-solving competence, cooperative competence, and the ability to actively react to changes in the environment (Walterová, 2005b). European dimension in education is also closely connected

⁵ „... chápejme evropskou dimenzi jako proces kultivace vztahu k Evropě a odkrývání jejích hodnot ... Kultivace vztahu k Evropě hluboce souvisí s hledáním identity, uvědomováním si Evropy jako prostředí života jednotlivce, skupiny, národa i celého společenství Evropanů jako příslušníků určité civilizace.“ (Walterová, 2001, p. 47)

European identity is a concept related to the European dimension, mentioned in numerous policy documents. European identity is believed to be a segment of one’s social identity, which is formed by both cognitive and emotional aspects. This means that in order to identify with the EU, one has both be aware of its existence, role, institutions, etc., as well as have a positive attachment to it (Verhaegen & Hooghe, 2015).

⁶ In the given paper, we use the expression **communicative competence**, even though at times the term **communication competence** is used – this is the case only when referring to the Self-perceived communication competence, as proposed by the SPCC standardised test authors (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988).

to global thinking and intercultural understanding (Janík, 2004b) and as such aims to “instil a sense of diversity and interdependence among pupils” (McCann & Finn, 2006, p. 58; cf. European Commission, 2005). The plurilingual competence is seen as a necessary aspect of European dimension, as it allows communication and cultural sharing to spread outside national borders (Byram, 2006). This way, European nationals become European citizens.

The term **European citizenship** can then be described as having two separate sets of characteristics (Birzea, 2005, p. 29). First, it is realised in the sense of “legal and political status”, i.e. “the ensemble of rights and responsibilities granted by a state to its citizens” and as such it is limited to the citizens of EU member states. Second, European citizenship may be seen as “identity and social role” and may as such “exceed the legal space of membership” and not limit itself to the legal status (cf. Olson, 2012). Considering this dichotomy, **European dimension** in citizenship education⁷ as a content area in school curricula involves both a *cognitive* dimension (“dimension of cognition – knowledge of Europe”) and *ffective* dimension (“dimension of *affection* – relationship, attitude, experience and Europe”) (Seebauer, 2002 in Janík, 2004b). Walterová (2001, p. 54) extends this understanding by including a third dimension, that of *competence*. In her understanding, European dimension is thus realised in three respective areas:

- *Learning about Europe* by learning about European culture, history, economy, politics, and the environment;
- *Learning from Europe* by gaining personal experience during intercultural interactions;⁸
- *Learning for Europe* by developing knowledge and competencies necessary for a life in the united Europe.

As was the case with global citizenship, also the term European citizenship has been challenged (cf. Derrida, 1992 in Olson, 2012). Moreover, citizenship education seems to have different forms in individual European countries (McCann & Finn, 2006; the Czech curriculum includes them in one content area, namely in the Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts, see section 4.2.3). Nevertheless, both these educational fields are getting prominence in European educational policies. As McCann and Finn (2006, p. 61) conclude,

Citizenship education as a cross-curricular theme has been given an unprecedented role in the progressively integrating education systems of the EU as a core component along with language learning, mobility and vocational training. The legal basis has facilitated a policy shift that has meant that certain aspects of citizenship education such as civic responsibility, concepts of freedom, communal interdependence, diversity, and human rights are becoming more noticeable in school curricula across the continent.

In the given paper we search precisely for methods integrating global education and education towards European citizenship with foreign language learning and teaching. This is why the next section will look at the related areas of language and culture learning.

⁷ “**Citizenship education** can be defined as educating children, from early childhood, to become clear-thinking and enlightened citizens who participate in decisions concerning society” (UNESCO, 2010).

⁸ This can be done through practical activities involving student and teacher exchanges and school cooperation across European countries (cf. Erasmus+ programme, section 4.1.2) (Průcha, 2000). In Průcha’s view, European dimension is also an aspect of educational research, looking into whether the statements found in education policies are actually reflected in reality.

3.2 Language and Culture Learning

Language issues are central to culture ... [and] are also central to concepts of education. Linguistic competencies are fundamental for the empowerment of the individual in democratic and plural societies, as they condition school achievement, promote access to other cultures and encourage openness to cultural exchange. (UNESCO, 2006, p. 13)

As it has already been noted, globalisation begets the introduction of cultural and intercultural components into both general and language education⁹, both native language and foreign language. As we will see, culture and language learning are inseparable which is why many contemporary theoreticians explore them simultaneously.

In **general education**, the (inter)cultural element involves the integration of contents dealing with various dimensions of world culture(s), be it their history, languages, or customs, with a twofold aim. First, such a study enables students to learn about, understand, and reflect on other cultures. At the same time, by means of relating those cultures to their native culture, students also get a chance to get to know their own culture better, as well as appreciate its contribution to the overall cultural heritage (Kramsch, 1993 in Dupuy, 2006; Skalková, 2000; Walterová, 2001). Nevertheless, in order to do so successfully, education must not restrain itself to a pure transfer of culture-specific knowledge (see below), but rather focus on cultural reflection and understanding (Walterová, 2001). Thus, in recent years, there has been a tendency to not only introduce culture-related topics through a knowledge-based (i.e. cognitively oriented) approach, but also focus on developing skills and attitudes needed for successful contacts among world nations. Seen from a broad standpoint, **culture learning** is defined as

the process of acquiring the culture-specific and culture-general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures. It is a dynamic, developmental, and ongoing process which engages the learner cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively... **Culture-specific** learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge and skills relevant to a given “target culture,” i.e., a particular culture group or community. **Culture-general** learning, on the other hand, refers to knowledge and skills that are more generalizable in nature and transferable across cultures... Culture-general skills include the capacity to display respect for and interest in the culture, the ability to be a self-sustaining culture learner and to draw on a variety of resources for that learning, tolerance and patience in cross-cultural situations, control of emotions and emotional resilience, and the like. (Paige et al., 2003, pp. 4-6)

The table below presents a more detailed overview of the individual components of cultural learning. Here, the individual components are broken down into culture-general and culture-specific categories. As we can see, the term **culture learning** is more general than **intercultural learning** which is nowadays often used in educational materials.¹⁰

⁹ In the given chapter, the term ‘language education’ is used in the meaning of language learning and teaching, including that of foreign languages.

¹⁰ **Intercultural learning** is such a learning which “promotes the understanding of different people and cultures”, endorses respect for diversity, challenges ‘isms’ and xenophobia, and promotes equality (Intercultural Education Network, 2016). There is a disagreement among theoreticians as to the differences / similarities between the term **multicultural** and **intercultural** learning. Sometimes, these concepts are treated as synonyms or near-synonyms, oftentimes the boundary is very blurred and not clarified. When treated as separate concepts, “multicultural education primarily emphasizes the presentation and promotion of cultural diversity... while the intercultural approach is more focused on ... interaction and cultural exchange” (Puzić, 2008, p. 392).

	CULTURE-GENERAL	CULTURE-SPECIFIC
Knowledge	<p>Intercultural Phenomena</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cultural adjustment stages • culture shock • intercultural development • culture learning • cultural identity • cultural marginality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “little c” target culture knowledge • “Big C” target culture knowledge • pragmatics • sociolinguistic competence
Behaviour	<p>Intercultural Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • culture learning strategies • coping and stress management strategies • intercultural communicative competence • intercultural perspective-taking skills • cultural adaptability • transcultural competence 	<p>Target Culture Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • little “c” culture—appropriate everyday behavior • Big “C” culture—appropriate contextual behavior
Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • positive attitude toward different cultures • positive attitude toward culture learning • ethnorelative attitude regarding cultural differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • positive attitude toward target culture • positive attitude toward target culture persons

Table 1 – Conceptual model of culture learning (Paige et al., 2003, p. 7)

As was noted in the introductory quote, culture is inseparable from language, and thus culture learning is believed to constitute an integral part of **language education** (cf. Paige et al., 2003). The focus of the culture learning component of language education (both native and foreign language) has been on the development of culture-specific knowledge and competence; in the case of **foreign language teaching**, the aim has been to cultivate “insight into culture and society in the target-language countries” (Risager, 2007, p. 2). Nevertheless, it is now becoming clear that the development of culture-general (intercultural) competence is also of vital importance and should thus be integrated into the foreign language teaching curriculum alongside culture-specific knowledge and competence (i.e. of the target-language countries) (cf. Paige et al., 2003).

According to Byram (1997, cit. in Risager, 2007), there are eight components of **intercultural competence** to be acquired, which can be divided into two groups, linguistic and cultural. **Linguistic competence** is constituted by *linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competences*, whereas *attitudes, knowledge, interpretation skills, discovery and interaction skills*, and *critical cultural awareness* put together the **cultural competence**. In the new approach, foreign language teaching (FLT) thus has a dual syllabus, covering both linguistic and cultural dimension (Risager, 2007). The ultimate goal of language and culture education

(i.e. language teaching integrating culture learning) is then the cultivation of an **intercultural speaker**, whose desired competence is

not the ability to speak and write according to the rules of the academy and the social etiquette of one social group, but the adaptability to select those forms of accuracy and those forms of appropriateness that are called for in a given social context of use. This form of competence is precisely the competence of the ‘intercultural’ speaker, operating at the border between several languages or language varieties, manoeuvring his/her way through the troubled waters of cross-cultural misunderstandings. (Kramsch, 1998, cited in Risager, 2007)

As such, the intercultural speaker displays the same competences as world citizen introduced above (Risager, 2007). Should this be narrowed down to the European citizen, he or she should possess **multilingual competence** in a declared minimum of three languages (European Union, 1995). In line with the concept of intercultural speaker, European citizens are not expected to reach native-like fluency (see below), even though they are encouraged to acquire as high a level of competence in as wide a range of languages as possible (see section 4.1.1).¹¹ The Council of Europe (CoE) established the term **plurilingualism** in order to stress and deepen the interconnectedness of languages and cultures involved. In such an understanding, multilingualism is a mere “knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society”, while “the plurilingual approach emphasises the fact that as an individual person’s experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, ... he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4). In this understanding, the competence in the individual languages is not isolated; rather, “the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place” (ibid., p. 5). While the Council of Europe closely cooperates with the European Union (see below), each organisation uses its own preferred terminology; thus, the EU continues to promote ‘multilingualism’, whereas the Council endorses ‘plurilingualism’.

The shift to culture / intercultural competence in foreign language teaching goes hand in hand with the discussion regarding the target language variety and the corresponding culture to be taught in foreign language classes, i.e. whether teachers should stick with the “**native-speaker model**”, or rather opt for “**the intercultural / global speaker model**”. According to Risager (2007, p. 197), “a number of people have since the 1990s questioned ‘the native-speaker model’”, criticizing the traditional model for language teaching, i.e. “the monolingual and mono-cultural native speaker” (cf. Byram, 2006). It is obvious that the given discussion thus concerns the very core of language learning, namely its purpose (Widdowson, 2004). As Kim (2001, p. 7) puts it when discussing the situation in English language teaching (ELT),

the issue of the essence of integrating cultural matters of the native speakers into the teaching of English is highly dependent on the objective of learning the language... If the students learn English to enable

¹¹ The alternative to plurilingualism is the use of a shared lingua franca, i.e. English at this point in history. Many authors (Byram, 2006; Verstraete Hansen & Phillipson, 2008; Widdowson, 2004; cf. Morrow, 2004) claim that this is, nevertheless, not politically acceptable as it would lead to accusations of linguistic imperialism; nor would it be desirable, as cross-cultural interaction is far more complex than mere exchange of information. Having said that, most authors do agree that English is the contemporary lingua franca (cf. section 5.1).

themselves to live in the land of native speakers, the curriculum must include the native cultural elements... However, if the program is intended to enable students to communicate with others from different countries, integrating elements of native culture is no longer relevant.

In terms of ELT, the digression from the native-speaker model also reflects the fact that the number of second language and foreign language (L2) users of English¹² is constantly growing and is likely to continue doing so (Kachru, 1988 in Crystal, 2003).¹³ Due to this, countries where English is spoken as mother tongue (L1) are losing their primacy in being the English 'role-givers'.¹⁴ Crystal (2003, p. 141) believes that by 2050, "the only possible concept of ownership [of English] will be a global one."¹⁵ English has thus "become the possession of speakers around the world" (Kim, 2001, p. 6). Nowadays, English is seen as the new **lingua franca**, "not just an international language but the international language,... the global language and the language of globalization" (Widdowson, 2004, p. 362).¹⁶ The cultural aspect of ELT and the focus on cultural competence is therefore likely to gain even more significance.

¹² Kachru 1988 (cit. in Crystal, 2003) defines the following areas of English use: outer circle countries, where English is spoken as the second language, e.g. India, expanding circle countries where English is spoken as a foreign language, e.g. China, and inner circle countries, where English is spoken as the first language / mother tongue, e.g. United Kingdom.

¹³ "If current population and learning trends continue, the balance of speakers will change dramatically. There are probably already more L2 speakers than L1 speakers. Within fifty years, there could be up to 50 per cent more." (Crystal, 2003, p. 141)

¹⁴ Widdowson (2004, p. 359) criticises the dominance and restrictions of native-speaker usage: "It is taken as self-evident that it is this usage which learners need to conform to. But a pedagogy which privileges the norms of the Inner Circle, in Kachru's terms, can be seen as a means of perpetuating the hegemonic control of its speakers, and in effect of serving the interests of linguistic imperialism." He, moreover, claims that "there are also grounds for questioning the practical justification for insisting on setting native-speaker norms as learner objectives, since most current uses of the language are for international communication between people who are not native speakers... effective communication... does not ... depend on conformity to native-speaker norms" (p. 360).

¹⁵ As Kim notes (2001, p.6), "the status of English as the possession of speakers around the world, especially in the context of ESL and EFL, emerges at least three key issues in English teaching and English: First, which English grammar will be taught as a standard to students? Second, which pronunciation should be taught? Third, should native cultural elements be included in the curriculum?" Regarding the first questions, Jenkins (2000, cit. in Widdowson, 2004) claims that "there is really no justification for doggedly persisting in referring to an item as 'an error' if the vast majority of the world's L2 English speakers produce and understand it. Instead it is for L1 speakers to move their receptive goal posts and adjust their expectations as far as *international* (but not *intranational*) uses of English are concerned..." Similarly, regarding the second question, Jenkins (2000, cit. in Kim, 2001, p. 7) comments that "received pronunciation (RP) is an unattainable and an unnecessary target for second-language learners."

¹⁶ While there is no dispute regarding the existence of the phenomenon, there is a disagreement as to whether this is a positive or negative thing. Using English surely makes communication among different nationals easier; however, there are authors who believe that English is a "threat" to smaller languages (cf. Verstraete Hansen & Phillipson, 2008).

3.3 Summary

The given chapter introduced the two starting points of the paper, namely global education, including the European dimension, and language and culture learning. As we have seen, the two areas are closely related and in many aspects share similar goals, be it in terms of skills, knowledge, or attitudes development. Both aim for the education of cosmopolitans, of citizens who are able to make use of the opportunities provided by the globalised, intercultural, and multilingual world; who treat others with respect and are capable of successful communication in both their mother tongue and a foreign language. We have introduced opinions of many educators and theoreticians who encourage the implementation of global education and related fields into general education curricula and who support the teaching of English with respect to its unique status as the lingua franca of today's world.

This thesis aims to search for a method that would allow English as a Foreign Language teachers to include all of these aspects in their lessons. In order to find a method suitable for the Czech educational context, we first need to examine educational policies that constitute the framework of teaching and learning in the Czech Republic.¹⁷ We start with the more general scope of European educational policies before introducing the Czech national curriculum and showing how both global education and language and culture learning are represented there.

¹⁷ According to Widdowson (2004, p. 369), language learning and teaching should indeed be 'localised', i.e. "appropriate to local conditions".

4 Introduction to European and Czech Education Policies

Languages are ... the key to knowing other people. Proficiency in languages helps to build up the feeling of being European with all its cultural wealth and diversity and of understanding between the citizens of Europe. (European Union, 1995, p. 47)

Seconding scholars' opinions introduced in the previous chapter, the two prominent European organisations, Council of Europe and European Union, have been addressing issues arising from globalisation in a number of their education policy documents. Both organisations call for a systematic education for democratic citizenship and global education, as well as for foreign language and culture education. They believe these topics to be key devices necessary for close and successful cooperation of the countries and nations involved, be it in education, culture, science, trade, or industry. As will be demonstrated in the first section of the chapter, a close connection is seen between citizenship education and foreign language teaching, as the ability to speak foreign languages is deemed a key competence of every European citizen. The second section is devoted to the introduction of the Czech national curriculum with respect to language and culture education and global education.

4.1 Language and Culture Education Policies of the Common Europe

4.1.1 Council of Europe

The Council of Europe¹⁸ (CoE) has been active in the field of culture and language learning and teaching nearly since its establishment in 1949 and the developments in the methodology of foreign language teaching (FLT) date back to late 1950s (Morrow, 2004). One of the three main aims of the Council was to “promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures” (ibid, p. 4).

Upon many occasions the Council discussed the nature of **European citizenship** and its values. To provide an example, the 1997 Council of Europe summit e.g. set the preparation for democratic European citizenship as a priority educational objective. In its 1998 Recommendation no. 98(6) it also declared the necessity “to equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation not only in education, culture and science but also in trade and industry“ (quoted in Council of Europe, 2001, p. 3), thus creating an incentive for the introduction of **citizenship education**. As Banks et al. (2005, p. 7) point out,

only when a nation-state is unified around a set of democratic values such as human rights, justice, and equality can it secure the liberties of cultural, ethnic, language and religious groups and enable them to experience freedom, justice, and peace. Citizens who understand this unity-diversity tension and act accordingly do not materialize from thin air; they are educated for it.

In the CoE's view, education for democratic citizenship is closely related to **language learning and teaching**, resulting in the need “to promote methods of modern language teaching which will strengthen independence of thought, judgement and action, combined with social skills and responsibility“ (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4). What's more, language

¹⁸ The Czech Republic became a member in on June 30, 1993; Czechoslovakia had been a member since 1991.

learning should also strengthen interculturality and “promote plurilingualism in a pan-European context“ (ibid.).

The Council of Europe aimed to put these ideas into practice, among others, by introducing the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEF) in 2001. The CEF draws upon the Council’s previous experience with FLT approaches and syllabi, namely the famous Threshold Level associated with the onset of Communicative Language Teaching (Morrow, 2004) (see section 5.2). The main aim of CEF is set on “finding a way to compare the objectives and achievement standards of learners in different national (and local) contexts” (Morrow, 2004, p. 6), providing a detailed description of six levels of language proficiency, including competence in various functions and skills. Moreover, the CEF, through the concept of plurilingualism, “recognizes that many people have some degree of competence in another language. The job of language teaching is to make them aware of this, and to nurture and encourage this competence” (ibid., p. 5). The CEF also encourages culture learning, including culture-general aspects. According to Gouveia (2007, p. 5), the CEF “is in fact stressing that intercultural competence and critical cultural awareness are not only a matter of language teaching but also of citizenship education“; thus, the CEF connects the two areas.

The CEF is a document that has a lot of proponents, as well as critics (Morrow, 2004). While some authors warn against the overuse or misuse of the document, e.g. by means of using the levels prescriptively, rather than descriptively, or taking it as if “set in stone” (Fulcher, 2004), others believe it is a wonderful instrument for language professionals. Gouveia (2007, p. 6) states that CEF serves “as a fundamental instrument, whose purpose is to contribute with the full expression of citizenship, the development of democracy and the mobility and integration of citizens to a pan-cultural Europe.”

The CEF has since its publishing been widely used to indicate the level of courses, materials, exams, and many other aspects related to language teaching. As will be shown in the last section of the given chapter, the Czech national curriculum makes use of the CEF in the description of attainment levels at the end of the respective schooling stages.

Support Programmes

In order to put in practice the aforementioned goals, the CoE has developed various **projects** and events, including the European Language Portfolio and the European Day of Languages.

The **European Language portfolio** is a tool to promote learner autonomy (Council of Europe, 2006, p. 9 cit. in Little, 2009), plurilingualism, and pluriculturalism (Council of Europe, 2011). Its aim is to help even the youngest learners “understand why they are learning a foreign language, how they are learning it, how they could learn in a better way, and [realise] what their strengths and weaknesses are”¹⁹ (Karásková, 2010). To sum up, “its function is to help learners manage their own learning, to support learning how to learn, and thus to foster the development of lifelong learning skills” (Little, 2009, p. 2). Finally, it serves

¹⁹ “Práce s portfoliem žákům pomáhá pochopit, proč se cizímu jazyku učí, jak se učí, jak by se mohli učit lépe, kde jsou jejich silné stránky a kde slabiny...” (Karásková, 2010).

as a dossier for collecting evidence of contact with various languages, as well as of pieces of writing etc.²⁰

The **European Day of Languages**, taking place annually on September 26, is “designed to raise awareness among citizens of the many languages spoken in Europe and to encourage them to learn languages” (European Parliament, 2016, p. 4). Across Europe, many events and activities take place, including organising language cafés, film screenings, school projects and many others (Council of Europe, 2016).

4.1.2 European Union

Languages are seen as a top priority also by the EU. Similar to the Council of Europe’s view of linguistic diversity and plurilingualism, the EU sees **multilingualism** as a part of “both European identity/citizenship and the learning society“ (European Union, 1995, p. 47). This is why the “aim of EU language policy is to promote the teaching and learning of foreign languages in the EU and to create an environment that is friendly towards all Member State languages” (European Parliament, 2016, p. 1). The EU believes that (European Union, 2003, p. 3):

Building a common home in which to live, work and trade together means acquiring the skills to communicate with one another effectively and to understand one another better. Learning and speaking other languages encourages us to become more open to others, their cultures and outlooks. The ability to understand and communicate in other languages is a basic skill for European citizens.

It is worth pointing out that there is a close cooperation in the field of FLT between the Council of Europe and the European Union. For example, Action Plan (see below) repeatedly refers to both the Common European Framework of Reference as well as to the Council of Europe’s work and projects, encouraging EU Member States to take these as a starting point for discussing, or to prepare measures in accordance with the Council’s standards, as they “bear the primary responsibility for implementing the new push for language learning in the light of local circumstances and policies, within overall European objectives” (European Union 2003, p. 5).

EU key language education policy documents, namely the *White Paper on Education and Training: Teaching and Learning* from 1995 (White Paper), *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004 – 2006* from 2003 (Action Plan), and the *Education and Training 2020* (ET 2020) stress the need to educate citizens for European identity/citizenship and multilingualism, and, at the same time, foster multicultural awareness and competencies. According to the White Paper (European Union, 1995, p. 47), **communication in three community languages** is a precondition needed for EU citizens “to benefit from the occupational and personal opportunities open to them in the border-free

²⁰ In their impact study on the use of ELP in classrooms, Stoicheva, Hughes and Speitz (2009, p. 20) conclude that: “The ELP with its emphasis on learner autonomy, self-assessment and lifelong learning has reinforced some of the basic implications of the CEFR approach – those elements which constitute the underlying concerns behind its conception. By engaging in the ELP development process practitioners, teachers, educators and a wide range of FLL stakeholders have, we believe, achieved a better understanding of these underlying principles of the CEFR. At the same time, we feel that some other important aspects of the ELP with great potential for impact have not been properly exploited. Here we would refer particularly to plurilingualism in its multifaceted aspects – in the school system, in the daily lives of individual European citizens and in the environment around us.”

Single Market.“ Similarly, the new Education and Training 2020 strategic framework (associated with the Europe 2020 strategy) recognises language learning as an educational priority (European Parliament, 2016, p. 2):

Communication in foreign languages is one of eight key competences needed to improve the quality and efficiency of education and training. In addition to the main skill dimensions of communication in the mother tongue, this includes mediation and intercultural understanding.

Goals of FLT policy are further specified in the Action Plan (European Union, 2003, p. 8), according to which reaching a “native-like fluency” is not the objective, that being rather the acquisition of **communication skills** which, together with **intercultural (i.e. culture-general) competence**, do the trick to ensure effective communication among European nations. The Action Plan also identifies three key areas in which action should be taken, namely “extending the benefits of life-long language learning to all citizens, improving language teaching, and creating a more language-friendly environment” (ibid., p. 6). Regarding multilingualism, the Action Plan specifically states that it is necessary to focus on the teaching and learning of not only bigger languages but also smaller ones, including minority and migrant languages (ibid., p. 9). This idea was supported by the 2005 New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism (European Union, 2005).

Support Programmes

EU funded support programmes aiming to put the language policy in practice include the European Label Award, Europass, or, most importantly, the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP, 2007-2013)²¹ and its successor, the Erasmus+ scheme (2014-2020) (European Commission, 2013c).

The **European Label Award** is given to innovative projects conducted in the field of language learning. In the Czech Republic, ELA is awarded by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport and is accompanied by a financial award.

Europass is a series of five documents designed to “make your skills and qualifications clearly and easily understood in Europe” (European Union, 2016). Two of the documents are freely accessible, namely CV and Language Passport, while the remaining three, Europass Mobility, Certificate Supplement, and Diploma Supplement, are issued by education and training authorities. The objectives of Europass are (ibid.):

- to help citizens communicate their skills and qualifications effectively when looking for a job or training;
- to help employers understand the skills and qualifications of the workforce;
- to help education and training authorities define and communicate the content of curricula.

The **Erasmus+ Programme** is “the EU programme for Education, Training, Youth and Sport for 2014-2020” (European Parliament, 2016, p. 2). The programme caters for the needs of

²¹ Out of the LLP programmes, LLP Comenius addressed the needs of pre-school, primary and secondary education. Its aims were as follows (European Commission, 2013b):

- Improve and increase the mobility of pupils and educational staff across the EU;
- Enhance and increase partnerships between schools in different EU Member States;
- Encourage language learning, innovative ICT-based content, services and better teaching techniques and practices;
- Enhance the quality and European dimension of teacher training;
- Improve pedagogical approaches and school management.

both individuals and institutions and aims “to contribute to the Europe 2020 strategy for growth, jobs, social equity and inclusion, as well as the aims of ET2020, the EU's strategic framework for education and training” (European Commission, 2016a).

As we can see, the starting points introduced in the previous chapter are very much reflected in the policy documents by the two most important European political institutions. In the next section, we take a closer look at how all these are echoed in the Czech educational system.

4.2 Czech National Curriculum for Upper-Secondary Schools

The common goal of education in EU countries is the education towards democratic European citizenship and the development of key competencies necessary for a life in the united Europe. In the Czech Republic, these features started to be adopted even before its accession to the European Union in 2004.²² The Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport declared in 2001 that “the main task in the field of education is to ensure that on accession to the European Union Czechs will be able to make full use of their right to study or complete their education in any member state of the European Union in the same way as other EU citizens” (Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy ČR, 2001, p. 31). In the same year, Walterová, a Czech expert in comparative education, curricular policy, and European dimension in education, expressed her hope that Czech citizens would accept their responsibility for the future of Europe and see it as an opportunity to strengthen their national identity in the global context (2001, p. 42).²³

With respect to the objectives of education policy of the EU and that of the Council of Europe introduced above, the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports prepared a curricular reform whose principles are demonstrated in the key education policy document *National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic: White Paper*²⁴ (White Paper), published in 2001, and embodied in *Act No. 561/2004 Coll., On Preschool, Elementary, Secondary, Higher Vocational and Other Education* (Education Act)²⁵. The White Paper significantly strengthens **foreign language teaching** (Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy ČR, 2001, p. 40), and emphasises the role of “support for democracy and civic society,” of “education in human rights and multiculturalism,” and that of “education for partnership, cooperation and solidarity within European as well as globalising society” (ibid., p. 15). The paper introduces the brand new concept of “**key competences**”²⁶ as an instrument for transforming the encyclopaedic conception of education, “as well as stresses **cross-curricular links, subject integration** and the introduction of **new teaching forms and methods** (ibid., pp. 40-41). Furthermore, the newly established **cross-curricular subjects** (CCSs), which constitute a compulsory element of both primary and secondary education, cover topics which are perceived as topical, with a focus on current problems and issues. They

²² The Czech Republic entered the European Union on May 1, 2004.

²³ “Snad si občané ČR uvědomí zodpovědnost a potřebu spoluúčasti na řešení naší i evropské budoucnosti a pochopí ji jako příležitost pro ověření a posílení národní identity v širších souvislostech a horizontech globálních” (Walterová, 2001, p. 42).

²⁴ Národní program rozvoje vzdělávání v České republice: Bílá kniha.

²⁵ Zákon č. 561/2004 Sb., zákon o předškolním, základním, středním, vyšším odborném a jiném vzdělávání (školský zákon)

²⁶ The individual curricular documents are inconsistent as to terminology and confuse ‘competence’ (e.g. *White Paper*) with ‘competency’ (e.g. *Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education – Grammar Schools*).

Birbaum and Daily (2009, p. 1) summarise the terminological issue this way: “**Competence** is based on the acquisition of a set of competencies. A **competency** is a knowledge, skill, or attitude that enables one to effectively perform the activities of a given occupation or function to the expected standards of an occupation.”

Competence is thus understood as the set of measurable goals or milestones and characterised as the capacity to perform. **Competency**, on the other hand, is characteristic (knowledge, skill, mindset, attitude, thought pattern) that leads to successful performance, i.e. actual performance, in a given situation. (McConnell, 2001; Teodorescu, 2006)

The *White Paper* (p. 55) defines the term as “capabilities, skills, attitudes, values and other personality characteristics which enable an individual to act adequately and effectively in various work and life situations”, while the *RVP G’s* (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 8) definition is “a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values which are important for the personal development of an individual, his/her active participation in society and future success in life”. This leads us to believe that the education aims for the acquisition of key competencies.

mainly aim to positively influence students' attitudes, values systems, as well as their conduct.

The educational reform introduced a new system of curricular documents (Framework Education Programmes, FEPs, corresponding to 'national curriculum') for educating pupils and students between the ages of 3 and 19. In general education²⁷, FEPs are aimed at the following levels (Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy ČR, 2011; Národní agentura pro evropské programy, 2016):

- **preschool** (ISCED 0) – *Framework Education Programme for Preschool Education*
- **elementary**²⁸ (ISCED 1 + ISCED 2A – compulsory schooling, primary and lower-secondary) – *Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education*
- **upper-secondary** (ISCED 3A, upper-secondary with final leaving exam) – *Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education – Grammar Schools*

Curricular documents are developed on two levels – the state level and the school level. The **state level** is (theoretically, i.e. in law) represented by the National Education Programme (NEP)²⁹ and the Framework Education Programmes (FEPs) listed above. While the NEP should state the main areas of education, educational contents and instruments necessary to achieve these goals (cit. in Education Act of 2004, §3), FEPs define the educational contents as well as expected outcomes of each of the individual stages (i.e. preschool, primary, lower-secondary, upper-secondary). The **school level** is represented by School Education Programmes (SEPs) which are created by the individual schools reflecting their individual approaches and preferences while adhering to the requirements prescribed in the respective FEP. The system of curricular documents is depicted in Figure 1 below.

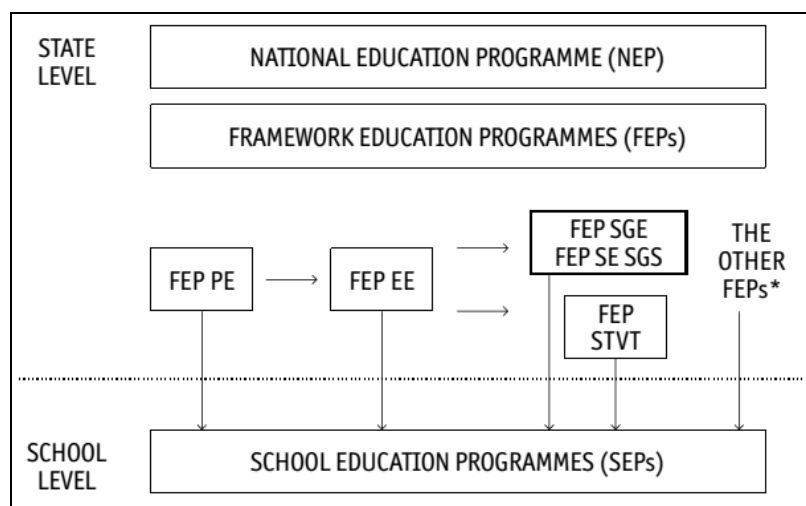


Figure 1 – System of curricular documents in the Czech Republic (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 5)³⁰

²⁷ Other FEPs were also established by the Education Act but do not fall among general education, such as FEP for Elementary Arts Schools (ISCED 2A) or FEP for Secondary Technical and Vocational Training (ISCED 3A, 3B or 3C).

²⁸ The individual curricular documents are inconsistent as to the word used to describe this stage. While some documents describe this stage as *basic school* (*White Paper* or *Framework Education Programme for Basic School*), other documents use the term *elementary* (*Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education – Grammar Schools*).

²⁹ While the FEPs were published in 2007, the NEP, surprisingly enough, still does not exist.

³⁰ Legend: FEP PE – Framework Education Programme for Preschool Education; FEP EE – Framework Education Programme for Elementary Education; FEP SGE – Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education (Grammar Schools); FEP SE SGS – Framework Education Programme for Secondary Education at Sports Grammar Schools;

With respect to the focus of the given text, upper-secondary education, the following section briefly introduces the Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education – Grammar Schools (hereafter RVP G).

4.2.1 Educational Conception and Objectives of Upper-secondary Education

At the upper-secondary stage of education, there are several types of schools (e.g. general, technical, vocational, etc.); in general education, the upper-secondary school is called grammar school. The **grammar school** is an academic type of school which aims to provide a challenging study environment for students.³¹ Its graduates typically continue in their studies at the tertiary level at universities or at other higher institutions, such as professional colleges, etc. In the new conception, grammar school is expected to offer students a solid general education. It aspires to provide students with skills and competencies necessary for making use of various information sources, as well structuring and critically analysing obtained information. This is a key difference from the old conception in which the focus was rather on transfer of knowledge. Moreover, grammar school education aims to employ “approaches and methods stimulating the pupils' creative thinking, resourcefulness and independence“ (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 8), and to build up their desire to pursue lifelong learning. Furthermore, education at this stage should utilise “differentiated instruction and new organisational forms“ (ibid.).

All in all, grammar school aims to achieve the following general objectives (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 8):

- to provide the pupils with key competencies on the level which is required by the FEP SGE;
- to provide the pupils with a wide knowledge base on the level described by the FEP SGE;
- to prepare the pupils for lifelong learning, for their professional, civic as well as personal lives.

As has been stated, RVP G provides a general framework which is then adapted in the form of the school curriculum (SEP) to meet specific conditions and goals of the individual schools. Similarly, graduate profiles of various grammar schools may differ.

Key Competencies

“Key competencies³² are a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values which are important for the personal development of an individual, his/her active participation in society and future success in life” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 8). During their upper-secondary studies, students should develop skills and competencies in the following areas (ibid., p. 9):

- learning competency³³

FEP STVT – Framework Education Programme (Programmes) for Secondary Technical and Vocational Training (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický 2007, p.5). Regarding elementary school / basic school terminology, see note 28.

³¹ There are two basic types of upper-secondary grammar school – either a four-year grammar school, or the higher years of six- or eight-year grammar school. These constitute separate programmes, often found within the same school. The lower years of the six- and eight-year grammar school are educated using the *Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education*.

³² For terminology, see note 26.

³³ According to the terminology note above, especially when compared with the Czech version, this should rather be ‘key competence’.

- problem-solving competency
- communication competency
- social and personal competency
- civic competency
- entrepreneurial competency

RVP G provides a list of key competencies stated as measurable milestones under each of the given headings. At the same time, it points out that all competencies are interrelated and are thus developed simultaneously through various activities. (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007).

Educational Areas and Cross-Curricular Subjects

There are eight **educational areas** which the educational content is divided into. Most of the educational areas are further subdivided into **educational fields** (subjects) (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 11):

- **Language and Language Communication** – Czech Language and Literature, Foreign Language, Second Foreign Language
- **Mathematics and Its Application** – Mathematics and Its Application
- **Man and Nature** – Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geography, Geology
- **Man and Society** – Basics of Civics and Social Sciences, History, Geography
- **Man and the World of Work** – Man and the World of Work
- **Arts and Culture** – Music, Fine Arts
- **Man and Health** – Health Education, Physical Education
- **Information Science and Information and Communication Technologies** – Information Science and Information and Communication Technologies

RVP G characterises each educational area in terms of its relevance to general education, its content, and expected outcomes. These are compulsory for all schools and have to be realised through the school curricula. It is, nevertheless, up to the schools themselves how they structure the individual education fields, and/or allocate or integrate topics.

RVP G also introduces a whole new set of the so called **cross-curricular subjects** (CCS) as a compulsory part of education. These deal with topical and current issues and “their main objectives are to influence the pupil's attitudes, value systems and conduct” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 65). Moreover, they aid in the development of key competencies. In this manner, they differ quite significantly from the ‘traditional’ subjects, which at this stage are rather knowledge-based.

There are many different forms of CCS implementation. Firstly CCSs topics may be covered through the educational content of regular subjects (e.g. Social Sciences, Mathematics). Secondly, CCSs may be realised through projects, debates or workshops. Next, they may be integrated in an inter-subject manner, through thematic blocks. Finally, they can form independent subjects. These forms may be combined freely. (Walterová, 2006)

In RVP G, there are the following CCSs (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 65):³⁴

- **Moral, Character and Social Education**
- **Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts**
- **Multicultural Education**
- **Environmental Education**
- **Media Education**

The current text further focuses only on the topic of Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts (ETEGC), as this is the key means of including the European and global dimension (see section 3.1) in the curriculum. The subject proposed in the research part of the paper also presents a way of realising the CCS in a school curriculum. For a more detailed description of this CCS, see section 4.2.3.

4.2.2 Foreign Language Learning and Teaching in Upper-secondary Education

The position of FLT in the new national curriculum was significantly strengthened, when compared with the previous curriculum. The main incentives were the European educational policies listed above as well as the general necessity of communication in more languages, both of which stem from the global nature of today's world.

In RVP G, foreign language teaching is included in the educational area **Language and Language Communication**, together with the educational field Czech Language and Literature. There are two fields focusing on the development of foreign languages – **Foreign Language**, i.e. L2, and **Second Foreign Language**, i.e. L3. According to data from 2006-2009 (Česká školní inspekce, 2010, p. 6), English dominates as L2 at all types and stages of schooling. Almost all pupils at primary schools, i.e. 99,4 %, start in year 3 with English as the first foreign language³⁵ (ibid., p. 7) which is why students at the end of their schooling typically attain the highest level in this language. Moreover, most upper-secondary school students choose English as the foreign language to take their final leaving exam from.³⁶ As English is typically taught as L2, the following section only deals with the educational field Foreign Language.

The general aim of the educational area Language and Language Communication is the development of communication skills, also as a means of development of abstract thinking. Students are to learn appropriate language use in various communication situations, both oral and written.

The educational objectives of this educational area aim at forming and developing key competencies by guiding the students towards (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 13):

- perceiving and using Czech as well as foreign languages as multiform means of processing and subsequently conveying information, knowledge and experiences acquired from interaction with the

³⁴ In the curriculum for basic / elementary education, there is also a CCS called **Democratic Citizenship**.

³⁵ The few exceptions are schools in regions bordering Germany, where the number of pupils choosing English as L2 is slightly smaller, i.e. 80 to 88% (Česká školní inspekce, 2010, p. 7).

³⁶ Students can choose from 5 foreign languages – English, French, German, Spanish, and Russian (Centrum pro zjišťování výsledků ve vzdělávání, 2016).

world and his/her own internal dialogue, of expressing his/her own needs and presenting his/her opinions as well as his/her independent solutions to problems and as means for further autonomous lifelong learning;

- mastering the basic rules of interpersonal communication in a given cultural environment and respecting them;
- forming a general overview of the social and historical development of human society, which aids in learning respect and tolerance for the different cultural values of various language communities;
- understanding himself/herself and his/her role in a range of communication situations, and defining his/her own position in relation to various communication partners;
- working creatively with not only factual but also artistic texts, which leads to the comprehension of the semantic structure of a text and its stylistic evaluation, which has a positive effect on the aesthetic, emotional and ethical aspects of the pupil's personality;
- forming an individual, objectively critical and overall positive attitude towards literature and towards the development of habits of reading both artistic and non-artistic literature individually, which are later reflected in the pupil's lifelong reading;
- shaping value orientations, taste preferences, and observing the surrounding world as well as oneself perceptively.

Educational Content and Expected Outcomes – Educational Field *Foreign Language*

The acquisition of foreign language competence is believed to be indispensable, both from a global perspective, as an aid to international communication, but also in terms of the personal use of the students, facilitating their access to information, personal contacts, and global mobility. RVP G clearly stresses the focus of FLT on developing communicative competence of students, as the objective for the learner is to be “gradually able to express oneself in oral as well as written forms and to create complex communication competencies” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 13).³⁷

FLT at the upper-secondary stage (grammar school) builds upon previous education at elementary / basic school (years 1-9). The *Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education* aims at attaining A2 level of CEFR in L2 and A1 in L3. Thus, RVP G aims at reaching B2 level in L2 and B1 level in L3. The Educational Field Foreign Language specifies that a student's foreign language should be developed in the various language systems – phonetics, orthography, grammar and lexis – but also in terms of function and discourse. Students should learn to work with various types of texts, of both formal and informal nature, both written and oral, both public and private. They should learn to identify communicational intention of the author, emotions conveyed by the text, etc. They should also learn to identify and produce specific text types. Moreover, the educational content comprises the study of the life and institutions of the target language communities; in the case of English this means British and American Studies. (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007)

In terms of skills development, RVP G identifies expected outcomes at the B2 level in the areas of receptive, productive, and interactive skills.

Receptive Language Skills (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 16)

³⁷ See section 5.2 for information on Communicative language teaching.

- understand the main points and ideas of an authentic oral expression with a rather complex content on a current topic and express its main as well as complementary information
- distinguish between individual speakers in a discourse, identify different styles, emotional tones, opinions and attitudes of the individual speakers
- understand the main points and ideas when reading an authentic text or written expression with a rather complex content on a current topic
- identify the structure of a text and distinguish between the main and complementary information
- find and accumulate information on a less common, specific topic from various texts and work with the information acquired
- infer the meaning of unknown words based on already acquired vocabulary, context, knowledge of word formation and cognates
- utilise various types of dictionaries, informative literature, encyclopaedias and media
- read literature in the language of study with comprehension
- describe the plot and the sequence of events in a film or play

Productive Language Skills (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 17)

- formulate his/her opinion in such a way that he/she is understood, using correct grammar, spontaneously and coherently
- reproduce freely and coherently an authentic text with vocabulary and language structures characteristic of a rather demanding text which he/she has read or listened to
- present a coherent speech on an assigned topic
- create lucid texts on a wide range of topics and express his/her attitudes
- describe in detail his/her surroundings, interests and activities related to them
- structure formal as well as informal written expressions logically and clearly, using different styles
- receive information of a rather complex content with a good degree of comprehension and be able to convey it in such a way that he/she is understood while using grammar correctly
- use a broad general vocabulary to develop argumentation without reducing the content of the communication
- employ monolingual and specialised dictionaries when writing on selected topics

Interactive Language Skills (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 17)

- express and defend his/her ideas, opinions and attitudes using appropriate written as well as oral forms
- comment on and discuss various opinions on non-fiction and fiction texts adequately and using correct grammar
- react spontaneously and using correct grammar in more complicated, less common situations while using appropriate phrases and expressions
- communicate fluently on abstract as well as specific topics in less common or specialised situations, respecting the rules of pronunciation
- begin, carry on and end conversations with native speakers and join in active discussion on various topics concerning more specialised interests

4.2.3 Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts

As outlined in the introductory chapters, contemporary educational approaches put a lot of stress on the education of a person – a citizen, who is equipped with the skills to successfully participate in the global world. Nevertheless, globalisation is a very complex phenomenon which may be difficult to grasp and understand. This is even truer for teenagers. Therefore, the CCS Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts (ETEGC) was introduced in the new curriculum with the aim of providing a critical reflection of recent global and developmental processes, including European and global dimension.

Even though the topics of ETEGC had traditionally been included in other educational contents, there had been too much emphasis on information and knowledge transmission, while too little focus on the behavioural and affective dimensions of the topics. Thus the earlier educational approach could have barely been described as one that “opens people’s eyes and minds to the realities of the world, and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all” (Council of Europe, 2002, p. 2; cf. section 3.1). Furthermore, as Walterová (2005a) sees it, the earlier curricula were missing an “integrating principle and a deeper understanding of the concept of Europe and of Europeanism”³⁸. On the other hand, establishing global education as a separate CCS enables teachers to make use of the various ways of integration, including projects, extra-curricular activities, and many others (see below).³⁹

Characteristics of the CCS and thematic areas

The ETEGC cross-curricular subject covers a wide range of topics, including economic, social, political, cultural, and environmental aspects of globalisation. It aims to help students “penetrate the nature of European integration and understand oneself in this context” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 69). Moreover, it hopes to encourage creative thinking as well as strengthen students’ responsibility for decision making and conduct in real-life situations (Walterová, 2006).

Below is a list of the individual thematic areas (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, pp. 71-73):

- **Globalisation and Developmental Processes** covers various issues associated with globalisation, the discussion of the concept itself, but also of its historical, geographical, socio-political, or economic context. Attention is also paid to cultural associations of globalisation, to the questions of ethnic, language and religious plurality. Finally, the topic focuses on an individual’s role and place within the global context and on the question of identity.

³⁸ „Analýzy dřívějších osnov však prokázaly, že zde chyběl integrující princip a hlubší objasnění pojmu Evropa a evropanství.“

³⁹ The revision of curricular documents is currently being discussed. Therefore, the CCS ETEGC may undergo a revision. A study produced by the National Institute for Education, Education Counselling Centre and Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (Skalická & Miléřová, 2017) only suggests a few changes, including the change of the name of the CCS to Global Development Education or Global Citizenship Education.

- **Global Problems, Their Causes and Effects** introduces issues such as uneven economic growth, poverty, migration, health, education, gender inequality and human rights in global contexts. Moreover, it focuses on organisations and institutions, both political and non-governmental dealing with the listed issues.
- **Humanitarian Aid and International-Development Cooperation** deals with the socio-historical context and with various institutions active in the field, including the United Nations. Related ethical issues such as Fair Trade are also included.
- **We as Europeans** specifically deals with European identity and with the integration process in Europe. The stress is not only on economic and political integration, but also on culture, listing topics such as cultural values and roots or famous Europeans.
- **Education in Europe and in the World** aims to introduce students to educational policies of the EU and to educational systems in other European countries. Moreover, it discusses opportunities and conditions for studying abroad.

Expected Outcomes of the CCS

In the area of attitudes and values, the CCS aims to help the student (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 70):

- assume responsibility for himself/herself and the world in which he/she lives;
- participate in solving local problems, contribute to solving problems on the regional, national and international levels actively, namely even in situations requiring long-term joint effort;
- become perceptive to cultural differences, understand them as an enrichment of life, learn to understand differences;
- realise the need for and benefit of solidarity and cooperation between people;
- respect and develop spiritual and moral values, mainly rationality, tolerance, social justice and democracy;
- respect the different opinions and views that other people may have on the world;
- show solidarity with people living in hard conditions;
- realise, respect and protect the values of the global as well as European cultural heritage;
- realise the impact and consequences of the globalisation and developmental processes, identify their positive as well as negative elements and phenomena, learn to seek compromises;
- take constructive stances on the burning questions of peace and human rights in specific life situations;
- combat violence, terrorism and harmful influences, which are the negative consequences of globalisation processes;
- realise the responsibilities and rights of European citizens, understand the concept of European citizenship.

In the area of knowledge, skills and abilities, the CCS is to help the student (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 71):

- think systemically and seek connections between various phenomena and processes;
- cooperate with others actively and effectively, identify with the situation and environment from which their attitudes stem when learning and evaluating their opinions;

- form his/her own opinion on the basis of the information obtained, become able to express and defend it with arguments in discussions on political, economic and social problems in the context of European and global developmental trends;
- become able to accept the opinions of others and revise his/her original views on the issue in question;
- take advantage of local, regional and international opportunities to test his/her civic skills and the mechanisms and structures of democracy;
- compare the differences and similarities between the cultures and lifestyles in Europe and in the world while using his/her own experience, public information and artistic production;
- evaluate critically and utilise experience from other cultural environments;
- understand historical continuity in European as well as global contexts with respect to the development of his/her own nation and state;
- perceive and evaluate both local and regional phenomena and problems in broader European and global contexts;
- support the attitudes of European and other nations striving for harmonious development, peace and democracy;
- reflect on solutions to problems and conflicts and find them while taking the historical experience of Europe as well as other parts of the world into account;
- orient himself/herself in unknown environments and international situations;
- acquire social and cultural skills which make intercultural and international communication easier;
- gain practical skills for his/her personal as well as working life in the open European area.

As can be seen from the overview, the expected outcomes are almost identical to those of global education and culture learning, as described above.

Integration of Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts

Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts is treated as a special subject, which is quite demanding in terms of its realisation:

The implementation of Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts in school practice exceeds the possibilities of instruction with the subjects traditionally divided. It requires effective team cooperation on the part of the teachers, the application of innovative and non-traditional educational procedures, techniques, forms and methods, cooperation between pupils, the preparation of projects, employment and support of extracurricular forms of learning and extracurricular activities. The implementation of this cross-curricular subject is also supported by, for example, contacts with important figures of public life, with social partners, with humanitarian organisations, cultural and social institutions in the region or cooperation with foreign, especially European, partner schools. (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 70)

To sum up, the subject requires an alternative approach. Walterová (2006) introduces four different approaches to realising the cross-curricular subject; her recommendation is to utilise a combination of all of the approaches.⁴⁰

The traditional **intra-subject approach** involves integrating the content of the CCS into a regular subject. This is the traditional approach which requires the least amount of work and adaptation on the part of the school. The above introduced subject matter is thus usually

⁴⁰ Skalická and Svobodová (2009) recommend conducting a SWOT analysis prior to decision-making regarding the integration of global education into a school's curriculum.

included in particular in the educational area Man and Society (including subjects Citizenship Education / Social Sciences⁴¹ and History) and Language and Language Communication. At the same time, topics dealing with European and global dimension can be found in literally every educational area. Walterová nevertheless points out that even such an approach should stress the European and global connections of the subject matter (e.g. topics in history should focus on the influence of world happenings on the development of Europe). Recommended educational forms and methods include student projects (individual, team, class, or whole-school projects) and / or panel discussions during which students present the results of their project work and research, challenging their attitudes, opinions, and experience. (Walterová, 2006)

The second approach, the **inter-subject approach** makes use of the pieces of knowledge from the individual scientific fields / subjects and integrates them in bigger themes and thematic blocks. For example, the theme ‘Great Europeans’ can implement knowledge from different fields (social and natural sciences, arts and literature), as well as cater to individual student interests. This approach calls for “thematic coordination” and “synchronization” of the topics in the subjects. (Walterová, 2006)

Next, an **integrated subject, seminar or course** can be established. This approach offers bigger flexibility than traditional subjects, as well as supports the use of experiential, research, and interactive methods, of cooperative teaching, and of project work. Walterová (2006) believes that this approach is particularly suited for the upper-secondary stage, as it enables students to focus on their field of future studies and thus develop their specific interests.

Finally, **extra-curricular activities** can further “deepen and intensify European and global dimension”⁴² (Walterová, 2006) of upper-secondary education by making the CCS even more attractive and motivational. A way of doing this is by cultivating international contacts (school or town partnerships), e.g. through Erasmus+ programmes. Other possibilities include setting up a language club, European club, or through simulations of European and international institutions, such as that of the European Parliament or of the United Nations. Walterová (ibid.) believes that “simulations of international acts, decision-making, or of the workings of international institutions, conferences, or diplomats encourages the development of vision, imagination, and creativity in students, as well as supports the experiential nature of education toward global and European thinking”⁴³.

In the research part of the paper, we propose a teaching model implementing a combination of the integrated subject approach with the extra-curricular approach, using the simulation of the United Nations.

⁴¹ In RVP G called Basics of Civics and Social Sciences (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 38).

⁴² „Mohou vhodně prohloubit evropskou a globální dimenzi” (Walterová, 2006).

⁴³ „Simulace mezinárodních aktů, rozhodování či jednání mezinárodních institucí, konferencí, diplomatů podporuje vize, fantazii, tvořivost a prožitkovost výchovy ke globálnímu a evropskému myšlení” (Walterová, 2006).

4.3 Summary

The given chapter introduced education policies both on the European and Czech level. It demonstrated that the policies aim for the education of a democratic citizen is to equip him/her with the cultural and language competencies that enable him or her to effectively operate in the current world.

On the national level, the Czech educational policy documents clearly reflect goals set by both the Council of Europe and by the European Union. This was exhibited specifically through the curricular reform that introduced a new curriculum with its focus on the development of skills and competences, displaying a more interdisciplinary approach, allowing for schools to create a more individualised school curriculum. In the new curriculum, more importance is placed on the development of foreign languages, again in line with the general trends on both the European and global scale.

Building on the incentive found in the national curriculum to make use of innovative and non-traditional educational procedures, the given paper experiments with a combination of the integrated subject approach and the extra-curricular approach to the integration of the ETGEC, and explores possible ways of combining it with ELT. Specifically, it utilises the method pinpointed by Walterová (2006) as the ideal way of integration of the subject at the upper-secondary level, namely the simulation method. In the research part of the paper, action research investigating the impact of the global simulation method, alongside a detailed proposal of the integrated subject is introduced.

In order to determine what exactly the global simulation is and how it can be implemented at the upper-secondary school level, we need to start with an introduction of the methodological context of the post-methods era and current communicative language teaching. Next, an understanding of how learners of the given age learn in the context of is sought, before outlining position the position of the simulation method among innovative language teaching methods.

5 Contemporary Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

The given chapter presents methodological aspects of contemporary language teaching, with a section on the post-methods era, current CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) and associated constructivist learning principles, and finally a section dealing with innovative methods. The knowledge of such a context is important for the understanding of why the global simulation method may – or may not – be a suitable one for the integration of FLT and global education. The theoretical findings from this chapter are further made use of in the research part of the paper.

5.1 The Post-methods Era and the Position of English

A number of articles and studies have been published since the beginning of the new millennium that deal with the trends that are currently influencing the way foreign languages, and English in particular, are taught. Literally all authors agree that foreign language teaching (FLT) methodology is way past the ‘methods era’ and that it has entered a ‘**post-methods era**’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; cf. ‘post-method condition’, Kumaravadivelu, 1994), characterised by “a general distrust of ‘one-size-fits-all’ methods” (Thornbury, 2006, p. 73). It is believed that classical methods of FLT are “too prescriptive and too insensitive to local contextual factors” (ibid., p. 131) as well as to the needs and goals of both learners and teachers (Brown, 2002; Kim, 2011; Waters, 2012; Widdowson, 2006). Because of the postmodern nature of the present-day situation, “there is often no clear right or wrong way of teaching according to an approach and no prescribed body of practice waiting to be implemented” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 246). In summary, “the whole concept of separate methods is no longer a central issue in language teaching practice” (Brown, 2002, p. 10).

The turn of the millennium in FLT was characterised in terms of a shift in favour of **eclecticism** which involves customised teaching approaches that combine various techniques. Nevertheless, such a selection should not be an ad-hoc one, authors stress. On the contrary, it should be based on classroom research, needs analysis, respecting specific sociocultural contexts of language learning and use, and subjected to continuous monitoring; in short, to a principled selection (hence ‘**principled eclecticism**’, Larsen-Freeman, 2000; ‘**principled pragmatism**’, Kumaravadivelu, 1994; ‘**appropriate methodology**’, Holliday, 1994 (cit. in Waters, 2012)). This approach leaves much “to the individual teacher’s interpretation, skill, and expertise” (Richards & Rodgers 2001, p. 246); the teacher is presupposed to be an “enlightened” professional and an expert in the field of methodology (Brown, 2002, p. 11). This is obviously a rather challenging demand and, indeed, such an approach is not without its problems.

Another point which is almost unanimously agreed on is the special position of the English language as a means of international communication in the **globalised** age. Widdowson (2004, p. 362) goes as far as to claim that English became “not just an international language but the international language, ... the global language and the language of globalization”. According to Kim (2011, p. 2), the fact that English is used as the first international language “makes it impossible to discuss issues related to the language without relating it to

globalization.” Thus, the question of a possible linguistic imperialism and dominance, which is in direct opposition to the preservation of diversity (Widdowson, 2004) is discussed through the critical theory perspective on language teaching (Waters, 2012). Similarly, attention is drawn to the problem of “commercial exploitation of English” associated with the consumer society and utilitarian use of language teaching (Widdowson, 2004). That is why authors agree that it is necessary to develop intercultural awareness alongside communicative skills (Kim, 2011; Risager, 2007).

While English language teaching (ELT) authors are not in accord as to the qualitative nature of the global role of English, there is a broad consensus that ELT has moved in the direction of “communicating to learn” approach (Waters, 2012) connected to the focus on “practical proficiency”; thus, we have witnessed a shift from “language study” to “language learning” (Widdowson, 2004, p. 354). This is also associated with the emergence of task-based language teaching and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), but also with Dogme ELT which again calls for a more context-based, learner-centred methodology, based on creativity rather than on prefabricated lessons and dependence on “constant fix of materials and technology” (Meddings & Thornbury, 2003; cf. Waters, 2012; Widdowson, 2004). To sum up, the development of communicative and intercultural competence has become the ultimate goal of language teaching.⁴⁴

⁴⁴ **Communicative competence** is considered “one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics” (Bagarić, 2007, p. 94). The term was coined by Hymes in 1972 as an opposition to Chomsky’s theory of competence from 1965. Chomsky based his theory on the distinction between **competence**, the native speaker’s knowledge of language, and **performance**, use of language in real-life situations. This idea was soon challenged on the grounds that such a concept of language is too idealised and sterile. Hymes proposed an alternative concept of communicative competence which aimed at what “a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community” (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 70). In Hymes’ understanding, communicative competence is not only the “inherent grammatical competence but also ... the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations, thus bringing a sociolinguistics perspective into Chomsky’s linguistics view of competence.” (Bagarić, 2007, p. 95). Thus, a person can be said to have acquired communicative competence once they possess both the knowledge and the ability to perform in a way that is formally possible, feasible, and appropriate in a given communicative situation (Hymes, 1972 in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, pp. 69-70). Many other linguistic theories of communication have since then been proposed, such as Halliday’s (1970) which defines seven basic functions of language in first language learning, or Widdowson’s (1978, 1983) focusing on communicative acts and conventions, applying a pragmatic view of language to the theory, turning yet more attention to real life use (Bagarić, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Another influential theory in the field of applied linguistics was introduced by Canale and Swain (1980, 1981). Their model comprises the following levels: **grammatical competence**, the knowledge of linguistically correct use of language, **sociolinguistic competence**, the knowledge and comprehension of social rules, roles, conventions etc., **discourse competence**, the knowledge of rules of how meaning is created and interpreted in a discourse, and **strategic competence**, the knowledge of communicative strategies. (Bagarić, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2001)

Yet another model was proposed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) who introduce the concepts of **language knowledge**, including grammatical, textual, functional, and sociolinguistic knowledge, and **strategic knowledge** that includes goal setting, assessment, and planning of communicative situation. (Bagarić, 2007)

Finally, the model of communicative competence as outlined in Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001) comprises the following areas: linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competencies, and pragmatic competencies. The authors of CEF, nevertheless, make it clear that this model is in no way normative and that users of the framework may well employ another model for their purposes. **Linguistic competence** (p. 109) is defined here as “knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated” and is made up of lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic competence. **Sociolinguistic competence** (p. 118) is understood as “the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use”. Sociolinguistic competence in this perception thus deals with linguistic markers such as social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk-wisdom, register differences and dialect and accent. **Pragmatic competence** (p. 123) covers discourse and functional competence. It is worth noting that, the authors of CEF specifically state that when realising their communicative intentions, speakers also use their general capacities, such as declarative knowledge (of the world, sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness), skills, and know-how (practical and intercultural skills), existential

The above described methodology debate has been an ongoing one in the academic setting. Nevertheless, as Waters (2012) points out, it has not necessarily been reflected in the teaching reality. He thus makes a distinction between “professional discourse” and “classroom reality” and claims that despite the academic discussions, the classroom reality has remained relatively unchanged, and expects that “the gap ... between ELT methodology at the level of theorizing, on the one hand, and of indicative classroom practice on the other, will continue to exist for the foreseeable future” (ibid., p. 448). This opinion has been seconded by other authors including Thornbury (2006, p. 131) who concludes that in reality “most teachers tend to teach using the method in which they were originally trained, supplemented by activities gleaned from coursebooks”.

Having said that, the practical day-to-day classroom reality does display some new features that had previously been absent from it. Thus, when listing ELT trends, the quoted authors pay attention to the emergence of various specific areas of ELT including English for Specific Purposes (ESP, Widdowson, 2004) or Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL, Kim, 2011). Furthermore, the arrival and extensive use of ICT in language teaching has not gone unnoticed. Various authors specifically point to computer assisted learning as a means of developing learner independence and initiative (Widdowson, 2004) but also more generally to the omnipresence of ICT in language teaching and to its effects on the learning processes (Kim, 2011; Waters, 2012). Moreover, the problems of corpus linguistics and associated with “real English” use for pedagogical purposes is discussed and sometimes questioned (Widdowson, 2004). Many authors also call for more data gathered through classroom based research (Kim, 2011; Lightbrown & Spada, 2006; Waters, 2012), which can be realised by means of action research methodology (Elliott, 1981; Korthagen et al., 2011; McKernan, 1988). Finally, as has been pointed out earlier, there is a focus on linking language and culture teaching and learning.

The cultural context of teaching English is reflected in yet another area of methodology, namely the requirement to distinguish between learners of L2 as second language and learners of L2 as foreign language. The first group learns their target language in a context where L2 has prominence; learners are thus surrounded by the target language and get a lot of exposure to it even outside the formal educational (i.e. school) setting. **Second language** is thus defined as “a language which is not a native language in a country but which is widely used as a medium of communication (e.g. in education and government)” (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 143). **Foreign language**, on the other hand, is a language which is “not used as a medium of instruction in schools nor as a language of communication within the country (e.g. in government, business, or industry)” (ibid.). Learners of L2 as foreign language thus have less exposure to the target language outside educational settings and have fewer opportunities for using the language.

When talking about learning English, European methodologists distinguish between teaching **English as a second language** (ESL / TESL) and teaching **English as a Foreign Language** (EFL / TEFL). Interestingly enough, no such distinction in North American applied linguistics

competence, and learning ability (language and communication awareness, general phonetic awareness and skills, study skills, heuristic skills).

is found, and the terms are used interchangeably (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 142), with ESL often referring to both contexts. Psychological literature on language learning also uses a comprehensive term **second language acquisition** (SLA), referring to “the processes by which people develop proficiency in a second or foreign language” (ibid, p. 325); the distinction between EFL and ESL is not present in the actual term.

In the given text, we are preoccupied with teaching English as a Foreign Language. The method under scrutiny, the global simulation method, is thus approached from the point of view of TEFL.

Having introduced some major methodological questions of the post-methods era and the notion that there is no longer trust in a single correct method, we can still claim that there is an approach that keeps on being used in ELT classrooms around the world even in the post-methods situation. This approach is the Communicative language teaching (CLT). Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 244) claim that CLT “continues to be considered the most plausible basis for language teaching today, although ... CLT is today understood to mean little more than a set of very general principles that can be applied and interpreted in a variety of ways”. It is also believed (ibid., p. 1) that CLT has “since its inception in the 1970s... served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice around the world” and “marks the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 151).⁴⁵ That is why the following section is devoted to the currently most prominent language teaching approach and a basic overview of its tenets.

⁴⁵ Richards (2006, p. 6) divides teaching methodologies of the past 50 years into 3 phases starting with **traditional approaches** (up to the late 1960s), followed by **classic communicative language teaching** (1970s to 1990s) and **current communicative language teaching** (late 1990s to the present).

Communicative language teaching (CLT) originated in the late 1960s as a response to several incentives. Firstly, it was a reaction to the criticism of the structural linguistic theories that the predominant language teaching methodologies at the time, Audio-Lingual Method in the USA and Situational Language Teaching in the UK, were based on. Linguists, sociolinguists and philosophers called for more emphasis on **communication** in FLT. Hand in hand with this, FLT should take into consideration the needs of the language learners and on the use of language in real-life situations. Sociolinguistics was gaining more prominence and the speech act theory in particular contributed greatly to the theory on which CLT is built. Last but not least, the growing interdependence of European countries, particularly through the activities of the European Common Market or the Council of Europe, brought about the need to improve the quality of FLT and raise foreign language competence of Europeans in general. According to Howatt and Widdowson (2004, p. 332) there were “two areas of special concern” of CLT. Firstly, the focus was on adult L2 learners to achieve a basic of communicative ability in order to function effectively abroad (The Threshold Level, Council of Europe, 1970s). Secondly, the introduction of specific areas of FL study, focusing on professional or academic needs, resulting in the establishment of areas of ELT such as ESP (English for Specific Purposes) or EAP (English for Academic Purposes). The focus on communication, the utilisation of sociolinguistic studies, alongside the studies of the needs of European users brought about the introduction of **functional-notional syllabus**. This type of syllabus, as opposed to the structural one used earlier, organized educational content around two categories – **notional categories**, e.g. time, and **functional categories**, e.g. requests. Vocabulary and grammar are chosen according to these (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As it was adopted by the Council of Europe, it soon gained a prominent role and influenced FLT programmes throughout Europe. According to Howatt and Widdowson (2004, p. 327) a “revolution” was started and whereas “in 1970 expressions like ‘the communicative approach’ were virtually unknown, by 1980 they were commonplace” and CLT became a mainstream approach to FLT. As has been mentioned earlier, a key characteristic of CLT is its focus on the development of the four language skills alongside structural features of the language and the recognition that language and communication are mutually dependent. Nevertheless, the level of prominence of communication in CLT seems to differ in different strands of CLT. Thus, Howatt and Widdowson (2004, p. 337) claim that there are two opposing perspectives on the role of communication. The more predominant, “mainstream” strand claims that “effective communication is the objective of language teaching which exists to prepare learners to use their new language communicatively whenever the opportunity to do so occurs in the outside world. To reach this objective it is the job of the teacher to provide appropriate examples of the target language and to devise activities and tasks which rehearse learners in its effective use.” On the other hand, a contrasting model maintains that communication as such is a “necessary condition for language acquisition” (ibid.) as language is acquired through communication. In his earlier work Howatt (1984 in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 66), these two strands were called **weak** and **strong version** of CLT. “If the former could be described as

5.2 Current Communicative Language Teaching and Learning

Richard and Rodgers (2001) characterise the CLT approach by introducing its ultimate goal, i.e. for the learner to use language as a means of expression on both the cognitive and affective levels. This should be achieved by the use of various types of meaningful tasks and activities, whose range is literally unlimited. According to Richard and Rodgers (2001, p. 152) “this notion of direct rather than delayed practice of communicative acts is central to most CLT interpretations”.

5.2.1 Teaching perspectives

At the time of its origin, CLT offered a radically different view of learner and teacher roles, when compared with other contemporary approaches. CLT as a learner-centred approach enabled learners to be more independent, and at the same time more responsible for their own learning and progress. The teacher was, on the other hand, no longer a transmitter of knowledge, but rather functioned as a facilitator, organizer, guide, or counsellor. Another new aspect introduced by CLT was the modified approach to learners’ errors (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). As opposed to the earlier behaviourist tradition which viewed mistakes as bad habits which had to be rectified immediately, the new approach brought about the understanding, based on psychological research, that mistakes are elements naturally occurring when language learning takes place.⁴⁶ Importantly enough, learners must be involved in meaningful activities which have a direct relevance to real life. To support this, there are many different types of instructional materials, including a variety of visuals, text-based and task-based materials, realia, and ICT. Theoretically, any material can be used for CLT purposes, providing it is sufficiently graded and adopted. Widdowson (2004) also points out the need for learners to be involved in problem solving. Simply put, learners must discover a lot about the language themselves and use it in practical situations and tasks in order for learning to actually take place (cf. constructivist approach to learning, section 5.2.2). Since the beginning of the millennium, CLT has continued to develop hand in hand with research in SLA⁴⁷. As has been mentioned earlier, CLT is nowadays considered mostly a “set of core principles about language learning and teaching”.⁴⁸ These core assumptions include the following (Richards, 2006, pp. 22-23):

1. Second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication.
2. Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.

‘learning to use’ English, the latter entails ‘using English to learn it’. While the weak version was subsequently adopted by most ELT teachers and textbook authors, the second approach has typically been used in immersion situations. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004)

⁴⁶ This notion was later coupled with that of interlanguage, referring to a learner’s variety of the target language when they are in the process of learning it.

⁴⁷ Cf. section 5.2.2.

⁴⁸ There currently are two strands of approaches in CLT, namely process-based approaches, including content-based and task-based teaching, and product-based approaches. Task-based teaching makes the crucial difference between ‘exercise’, an activity dealing with a linguistic issue, and ‘task’, an activity dealing with a non-linguistic problem by means of language. Importantly, tasks are seen as central activities to language teaching, rather than just supportive. (Richards, 2006; Widdowson, 2004)

3. Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging.
4. Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.
5. Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.
6. Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language, and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning, the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.
7. Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.
8. Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.
9. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.
10. The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

5.2.2 Constructivist learning perspective

In the previous section, the tenets of CLT approach were introduced, which are built upon the socio-cognitive / constructivist approach to learning, embodied by a household name of constructivist psychology, Lev Vygotsky. Vygotsky's concepts of scaffolding and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD, see below), coupled with the stress on communication and interaction as necessary preconditions for learning have been adopted as some of the building-stones of most of the current FLT methodologies and teaching methodologies in general. Walqui (2006, p. 160) summarises Vygotsky's learning theory in the following way:

- Learning precedes development.
- Language is the main vehicle (tool) of thought.
- Mediation is central to learning.
- Social interaction is the basis of learning and development. Learning is a process of apprenticeship and internalisation in which skills and knowledge are transformed from the social into the cognitive plane.
- The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the primary activity space in which learning occurs.

We can clearly see the link between constructivism and CLT when quoting Richards (2006, p. 4), who claims that

in recent years, language learning has been ... seen as resulting from processes such as:

- Interaction between the learner and users of the language
- Collaborative creation of meaning
- Creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language
- Negotiation of meaning as the learner and his or her interlocutor arrive at understanding
- Learning through attending to the feedback learners get when they use the language

- Paying attention to the language one hears (the input) and trying to incorporate new forms into one's developing communicative competence⁴⁹
- Trying out and experimenting with different ways of saying things

The proponents of the socio-cognitive approaches believe that there is a very strong connection between an individual's cognitive development and the development of their language. Lantolf (1994, p. 419) thus stresses the key role of **mediation** in language and skills development, be it in the form of the “self-controlled linguistic mediation” (inner speech) or scaffolding (see below). Furthermore, active involvement of learners in the learning process is believed to be a prerequisite that has to be met in order for learning and knowledge construction to take place (e.g. Dupuy, 2006; Kasíková, 2010; Levine, 2004; Sewell, 2002). In the constructivist understanding, “learners construct knowledge by solving complex problems in situations in which they use cognitive tools, multiple sources of information, and other individuals as sources“ (Blumenfeld et al., 1991, p. 371). Learning is thus not a simple transfer of knowledge from a more knowledgeable person to a less knowledgeable one, as understood by transmissive models of teaching, but rather a complex activity in which the learner is fully engaged and active (hence “active restructuring”, Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

In the process of knowledge construction, learners work with and modify their **existing beliefs** (preconceptions) about the nature and functioning of the world surrounding them, which are often wrong (misconceptions) (Čáp & Mareš, 2001; Kasíková, 2010). According to Sewell (2002, p. 24), “pre-existing understandings are the foundation upon which new knowledge is constructed. New conceptions are only learnt and retained if they can be fitted or joined to already existing knowledge.” Such a process also requires **self-regulation**, a learner's “proactive efforts to mobilize emotional, cognitive, and environmental resource during learning” (Gredler, 2001, cited in Bertrand, 2003, p. 161). What follows is that learning also means **developing responsibility**, not only for one's own learning,⁵⁰ but also for the learning and comfort of others (Csikszentmihalyi, 1995).

Learning always takes place in a context and therefore cultural⁵¹ and social factors play a key role in the cognitive development of a person. Vygotsky believed that cognitive development happens through the process of **internalisation**, i.e. through learning from environment. The environment (physical surroundings, social class, national culture, etc.) greatly influences the type of knowledge that is internalised by the learner.⁵² Especially important are the interactions happening in the learner's **zone of proximal development** (ZPD). ZPD is the distance between a learner's current development level (performance), as demonstrated when solving problems individually, and his or her level of potential development (competence), as

⁴⁹ The socio-cognitive approach has been applied to SLA through various hypotheses. According the **interaction hypothesis**, conversational interactions are necessary for acquisition to take place. Moreover, seconding Krashen, input has to be comprehensible for the learner. What is more important, thought, is the possibility provided to the learner in the form of a successful interaction. On a similar note, Swain offers her **comprehensible output hypothesis**, claiming that the production of language comprehensible to their interaction partner is necessary for language development. (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006)

⁵⁰ This way, they also learn to approach information critically, to choose adequate learning strategies, etc.

⁵¹ Bruner specifies the meaning of **culture** and relates it to sets of rules and behaviours used by an individual to adapt to a specific situation. In his theory, **learning** is then understood “as a form of interpretation and action in a particular cultural setting” (Bertrand, 2003, p. 160).

⁵² That is why the theory is also called social-cultural, even though this term was introduced much later (Lantolf & Beckett, 2009).

demonstrated when solving problems with the help of another person. The potential, i.e. higher, developmental level can be reached and the action performed with the assistance of a more knowledgeable or experienced person, typically a parent, a teacher, or even a peer. Such assistance in reaching the higher level is referred to as **scaffolding** and can take various forms, be it modelling, imitation, cooperation, or hands-on learning. On the other hand, when unaided, the learner is unlikely to reach the potential level and perform the task. Thus, sociocultural elements play a key role in the learning process and can speed up cognitive development. (Lantolf, 2000; Mareš, 2013; Sternberg, 2009)

In **language learning**, scaffolding can be provided in various forms, such as “contextual support for meaning through the use of simplified language teacher modelling, visuals, and graphics, cooperative learning and hands-on learning” (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003, p. 345, cit. in Khaliliaqdam, 2014, p. 891). Walqui (2006) lists six main types of scaffolding that may, and should, be employed in FLT classes, namely modelling, bridging, contextualisation, building schema, re-presenting text and developing metacognition. **Modelling** involves demonstrating the task procedure, providing examples of appropriate language, “walking students through” the activity before asking them to do it themselves. **Bridging** comprises of activating prior student language knowledge and thus integrating new language structures into the already existing ones. In order to help students with understanding new language, **context**, both non-linguistic information (by means of sensory context, i.e. pictures, realia), and linguistic one (e.g. analogies) can be provided. **Schema** involves the organisation of knowledge; e.g. when dealing with an academic text, noting headlines or reading the outline of a presentation before the actual reading can make understanding easier. **Re-presenting** involves “the transformation of linguistic constructions ... found modelled in one genre into forms used in another genre” (ibid., p. 174), e.g. by transforming an article into a drama piece. Finally, developing **metacognition** comprises explicit teaching of strategies that help learners with approaching a task, such as teaching various listening or reading sub-skills.

Because learning is seen as a social activity, **cooperation** is a key principle. According to Johnson and Johnson (1994, pp. 4-6) cooperative learning is characterised by “positive interdependence” among learners’ goals. An individual can only reach their goal if the other members of the learning group reach theirs (“You win, I win.”). This is in contrast with competitive learning based on “negative interdependence” (“I win, you lose.”), and with individualistic leaning, where there is no interdependence among learners and their goals.⁵³

Cooperation does not mean mere **group work** and does not follow from simply putting students in small groups. On the contrary, group work is perceived purely as an organisational form or classroom arrangement, which, moreover, does not necessarily trigger cooperation or team work. Some of the essential components of cooperation are **positive interdependence** as described above, **promotive (face-to-face) interaction**, **individual accountability** (all members are responsible for both their individual as well as group products), development of **interpersonal skills**, and **group processing** in the form of reflection and feedback on group

⁵³ According to research, cooperative goal structure is used up to 20% of classroom time, but should actually be used much more (60-70%) and only be complemented by individualistic (20%, e.g. in the form of individual research) and competitive structure of (10-20%, e.g. in the form of team competition serving as feedback) (Johnson & Johnson 1994, pp. 30-32).

work (Johnson & Johnson, 1994, pp. 22-23). All of these components can successfully be put in practice in CLT.

5.2.2.1 Factors influencing foreign language learning of adolescents

FLT methodology makes more and more use of the results of various research studies, many of which deal with factors that influence second language learning and acquisition. In order to provide the best learning environment for language learners, especially of a particular age, it is useful to know what their learning characteristics are. According to academic literature, there are numerous factors, both exogenous and endogenous, that have an influence on the result of foreign language learning.

Exogenous factors include the age of acquisition and age of first exposure to L2 in formal (classroom) settings, the amount of contact with L2 in various modalities and the use of L2 in daily activities as well as school content areas (Birdsong, 2005). **Internal** variables, on the other hand, typically encompass age (i.e. current age of the learner), intelligence, language aptitude, learning styles and strategies, personality, motivation and attitudes, or gender, social and ethnic identity. Authors agree that while it is possible to work with and develop most areas to a certain degree, motivation “has yielded the most predictive outcomes” (Melzi & Schick, 2012, p. 55) and is believed to be most easily influenced. (Dornyei, 2003, 2006 in Melzi & Schick, 2012; Lightbrown & Spada, 2006)

The listed individual variables affect learning to various degrees, and are also subject to change at a smaller or larger scale. Even though they are of great interest to second language acquisition (SLA) research, “understanding the relationship between individual differences, social situations, and success in second language learning is a great challenge” (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006, p. 56).

Bearing in mind the complexity of the given topic, the following section will restrict itself to a brief overview of selected learning characteristics of late adolescents that seem to be most salient, namely age, gender, and motivation, and their influence on foreign language learning. The period of late adolescence (ca. 15 to 20) corresponds to upper-secondary school age, as these are the target group of the current research. Even though there exists an extensive body of literature dealing with the problems of first exposure to L2 in second language situations or with the application of the Critical period hypothesis to second language learning, this section focuses purely on learning characteristics on teenagers in FLT situations.

The period of late adolescence

From the point of view of **general developmental psychology** (Vágnerová, 2005), the period of late adolescence is characterised by complex psycho-social changes of one’s personality. This is demonstrated e.g. by the development of complex cognitive processes (abstract and hypothetical thinking, plurality in thinking) or by a changing significance of various social groups (increased importance of peer- and partner relationships etc.). Moreover, the process of identity construction is under way and thus the teenager’s self-image is extremely

important for one's development. In terms of needs, self-actualization and the need for an open future life prospect, connected to future orientation of one's thoughts and actions, progressively gain in importance. Adolescents are rather self-centred and egocentric which makes it difficult for them to accept criticism and tolerate authority. Learning to communicate, to express their own opinions and to respect the opinions of others is therefore very important at this age.

Late adolescence is further characterised by the development of better memory strategies and metacognition, as well as by extended control over one's attention. On the other hand, teenagers often lack control over their emotions, which tend to change rapidly and are associated with inadequate and powerful reactions.

The age factor in foreign language learning of adolescents

Interestingly enough, little attention has been paid to this age group in SLA literature. Most of such literature deals with teaching teenagers, i.e. with pedagogy and methodology, but little has been written about how they learn and in what learning characteristics they differ from other age groups (Deubelbeiss, 2010). There is an on-going debate as to which age group makes better students – children, or adults (adolescents are typically not mentioned as a separate age group). When it comes to cognitive factors, some researchers (cf. Kissau, Adams, & Algizzine, 2015) show that younger learners have an advantage in terms of a smaller likelihood of language interference⁵⁴. Moreover, not until early adolescence is the human brain lateralized, which brings about certain cognitive advantages. All of these advantages, however, seem to have disappeared no later than at the onset of puberty (beginning of lower-secondary stage), and from this point of view, adolescents rather resemble adults than young children. Regarding the affective realm, children are advantaged by the lack of stress and anxiety which also starts disappearing at the onset of puberty. As Brown (2007, p. 68, cited in Kissau, Adams, & Algizzine, 2015) points out, “perhaps around the age of 14 or 15, the prospect of learning a second language becomes overwhelming” and this can in turn hinder language learning. From this point of view, children seem to learn a foreign language more easily and naturally than adults. Adolescents may still benefit from this advantage, provided they find themselves in a safe learning environment and a supportive learning community.

On the other hand, some studies have proposed that “adults enjoy certain cognitive-related benefits when learning another language” (Kissau, Adams, & Algizzine, 2015, p. 286), and that L2 learners at a higher age are able to use “their metalinguistic knowledge, memory strategies, and problem-solving skills”, and “make the most of second or foreign language instruction” (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006, p. 69). Adults learn fast and make more progress, especially in situations when they can use the learned language in various interactions, be it social, personal, or academic (i.e. ‘real-life’). These surely are some of the assets that teenagers can make use of and utilize in their own learning.

⁵⁴ “Negative transfer, also known as interference, is the use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language” (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 205).

It can be said that from a **cognitive** perspective, the way teenagers learn languages is more similar to that of adults, rather than to that of children, as they can already employ some of the metalinguistic knowledge and skills described above. Adolescents also use more complex learning strategies and have a better memory than children. As Zhang (2009, p. 134) points out, “just like adults, adolescents can also take advantage of the language regulations they have learnt to monitor their outputs.”⁵⁵ Moreover, they are advantaged over adults by the fact that they “have a very flexible and still under development cognitive network” (Espino, 2015). Furthermore, today’s teenagers, who have been growing up in the presence of digital media, might be in need of different learning activities than their older counterparts. Some authors go as far to claim that such learners “think differently from the rest of us. They develop hypertext minds.” (Winn, quoted in Prensky, 2001). Therefore, teenaged learners require more “multimodal content” (Deubelbeiss, 2010) and a lot of sensory input in order for learning to take place.

Motivation and international posture

Most differences between adolescents and other age groups can, nevertheless, be found in the affective realm, in particular in terms of their motivation. **Motivation** is believed to be at the core of learning and the active engagement of students in the learning process. At the same time, it is considered to be one of the main determinants of foreign language teaching. Broadly speaking, motivation comprises factors regulating a person’s desire to do – or not do – something (Krejčová, 2011; Lokšová & Lokša 1999; Pecina & Zormanová, 2009; Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992).

Adolescents prefer to learn in ways that are **fun** and **engaging** (Kissau, Adams, & Algizzine, 2015). As Melzi and Schick (2012, p. 68) put it, “enjoyment for learning languages is an important source of motivation for high school and college students”; in contrast, this is not so for adult learners, authors point out. This goes hand in hand with the fact that teenagers enjoy learning languages if they find it **relevant** and **meaningful**, i.e. when they see a clear connection to the real world.

When it comes to English specifically, an “interest in English-language cultural products” is found to be a strong motivating factor for upper-secondary school students (Melzi & Schick, 2012, p. 68). This characteristic, called the **international posture**, i.e. “the valuing of English as an international language”⁵⁶, is claimed to be connected to learner motivation and achievement and to play a key role in learning English as L2 (Melzi & Schick, 2012, 68, 71). According to Yashima (2002), “international posture influences motivation, which, in turn, predicts proficiency and L2 communication confidence” (p. 63). This concept is also believed to reflect the globalised nature of English, and relates to the cosmopolitan identity and motivation of English language learners (Kormos & Scizér, 2008).

⁵⁵ Children are generally short of monitoring competency (ibid.).

⁵⁶ Yashima (2002, p. 57) defines the term as follows: “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude towards different cultures”.

Various classifications of motivation have been put forward in the last couple of decades. First, the dichotomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will be introduced, followed by the concept of flow, and Dornyei's framework of L2 motivation.

Intrinsic motivation involves “the choices people make for their own sake without considering any external component” (Espinar Renondo, & Ortega Martín, 2015, p. 127), whereas **extrinsic** motivation is linked to an outer incentive, such as reward or punishment. While intrinsic motivation is associated with natural interest and curiosity of learners, extrinsic motivation is seen as something that weakens it. Dornyei (1994, p. 276) goes as far as to conclude that “several studies have confirmed that students will lose their natural intrinsic interest in an activity if they have to do it to meet some extrinsic requirement”, which is typical of traditional classroom settings.

The associated concept of **flow** introduced by Csikszentmihalyi is used as a subcategory of intrinsic motivation. It is a state characterised by deep immersion in a task or activity which is intrinsically enjoyable, and at the same time under control; this in sum leads to improved performance.⁵⁷ In language learning situations, flow is characterised by the existing balance between challenges of a communicative situation on the one hand and communicative skills required to face the challenges on the other (Egbert, 2003; Shernoff et al., 2003).

There are believed to be many factors associated with **motivation** in the context of **L2 learning**. One of the most concise frameworks of L2 motivation was proposed by Dornyei (1994), according to whom there are three basic levels of motivation reflecting the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process, namely the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. What is of utmost importance, Dornyei believes, is that motivation *can* be influenced at various levels, especially on the learning situation level.⁵⁸

Firstly, the *language level* comprises two basic types of motivation: **integrative**, which covers motives associated with wanting to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture, interest in foreign languages and foreignness. On the other hand, **instrumental** motivation refers to the usefulness of a language for certain instrumental goals – e.g. getting a job, reading a foreign newspaper, or passing an exam. This motivational level can be advanced by including sociocultural components and developing cross-cultural awareness by direct and indirect contact with other cultures. This way, learners are also encouraged to confront and compare various cultures and acquire culture-specific and culture-general knowledge and skills. (Dornyei, 1994)

Secondly, at the *level of the learner* and their personality traits, there are believed to be two motivational components, i.e. the **need for achievement** and **self-confidence** which cover various aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence,⁵⁹ attributions about past

⁵⁷ Egbert (2003, p. 500) interestingly points out that Krashen (1982) “identifies the experience most similar to flow in the language acquisition literature. This principle is that ‘the best input is so interesting and relevant that the acquirer may even ‘forget’ that the message is encoded in a foreign language’ (p. 66)”.

⁵⁸ The global simulation method has the capacity to develop motivation, as students have their learning under control to a great extent.

⁵⁹ In the research part of the paper we work with the Self-perceived communication competence scale, see section 7.4.2

experiences, and self-efficacy (see the following section).⁶⁰ Dornyei believes that this level of motivation is best increased by building up students' confidence through providing praise and encouragement as well as highlighting achievements, alongside with teaching students learning strategies or goal-setting.⁶¹ (Dornyei, 1994)

Finally, at the *learning situation level*, three areas / motivational components are to be found. The first one, **course-specific motivational components**, include a syllabus, teaching materials, teaching methods, and learning tasks.⁶² These can be enhanced by creating and involving attractive and student-relevant material and topics, adjusting the difficulty of tasks to suit learners' needs, etc. The **teacher-specific motivational components** include the teacher's personality, teaching style, feedback, and relationship with the students.⁶³ This level can be influenced by the teacher being more student-centred, by adopting the role of a facilitator,⁶⁴ or by promoting learner autonomy. Finally, the **group-specific motivational components** involve various aspects of the learner group dynamics.⁶⁵ These can be enhanced by initiating discussions about group and individual goals, by establishing and maintaining common classroom norms, and using cooperative techniques. (Dornyei, 1994)

Not all authors share Dornyei's views. According to Kormos and Scizér (2008), the concept of integrative motivation has been attacked for its lack of validity in the contemporary world. Most students, especially in the case of English used as a lingua franca, do not learn the language to communicate with native speakers, but rather to use the language in non-native settings; in other words, "in a context where there is little daily contact with native speakers of English, learners are not likely to have a clear affective reaction to the specific L2 language group" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57; cf. the concept of international posture introduced earlier). That is why the authors believe that "integrativeness has no relevance in today's world" (Kormos & Scizér, 2008, p. 330).⁶⁶

⁶⁰ "Self-efficacy refers to an individual's judgement of his or her ability to perform a specific action" (Dornyei, 1994, p. 277; cf. Krejčová, 2013).

⁶¹ A related **L2 Motivational Self System Framework** operates on three more dimensions: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to Self, covering traits and attributes that we believe we should have, and L2 Learning Environment, comprising motives related to a specific learning experience. Here, motivation comes about from the intention to lessen the gap between one's actual self and one's ought-to-self. (Dornyei, 1994; Kormos & Scizér, 2008)

⁶² Course-specific motivational components operate with the motivational conditions of *interest, relevance, expectancy, satisfaction*.

⁶³ Teacher-specific motivational components comprise *the affiliative drive*, i.e. the wish to please the teacher, *authority type*, and *direct socialization of student motivation*, i.e. the way a teacher provides a model to students, presents tasks, and provides feedback.

⁶⁴ In the humanistic tradition, the teacher's role is to support, remove barriers hindering progress, helping in the development of features that have always been present (Folprechtová, 2002).

⁶⁵ Group-specific motivational components include *goal-orientedness, norm and reward system, group cohesion*, and *classroom goal structure* (classroom goal structure may be competitive, cooperative, or individualistic – see note 53).

⁶⁶ Another concept closely related to motivation in adolescence is the concept of **initiative** development (Larson, 2002). Initiative is best developed when adolescence participate in structured voluntary activities, e.g. sports or arts, or participate in organizations which enable them to "experience the rare combination of intrinsic motivation in combination with deep attention" (Larson, 2002, p. 170). Larson believes that initiative is not only a prerequisite for autonomous action of adolescence, but also a "core requirement for other components of positive development, such as creativity, leadership, altruism, and civic engagement" (ibid.). According to Krejčová (2011), adolescents can only develop initiative when they get enough opportunities in everyday life to train their autonomy and initiative / prosocial / leadership behaviour, and should therefore be encouraged to do so by adults. Unfortunately, such requirements, in Krejčová's opinion, are rarely met. On the one hand, upper-secondary school students often feel challenged by school's requirements but are at the same time demotivated, bored, or alienated. There are plentiful sources of demotivation, such as little support for autonomy demonstrated by teachers, by perceived stress related to school work, by the lack of meaningful and positively challenging school work in general. Such experience can in turn have a negative effect on students' self-efficacy.

Self-perceived communication competence and language learning anxiety

Teenagers pay a lot of attention to understanding their own identity which also refers to their identity as foreign language speakers (language speaker identity). This is, among others, expressed by means of **self-perceived communication competence**.⁶⁷ This term was coined by McCroskey and McCroskey (1988, p. 109) who challenge the idea of measuring communicative competence by means of “assigning a communicative task to a speaker and a having a trained observer (or observers) rate the speaker’s behaviour in performing the task on scales designed to reflect aspects of communicative competence,” a variety predominantly used in foreign language oral exam, including the Czech secondary school leaving exam, Maturita. As the authors explain (ibid., p. 110), “many of the most important decisions people make concerning communication are made on the basis of self-perceived competence rather than actual competence... People make decisions about whether or not to communicate based, at least in part, on how competent they believe they are to communicate well.” Self-perceived communication competence is connected to the subjective interpretation of a speaker’s identity and his/her ability to use the language and as such has to be taken into account when teaching adolescents who may be experiencing anxiety, insecurity, or shyness (cf. Lockley, 2013).

Language learning anxiety⁶⁸ is thus also a key issue in language learning as many studies, including that by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), suggest that there is a negative correlation between anxiety and achievement in language learning. For teenage language learners this is probably even truer as they are, among other factors, much more sensitive to the reaction of their peer group (see above). MacIntyre (1994 in Yashima, 2002) believes that the combination of two factors, i.e. perceived communicative competence and level of communication anxiety can predict how willing the learners are to communicate in L2. MacIntyre et al. 2002 also point out that the level of **willingness to communicate** (WTC), as well as of anxiety and motivation, varies throughout secondary schooling.

The gender factor in foreign language learning of adolescents

Learning differences among adolescents are to be found also in terms of **gender**. Girls, in general, tend to feel more responsibility for and control over their success and failures than boys, and may fear seeming “unintelligent to their teachers as well as peers” (Wasburn 2004 in Ezzedeen, 2008, p. 231). Melzi and Schick (2012, p. 67) summarise gender differences in the following way:

Numerous studies indicat[e] that female NNL⁶⁹ students are, on average, more motivated to study a NNL than their male counterparts (Mori and Gobel, 2006; Pritchard, 1987; Sung and Padilla, 1998) ... Research indicates that in early adolescence, willingness to communicate in a NNL is higher among girls than boys, with boys experiencing more anxiety when asked to communicate in a NNL (MacIntyre et al., 2003). These gender differences have also been linked to context; whereas girls prefer L2 communication in the NNL classroom, boys demonstrate a preference for communication out of the classroom (Baker and MacIntyre 2000).

⁶⁷ The authors use the term communication competence; nevertheless, for the sake of consistency “communicative” competence is used; cf. note 44.

⁶⁸ Language anxiety is defined as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284).

⁶⁹ non-native language

Interestingly, gender differences are to be found also in language preferences. While some languages are generally preferred by boys (e.g. German) and others by girls (e.g. French), “English is perceived... to be a gender neutral world-language and is the most preferred language” (Melzi & Schick, 2012, p. 67).

In conclusion, there are many aspects in which adolescents differ from other groups. These differences should be respected and made provision for when preparing language courses and syllabi aimed at this age group. In particular, such courses should entertain engaging, meaningful and empowering activities, relevant to real life and employing the international posture as a starting point. Moreover, they should create an encouraging atmosphere in which learners will be willing to communicate and will develop their self-perceived communication competence. Last but not least, adolescent students should be granted responsibilities and get involved in meaningful practices, both in and outside of school, in order to develop their initiative and self-efficacy.

5.3 Innovative Methods and Approaches in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

In the previous two chapters we stated that both politicians and theoreticians call for new approaches to education in general, and to teaching languages in particular. The quoted documents suggest the promotion of innovative methods of teaching foreign languages combined with citizenship and cultural education. Surprisingly enough, none of the documents specifically describes what constitutes such innovative methods. In the given section, we will therefore look at some implications of the above introduced perspectives on learning, compare them with related concepts of ‘activating methods’ and ‘alternative methods’, and propose our understanding of the concept ‘innovative method’.

Innovative methods reflect a more general tendency in FLT methodology of the last decades, namely the shift of focus from primarily psycholinguistic theories of language learning and acquisition to sociological and anthropological ones (Maftoon, Sarem, & Hamidi, 2012), which can also be demonstrated by the stress on communication and cooperation, and the modified relationship between teacher and student/s. They also echo the newly-arising needs stemming from globalisation (as in culture pedagogy) and pay attention to the problems of individual and societal responsibility (as in holistic approaches⁷⁰).

In the context of FLT, this shift of focus was demonstrated in the paradigm shift that was brought about by CLT. CLT, according to Jacobs and Farrell (2003, p. 10), led to eight major changes in FLT:

- Learner autonomy
- The social nature of learning
- Curricular integration
- Focus on meaning
- Diversity
- Thinking skills
- Alternative assessment
- Teachers as co-learners

Interestingly enough, the listed characteristics overlap with components of the term **alternative method**⁷¹ as described by Mothejzиковá and Choděra (2001, p. 163), namely in

⁷⁰ In this approach, education is understood as “the art of cultivating the moral, emotional, physical, psychological and spiritual dimensions of the developing child” (Miller, 2000). There are two key principles in holistic education (Miller, 2006): First, education must start with a specific person and reflect their unique qualities. Secondly, education must be approached with an understanding of the person and of the world in which they live.

⁷¹ Some well-known examples of alternative FLT methods include Community Language Learning (Curran, 1976), Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972), or Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1971). Their focus on learner motivation, well-being, or personal development in FLT has its source in the humanistic tradition. The humanistic approach stresses the fact that human beings develop throughout their whole life and that this development, i.e. self-actualization (Maslow), is the purpose of one’s life. Thus, education should encourage the development of the whole person, i.e. not only of their mental skills and abilities, but also of their emotional side, attitudes, values, etc. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 90) characterise humanistic approach as one that “engages the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills”. Thus, focus on cognitive skills and knowledge is far from enough. Hand in hand with this, experiential learning is absolutely crucial. In the humanistic tradition learning is “generated by personal experiences” and as such, exploration is considered “at the very heart of learning and education” (Bertrand, 2003, p. 322). This view of learning of course calls for a personal commitment to learning and is closely related to motivation. Nevertheless, the focus on personal development is just one aspect of humanism. In the humanistic tradition there is also a strong sense of responsibility for the

terms of the diversion from linguistic focus, and stress on anthropological, sociological or philosophical aspects of teaching. Alternative foreign language teaching methods are typically realised as direct methods, i.e. focus on communication, with a smaller prominence of grammar and translation. Moreover, they originate in holistic approaches (see note 70), thus giving importance to previously overlooked concepts, i.e. emotions. Mothejzíková and Choděra (ibid.) claim that such methods are “so exclusive” that they are literally unusable in the regular school environment. Nevertheless, they are believed to have the capacity to enrich mainstream educational procedures (ibid., p. 165) and draw attention to minority issues in all aspects of the word. To provide an example, Folprechtová (2002) believes that educational practices based on Rogerian humanistic psychology principles (e.g. stress on inner motivation, emotional aspects of mental processes, and on balance among feeling, thinking and behaviour) may provide inspiration for mainstream FLT, which – as will be demonstrated – has been happening to a certain extent.

Similarly, **activating methods** (Harajová, 2005; Kotrba & Lacina, 2007; Jankovcová, Průcha, & Koudela, 1988; Maňák & Švec, 2003; Pecina & Zormanová, 2009) aim to modify the relationship between teacher and student, and to equip students with skills necessary for their future lives, i.e. social and cooperation skills, critical skills etc. In this understanding, language teaching requires students’ active participation in the learning/teaching process by involving them in problem solving and other activities that develop thinking skills.⁷² As we can see, these are some of the elements of the constructivist approach to learning, as introduced in the previous section.

Based on the study of academic literature and research (Blumenfeld et al., 1991; Choděra & Ries, 1999; Davis, 1996; Dupuy, 2006; Hyland, 1993; Lantolf, 1994), we believe **innovative methods** share many of the above described features. Just as activating methods, they draw on the **constructivist approach** to learning, stressing social aspects of learning, the need for active involvement of learners, peer-interaction, and scaffolding. Even though nobody would probably oppose the fact that children are social beings and that the nature of learning is social, Kasíková (2003, p. 14) points out that at school, children are often treated as “isolated scientists” who are expected to limit interactions with others to a minimum rather than being encouraged to explore the world together. Innovative methods go contrary to this notion, as they are based precisely on interaction with others and active exploration.

Hand in hand with the CLT paradigm, innovative methods give prominence to **communication** (real-life or near-real-life) and thus avoid an overt approach to grammar and to the teaching of language systems. Communication is seen as a **holistic** process requiring integration of skills. Acquisition of language happens subconsciously, through active

development of others and of the whole mankind. According to Stevick (1990, p. 31), “it is possible to see ‘humanism’ primarily as development of the human race as a whole toward enlightenment, refinement, and greater differentiation from animals: in other words, toward its ‘full potential’ or as participation of individuals in the above-described development or both.” All in all, Stevick (1990, pp. 23-24) summarises five emphases within humanism: feelings (personal emotions and aesthetic appreciation), social relations (encouragement of friendship and cooperation), responsibility (the need for public scrutiny and criticism), intellect (knowledge, reason, and understanding), and self-actualization (the quest for full realization of a person). As we can see, these practices are gaining significance also in mainstream FLT.

⁷² According to Jankovcová, Průcha, and Koudela (1988, p. 29), there are four basic types of activating methods, namely discussion methods, situation methods, staging method, and games (diskuzní metody, situační metody, inscenační metody, hry).

participation in meaningful tasks, as “unintentional attention brings about more information than intentional one”⁷³ (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 62). When explicit teaching takes place, it typically uses the **inductive** approach, i.e. progresses from specific to general, forming rules based on observation of concrete examples, thus requiring active involvement of learners.⁷⁴

Innovative methods engage learners in **authentic tasks**, involve **problem solving**, **experiential learning**, or **problem method**. The use of problem method in FLT typically involves solving an extra-linguistic problem or issue using language means, which makes the learning situation purposeful and authentic, rather than arbitrary or artificial. Such tasks are believed to encourage **meaningful learning**, associated with the development of self-regulating processes and goal-orientedness of the learners as well as of their creativity. Pecina and Zormanová (2009, p. 32) claim that meaningfulness is actually the most important “engine of learning”.⁷⁵ Moreover, problem-solving tasks foster the use of higher order thinking skills, including analysis and synthesis or induction and deduction. (Jankovcová, Průcha, & Koudela, 1988; Mareš, 2013)

Last but not least, innovative methods utilise **intrinsic** and self-determined forms of **motivation**. According to Melzi and Schick (2012, p. 61), L2 learners are best motivated when they have “a sense of agency and autonomy, a sense of competence, and a sense of relatedness”. Many of the innovative methods claim to bring about flow motivation and thus reduce anxiety and prolong attention span. Constructive and immediate feedback also plays a key role in the motivation process.

To sum up, innovative methods in FLT tend to be described in the following terms (even though they may not necessarily display all of the characteristics):

- are student-centred
- are challenging and intrinsically motivating
- draw on experiential learning
- involve topics that are interesting and relevant, in particular culturally relevant
- engage learners in authentic tasks
- provide opportunities for real-life (or near-real-life) communication
- provide immediate feedback on learners’ performance
- provide learners with opportunities to work both individually and cooperatively
- support cooperation, develop social skills, encourage peer-scaffolding
- support critical thinking
- develop responsibility
- develop creativity

⁷³ “... bezděčná pozornost přináší obecně subjektu více informací než záměrná.”

⁷⁴ Inductive thinking involves three key tasks: concept formation, interpretation of data, and application (Taba, 1967 cit. in Pasch et al., 1998).

⁷⁵ Components of meaningful learning as proposed by Mareš (2013) are as follows: expectation (learners should have an idea of what’s going to happen and what their expectations are, so that they can develop their self-efficacy), motivation, activation of prior knowledge, attention, recoding (transfer from short- to long-term memory), comparison and association making, hypotheses generating, revision, feedback, evaluation, monitoring, and progress from lower- to higher-order thinking skills.

In the subsequent sections, two innovative methods and approaches to FLT will be introduced, namely Content and Language Integrated Learning and Global Education in FLT, before introducing the method under scrutiny, Global Simulation.

5.3.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

When discussing innovative methods of FLT, in particular in the context of the European Union, it seems obvious to devote attention to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Not only is it one of the most salient curricular trends of contemporary European language education policy (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 1⁷⁶), but it also reflects a more integrated approach to education connected to the current globalised view of the world in which individual disciplines interconnect and enrich each other (Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková, 2012⁷⁷). Importantly, its methodology is based on constructivist principles, and as such aims to develop learning strategies, critical thinking skills, creativity, motivation, and active involvement of students (ibid.).

With respect to the focus of the given paper, the global simulation, it is important to introduce CLIL as an approach that follows dual goals, i.e. language and content ones. Thus, it can be put to good use when preparing a course built around dual goals of ELT and of global education. As such, it has already been used for global simulation purposes, in particular when putting together courses built around the Model United Nations (MUN) simulation (e.g. Adamson 2013, 2016; Fast, 2012; Pichura, 2011), which will be introduced in the next section and will be the main focus of this research.

As has been mentioned earlier, the **Czech national curriculum** aims at the integration of innovative methods and approaches (see section 4.2). Even though neither the Czech White Paper, nor the national curriculum specifically name CLIL as such a method, it is believed to fulfil the given criteria. Moreover, according to the Educational Research Institute (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 1), CLIL has become an “integral part of the Czech language policy” thanks to the adoption of the EU Action plan from 2003.⁷⁸ An average Czech teacher would, however, probably disagree about CLIL being “an integral part” of Czech schools’ curricula. Even though CLIL has been used since the 1990s (Eurydice, 2006) and has become an established practice in some countries, it is still not the case in the Czech Republic, in spite of a number of projects that have been realised. Some of the reasons may be the “lack of qualified foreign language teachers” and the generally “more difficult

⁷⁶ “CLIL ... patří k významným kurikulárním trendům současného evropského školství.” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 1).

⁷⁷ “CLIL odráží dnešní globalizovaný pohled na svět. Jednotlivé obory a disciplíny se vzájemně prolínají, propojují a obohacují. V tomto směru klasický typ vzdělávání, který preferuje výuku jednotlivých předmětů odděleně, již neodpovídá potřebám doby. Současná kurikula umožňují integraci vyučovacích předmětů a vzdělávacích oborů, což CLIL reflektuje.” (Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková, 2012, p. 8).

⁷⁸ “CLIL se stal pevnou součástí české jazykové politiky na základě dokumentu Evropské unie pod názvem Podpora jazykového vzdělávání a lingvistické rozmanitosti: Akční plán 2004 – 2006.” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 1)
CLIL also complies with the call for subject integration and key competencies development as mentioned above.

circumstances for the introduction of the method when compared with schools in western or northern Europe” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 4).⁷⁹

Content and Language Integrated Learning is an umbrella term describing learning and teaching a subject through the medium of a foreign language (Mehisto, Frigols, & Marsh, 2008). It “refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language” (Marsh, 1994, cit. in Pinkley, 2012, p. 1).⁸⁰ CLIL is also referred to as “**dual-focused education**” (Marsh & Langé, 2000, p. 6) and as such it significantly differs from regular FLT classes, where learners mostly only deal with the language (i.e. there is a single focus).

There are some specific **features** which are at the core of CLIL. According to the “4Cs Curriculum” (Coyle, 1999, 2006), a CLIL lesson should comprise the following **elements**: content, communication, cognition, and culture. The inclusion of the listed elements should ensure that the CLIL lesson is not yet another foreign language lesson, but has some added value to it. Firstly, it develops subject-specific knowledge and vocabulary. Secondly, a CLIL lesson improves communication skills through the use of language in real situations, as we do not learn ‘about’ language (‘artificially’) but ‘through’ language (‘naturally’). Next, CLIL develops thinking skills, especially higher order thinking skills. Finally, the CLIL approach welcomes alternative perspectives and thus raises cultural awareness.⁸¹

CLIL has gained considerable attention in FLT / ELT in the last two decades. Several reasons for this can be put forward. Firstly, according to Marsh (2010), it “is scientifically proved that students learn better when they are challenged to understand new topics in a different language from their own because their brains must pay more attention to what is explained to them.” Marsh and Langé (2000, p. 6) compare this process to the experience of learning to

⁷⁹ “Školy v České republice se už léta potýkají s nedostatkem kvalifikovaných učitelů cizího jazyka. Podmínky na našich školách pro zavedení výuky metodou CLIL jsou těžší, než jaké jsou na školách například v západní či severní Evropě.” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2008, p. 4)

⁸⁰ CLIL is also sometimes considered to be an approach within bilingual education, even though this is not entirely correct, as bilingual education has somewhat different characteristics: it favours content aims, does not follow the duality of goals and presupposes solid entry knowledge of the target language (Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková, 2012, p. 10 – “Bilingvní výuka... výrazně upřednostňuje obsahový cíl, nesleduje dualitu cílů a již předpokládá velmi dobrou vstupní znalost cizího jazyka.”)

⁸¹ Similarly to Coyle’s 4Cs Curriculum, *CLIL Compendium* identified five key dimensions of CLIL: culture, environment, language, content, and learning. Here, dimensions are understood as “reasons for doing CLIL” (Marsh, Maljers, & Hartiala, 2001, p. 17). Each of these dimensions then concerns three major factors: age-range of students, sociolinguistic environment (monolingual, bilingual or multilingual), and degree of exposure to CLIL. Here is a list of the Dimensions with the respective Focuses (ibid., p. 16):

- 1 **The Culture Dimension** (CULTIX): Build intercultural knowledge & understanding – Develop intercultural communication skills – Learn about specific neighbouring countries/regions and/or minority groups – Introduce the wider cultural context
- 2 **The Environment Dimension** (ENTIX): Prepare for internationalisation, specifically EU integration – Access international certification – Enhance school profile
- 3 **The Language Dimension** (LANTIX): Improve overall target language competence – Develop oral communication skills – Deepen awareness of both mother tongue and target language – Develop plurilingual interests and attitudes – Introduce a target language
- 4 **The Content Dimension** (CONTIX): Provide opportunities to study content through different perspectives – Access subject-specific target language terminology – Prepare for future studies and/or working life
- 5 **The Learning Dimension** (LEARNTIX): Complement individual learning strategies – Diversify methods & forms of classroom practice – Increase learner motivation

play a musical instrument: “Imagine learning to play a musical instrument such as a piano without being able to touch the keyboard... To learn how to master a musical instrument... requires that we gain both knowledge and skill simultaneously.” Similarly, language can only be mastered through its active use while learning specific content. As the authors of the TKT CLIL handbook (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2010, p. 2) claim, “the experience of learning subjects through the medium of a non-native language is more challenging and intensive as there is more exposure to the language and learners acquire knowledge and skills in different areas of the curriculum.”

Secondly, CLIL presents a more natural situation for language learning and “can boost a youngster’s motivation and hunger towards learning languages” (Marsh & Langé, 2000, p. 3). Both motivation and the natural use of the language are important prerequisites for both language and identity development, as they cultivate communicative and cultural competence through foreign language use in real-life or near-real-life situations. In such an understanding, the initially perceived difficulty of the task is not seen as off-putting but rather as positively challenging.

Last, but not least, the method helps develop social skills through group work, an interaction pattern often used in CLIL classes. In this way, students have to develop and then work according to the common rules of the group (community). The class thus represents a micro-cosmos, a miniaturised English-speaking world (cf. imagined communities – see section 6.5.1.1).

The **positive effects** of CLIL have been confirmed by various studies, such as by The effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning in European Education (Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore 2009). In this research, the evaluation procedure comprised of interviews focused on SWOT analysis⁸², a set of questionnaires, monitoring projects, and linguistic assessment with a set of diagnostic tests. These were designed to evaluate language competences amongst CLIL and control groups and were focused on four basic skills. There were noticeable differences between mainstream learners and those educated by CLIL method, as the CLIL students scored significantly higher.

Obviously, as with all methods, there also exist some **challenges**. Šmídová, Tejkalová and Vojtková (2012, p. 11) provide a very good overview of both **benefits and challenges of CLIL**. To start with the benefits, CLIL:

- employs more demanding cognitive process⁸³, which are not usually present in FL textbooks
- trains compensatory strategies and develops communicative competences in an effective way
- engages students in authentic content applicable in real life
- broadens job possibilities both home and abroad, as well as educational possibilities
- develops inter-cultural competences of students
- increases professional qualification of the teacher⁸⁴

⁸² Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

⁸³ Cf. higher-order thinking skills, see below.

⁸⁴ „Výhody CLIL: vyšší nároky CLILu na kognitivní procesy žáků, které nejsou běžně obsaženy v učebnicích cizích jazyků; nácvik kompenzačních strategií a rozvíjení komunikativních dovedností efektivním způsobem; práce s reálným obsahem / informacemi využitelnými v praktickém životě; zvyšování možnosti uplatnění žáků na trhu práce (i v zahraničí) a přípravy na

The associated challenges are as follows:

- inadequate linguistic competences of students
- lack of CLIL teaching materials and evaluation instruments
- lack of information on the part of school management and unsystematic implementation of the method
- lack of willingness of teachers to work in a CLIL team
- highly demanding preparation of CLIL lessons in terms of time and expertise
- lack of linguistic or professional competences of teachers⁸⁵

In order to benefit from the CLIL approach, some **preconditions** have to be met. McIntyre (1996, p. 118-119) quotes Brinton et al.'s (1989, p. 3) list of “rationales underlying approach for integrating the teaching of language and content:”

1. The language syllabus must take into account the eventual uses the learner will make of the target language.
2. Informational content which is perceived as relevant by the learner and increases motivation must be present.
3. Teaching should build on the previous experience of the learner and take into account existing knowledge of the subject matter and the academic environment as well as knowledge of the second language.
4. Instruction should focus on contextualized language use rather than sentence-level grammatical usage to reveal discourse features and social interaction patterns.
5. Finally, the learner must be able to understand what is presented through the interaction of existing imperfect language knowledge with cues from the situational and verbal contexts. (Krashen, 1985a; 1985b).

As is clear from this overview, the approach is based on the constructivist approach to learning, and as such employs activating prior knowledge, scaffolding, collaborative learning, creative and critical thinking, and collaborative learning. Moreover, it relies on the development of higher order thinking skills and on some other specific elements, such as chunking and code switching (Mehisto, Frigols, & Marsh, 2008; Masih, 1999; Pickles, 2013; Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková 2012; University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2010). Several of these will be briefly introduced.

The idea behind **activating prior knowledge** is crucial in constructivist learning approaches – students get time to work out what they already know and thus have somewhere to integrate the newly gained knowledge. Ways of activating prior knowledge include brainstorming and focus questions (Pickles, 2013).

Chunking “refers to the strategy of breaking down information into bite-sized pieces so the brain can more easily digest new information” (Pickles, 2013). This is directly connected to the rather limited capacity of the short-term memory. In order for the information to move into the long-term memory, it needs to be connected to already existing knowledge by means

další studium; rozšiřování interkulturní kompetence žáka; zvyšování profesní kvalifikace učitele.“ (Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková, 2012, p. 11)

⁸⁵ „Rizika CLIL: nedostatečná jazyková kompetence žáků používat cizí jazyk v odborném předmětu; nedostatek relevantních učebních materiálů a nástrojů hodnocení pro CLIL; neinformované vedení školy a nesystematické zavádění CLILu; neochota učitelů spolupracovat v CLIL týmu; časově náročná a obtížná příprava na CLIL vyučování; nedostatečná jazyková nebo oborová kompetence učitelů.“ (Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková, 2012, p. 11)

of organising, classification, ordering, labelling, etc. (Pickles, 2013; University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2010).

Scaffolding is a general label for various means and strategies that enable students to successfully work with the given content. The aim is for the student to manage the given task on his own, with the support that scaffolding offers, so that s/he can manage on his/her own next time s/he encounters a similar task. Scaffolding is employed in FLT classes on regular basis (see 5.2.2). In CLIL lessons, especially the following strategies are employed (Mehisto, Frigols, and Marsh, 2008; Šmídová, Tejkalová, & Vojtková 2012; University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2010):

- rewording or paraphrasing instructions or parts of the text
- modelling
- text adaptation – highlighting key vocabulary, including a glossary, changing the layout of the text, using simplified vocabulary
- graphic and visual organisers, e.g. mind maps

Code switching (translanguaging), “the systematic use of more than one language” (Ozog, 2009), is another typical feature of CLIL. In CLIL classes, especially at the beginning stages, the use of the mother tongue is allowed, in order to diminish the possible frustration of students from the perceived lack of linguistic or communication skills in the target language (ibid.).

Last but not least, CLIL is associated with the development **lower- and higher-order thinking skills** (LOTS & HOTS), which are associated with Bloom’s (1956) and revised Anderson and Krathwohl’s (2000) taxonomy. The aim of CLIL is to gradually proceed from LOTS to HOTS (i.e. from concrete towards abstract thinking), by asking various types of questions, beginning with *what*, *when*, *where* or *who* questions and proceeding to more sophisticated ones using *how* and *why* (Pickles, 2013).

The theoretical background to CLIL methodology will be put into practice in the development of the MUN course (see section 8.2.3), as has been done in several cases before (e.g. Adamson, 2013, 2016; Fast, 2012; Pichura, 2011).

5.3.2 Global Education in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

The global dimension in education is constantly attracting both theoreticians’ and practitioners’ interest. Many authors (cf. Cates, 1999, 2002, 2004; Erfani, 2012; Pike & Selby, 1998; Yakovchuk, 2004; Yamashiro, 1996) believe that it is foreign language teachers in particular who have the capacity and opportunities to promote the ideals of global education, by getting their students involved in global-issues projects. As Yakovchuk (2004, p. 31) puts it, “a strong claim that the foreign language classroom is the right place for global education has been voiced by different educators”. This is, among others, thanks to the fact that foreign language classes allow for an extensive use of authentic materials, and have communication, debating, and opinion exchange at their core (Pike & Selby, 1998).

Global education (see section 3.1) as an approach to **language teaching** “aims to enable students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required by world citizens to solve global problems” (Cates, 2002, p. 41), alongside social responsibility (Yakovchuk, 2004). Interestingly enough, responsibility is valued so much in global education that it is suggested as the fourth ‘R’ to complement the three Rs of traditional curriculum (reading, writing, and arithmetic) (Cates, 2002). Cates (1997) also believes that it is “the global language educator's task to transform students' apathy, misconceptions and negative images of the world's problems into a sustained commitment to acquiring the global knowledge and skills needed for working to solve these problems”. In order to do so, the teacher has to put effort into effective structuring of the lesson and creating a safe and positive classroom atmosphere (Pike & Selby, 1994) to let the students feel safe and respected. Such an atmosphere is a prerequisite for students to start investigating their own, as well as each other's, positions, take over responsibility for the discussion, and start engaging with the topic by study and experience.

There are various **approaches** to including global issues in a FL classroom, ranging from inclusion in ordinary teaching materials (e.g. as lessons in textbooks) to whole course designs, extracurricular activities, and study trips. Several authors also propose specific methodologies to be employed (again, constructivist in their nature, Cates, 2002) and recommend simulations in general (Jacobs & Cates, 1999), as well as Model United Nations in particular to be one of these methodologies (e.g. Cates, 2002; Henry, 1993, Zenuk-Nishide, 2014). Yamashiro (1996) suggests that a programme such as MUN can also help overcome the two most challenging aspects of global issues integration in FLT classes, namely materials adaptation and development, and the management of content information from other disciplines (McIntyre, 1996). Furthermore, there are a number of resources and themes lists that can be employed as a starting point (see Appendices) (cf. Cates, Higgins, & Tanaka 1999).

Global education shares some notions with other relevant educational approaches, including **cooperative learning**. These two approaches “share several common goals: cooperation, interdependence, and mutual understanding (at the individual, group, and national levels); enhanced communication skills; developing positive attitudes (towards learning, world events, and the future); and developing learner autonomy. In short, process is given equal weight and importance as product” (Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 1999, p. 83; cf. Jacobs & Cates, 1999). Active involvement of students can also ensure “transformative” experience, as some “may not have [even] realized that alternative points of view or choices exist. Other students may find validity in ideas which they previously discounted.” (Yamashiro, 1996)

As always, there are some **challenges** to be faced when introducing global issues in FLT. To start with, McIntyre (1996) points out that thanks to the nature of global issues, teachers have to be able to handle information from fields other than their field of expertise, which can make them uncomfortable; this situation much resembles that of CLIL, introduced in the previous section. McIntyre (ibid.) lists a number of other concerns, such as the selection of resources and media. While McIntyre is primarily concerned with the infringement of copyright, an equally pressing issue is connected to the reliability and information value of

various types of media. It seems absolutely crucial to teach students to approach sources critically.

The fact that foreign language teachers impart not only the language but also values and worldview (Pike & Selby, 1998) can be approached both positively and negatively and brings about the questions of impartiality and objectivity of the educator. Yamashiro (1996) warns that “since many global issues educators teach these issues out of a conviction that awareness and action are necessary to solve global problems, there is considerable danger that some of these same educators may simply replace one indoctrinated belief with another”. Therefore, a clear reasoning behind the selection of a particular issue must be present, else the teacher may be perceived as biased. To overcome this, students should be provided with the opportunity to suggest their own topics (McIntyre, 1996), which are based on their “life situations, need and interests” (Erfani, 2012, p. 2414). It goes without saying that the teacher must allow for students’ personal viewpoints and to accept these views, as long as they are well-supported and do not violate human rights or other basic cultural values (cf. Yamashiro, 1996).

The problem of impartiality of the teacher cannot, unfortunately, be overcome purely by relying on textbook material. While Erfani (2012, p. 2412) reports that “most coursebooks deal with neutral, apparently harmless topics (such as food, shopping, or travel) instead of dealing with real issues”, other authors are of the opinion that even if global topics are included in textbooks, they are often treated trivially or have a “tourist-consumer flavour” (Cates, 2002), biased in that the textbooks present a romantic view of target language countries (Banegas, 2010 in Erfani, 2012), or are even stereotypical and racist (Pike & Selby, 1998).

Having said that, there indeed exist textbooks that have global and intercultural issues at their core, not only when it comes to topics and skills (e.g. Stephenson, Dummett, & Hughes, 2014) but also when teaching language systems (e.g. grammar, pronunciation). Erfani (2012, p. 2413) provides an example of textbooks that teach pronunciation using world issues words (e.g. ‘peace’ for the [p] sound), or promote environmental awareness when teaching conditional sentences (e.g. “If we recycled paper, we’d save more trees.”).

In general, controversy is seen as an inherent feature of global issues (cf. Dyer & Bushell, 1996; McIntyre, 1996), as teachers generally prefer not to discuss them to prevent quarrels among students, complaints from parents, or simply put, negative emotions. Cates (1997) contradicts this by claiming that any teaching, as well as any other aspect of life, is penetrated by controversy. Therefore, he strongly believes that the absence of such issues in teaching does not have a neutral, but rather an adverse effect on both students and the society:

Omitting important but controversial issues from our language teaching means that, instead of empowering our language students with an understanding of complex world problems and what can be done to solve them, we are subtly teaching them that language study is irrelevant to the world and the controversial problems facing it... For global education... the aim in teaching about controversial issues is not to produce controversy but to understand controversy... [and] thus to come to an honest understanding of complex world problems which will lead to principled action aimed at achieving a just solution. Cates (1997)

To sum up, integrating global issues in a foreign language classroom seems an obvious choice for teachers who want to offer their students a real-world connection and prepare them for the

challenges that are waiting for them outside the school walls. As Erfani (2012, p. 2414) bluntly puts it, “we can't call our English teaching successful if our students, however fluent, are ignorant of world problems, have no social conscience or use their communication skills for international crime, exploitation, oppression or environmental destruction.” Global simulations, introduced in the subsequent chapters, offer a possible way of dealing with global issues and with all the associated controversies of global education, while engaging students in the development of their FL skills.

5.4 Summary

In the chapter, an overview of current approaches to foreign language teaching and learning has been introduced. We looked into the features of the post-methods era as a situation in which FLT is characterised by principled eclecticism. Next we introduced the tenets of current communicative language teaching alongside constructivist learning principles that are applied in current FLT, with a special focus on learning characteristics of adolescents. In the third section, we examined the concept of innovative method in FLT and introduced two selected approaches, namely Content and Language Integrated Learning and Global Education as an approach to FLT.

The following chapter, the last one in the theoretical framework, presents another innovative method, the simulation method. Simulations in FLT are based on constructivist learning principles and are representatives of the CLT approach, while implementing features of CLIL. The chapter includes a methodological overview, including separate sections on the simulation method as such, on benefits and challenges of simulations, on the structure of simulations, and finally on FLT global simulations, which implement the dual goals of FLT and global education.

6 Simulation as an Innovative Method of FLT

The simulation technique is a recent innovation in language teaching. Yet it is rapidly increasing in popularity because it is ideally suited to language practice... There is no substitute for simulation in language teaching. No other classroom technique provides the same blend of reality and responsibility within a language context. (Jones, 1982, p. 2)

The given chapter deals with the simulation method, an innovative method of foreign language teaching. Innovative methods have been introduced in the previous chapter and were characterised as methods that:

- are student-centred
- are challenging and intrinsically motivating
- draw on experiential learning
- involve topics that are interesting and relevant, in particular culturally relevant
- engage learners in authentic tasks
- provide opportunities for real-life (or near-real-life) communication
- provide immediate feedback on learners' performance
- provide learners with opportunities to work both individually and cooperatively
- support cooperation, develop social skills, encourage peer-scaffolding
- support critical thinking
- develop responsibility
- develop creativity

The chapter is divided into several sections which deal with specific aspects of the method: definition and characteristics, benefits and challenges, research on simulations as used in FLT, structure of simulations, and a section on the role of the teacher. The individual sections start with a general overview of the respective topic, before moving to its specifics in the context of the FLT classroom (with the exception of the research chapter which focuses specifically on FLT context).

The last section introduces the global simulation method, as used in upper-secondary FLT. This innovative method is believed to have the capacity of achieving the dual goals of FLT and global education, while building on the principles of contemporary learning and teaching. The given section serves as a springboard for the research part of the thesis which, among others, involves the development of course syllabus and materials for a global simulation course for students of English as L2, called Model United Nations.

6.1 Characteristics of Simulations

Jones (1995, p. 8), one of the biggest proponents of simulations believes that simulation “is one of the most interesting and most powerful of the techniques used in education and training.” Many educational professionals who have tried employing this method in their teaching report outstanding results, including “highly favourable” (Lowry, 1999) or “uniformly positive” (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013) feedback from simulation participants, and student satisfaction being “particularly high” (Kaunert, 2009). Moreover, they describe “long-term absorption” of subject matter (Dougherty, 2003) or the successful development of “essential skills” (Rodríguez, 2004) and “cooperative skills” (McIntosh, 2001; Muldoon & Myrick, 1995). Moreover, the simulation method displays all the characteristics that have previously been used to characterise the concept of innovative teaching method.

While simulation is by many considered a most effective educational tool, simulation designers and facilitators are sometimes criticised for their lack of statistical support for the claimed benefits and for a generally faulty assessment methodology (cf. Raymond & Usherwood, 2013). Moreover, there are some terminological issues associated with the use of simulations, namely the confusion among ‘simulation’, ‘role play’ and ‘game’. Seemingly a trifle, such a conceptual misunderstanding can produce a “mish-mash event” or “ambivalent” that possesses a danger of “hurting people” (Jones, 1995). Therefore, simulations have to be approached with great care, both in their design, facilitation, and assessment.

A **simulation**, according to Jones (1995, p. 18), is

an event in which participants have (functional) roles, duties and sufficient key information about the problem to carry out these duties without play acting or inventing key facts. They keep their own personalities but take on a job, duties, responsibilities and do the best they can in the situation in which they find themselves.

A simulation “takes a real-life situation as a model and draws out from it the key features, struggles, roles and dilemmas” (Finane, 1996). A simulation does not aim to reproduce reality in its wholeness though. On the contrary, it reduces reality’s “complexity to manageable proportions” (Finane, 1996). That is why Jones (1995, p. 11) points out that it is *plausibility* and *consistency*, rather than attempts to “duplicate the real world” that help produce a good simulation. Even though the simulated real-life situation (the United Nations organisation in our case) may seem overwhelming, the reduction of its complexity enables participants to penetrate its nature and understand the underlying principles and concepts. Thanks to this, simulations are suitable for most educational contexts, and can be used also with adolescents.

Simulations are often characterised as being examples of the problem-based learning (Kaunert, 2009), project-based learning (Dupuy, 2006), task-based learning (Levine, 2004), case-based learning (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013), content-based learning (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008), or Content and Language Integrated Learning (Adamson, 2013). Even though there is a number of differences among these approaches, they do share some key principles, namely that they are centred around an active involvement of students, engage them in investigation of a problem or task, are typically conducted in groups, with the

ultimate aim of ‘producing’ independent, enterprising individuals. As such, simulation is seen as an innovative teaching method (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013).

Simulations are sometimes also described in terms of **simulation-based learning** (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012, 2013; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014). This label is mostly applied in medical education, business, aviation, military or other professions, where it is understood as “a technique (not a technology) to replace and amplify real experiences with guided ones, often ‘immersive’ in nature, that evoke or replicate substantial aspects of the real world in a fully interactive fashion” (Lateef, 2010, p. 348).⁸⁶ The key aim is that the trainees, here in medical training, “have the opportunity to develop and refine their skills, repeatedly if necessary, using simulation technology without putting patients at risk” (ibid., p. 349; cf. Skalková, 1999 in Smejkalová, 2016). Even though there are obvious similarities to simulations in general and foreign language education, for our purposes, we shall characterise educational simulations as examples of project-based learning.

Project-based learning is defined as “a comprehensive approach to classroom teaching and learning that is designed to engage students in investigation of authentic problems” (Blumenfeld et al., 1991, p. 369).⁸⁷ Projects are (Thomas, 2000, p. 1)

complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, that involve students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities; give students the opportunity to work relatively autonomously over extended periods of time; and culminate in realistic products or presentations.

Here, the complex task / project is a simulation.

According to Jones (1982, pp. 4-5), simulation can be defined as “reality of function in a simulated and structured environment”, and as such is made up of three **essential elements**: reality of function, simulated environment, and structure. The first element, **reality of function**, means that the participants must act and think as if the simulated activity was real, which means stepping out of their roles as students. The participants have functional roles and are provided with sufficient information on an issue which enables them to “function as professionals” (Jones, 1995, p. 9). Thus, a person having the role of a chair in a simulation is really a chair, “with the full powers and responsibilities of chairmanship” (Jones, 1982, p. 2). This, among others, entails that the participants are not allowed, asked or expected to invent key facts.⁸⁸ Moreover, there is no teacher in the simulation, just as there is no teacher in the cabinet office.

Simulated environment is another essential element of a simulation. The environment should be realistic in that it uses a variety of realia (e.g. business cards, name badges, letterheads) and is at the same time without the influence of the outside world (including that of facilitators). A slightly paradoxical situation results from this requirement, as “although the functions of participants are real, the world outside the classroom is... imaginary” (Jones, 1982, p. 5). The lack of influence from the outside world is crucial; “the participants must have autonomy, including the power and the authority to make mistakes” (Jones, 1995, p. 9),

⁸⁶ According to Jones (1982) simulations started being used in the classroom in the 1950s and 1960s, while they had by then been used for military purposes for more than half a century.

⁸⁷ Choděra and Ries (1999, pp. 62-63) use similar word to characterise the **problems method**, “based on solving an extra-linguistic problem or issue using language means, facilitating natural and spontaneous learning”.

⁸⁸ Jones (1995, p. 62) suggests that participants may invent peripheral facts, in which case such facts should be plausible.

because only then can they learn from them. The simulated environment also means that a “simulation is safe; the outside world remains untouched, and real disasters cannot result from participant errors” (Jones, 1982, p. 5).

Finally, a simulation needs a **structure**. This involves it being built around a set of tasks or problems which the participants have to tackle and solve while keeping their functional roles (Jones, 1995)⁸⁹. This way, a simulation should also enable the production of realistic outcomes, which “gives the students a sense that their efforts have purpose and their accomplishments are valid” (Lowry, 1999, p. 125).⁹⁰

Finally, in terms of the lengths of simulations, Usherwood (2016) distinguishes the following types:

- **Very short simulations** (under 30 minutes). These are typically brief, illustrative simulations..., where either no preparation is required or all relevant information is provided...
- **Seminar-length simulations** (1-2 hours). Very common, since they fit easily within usual teaching arrangements. These allow sufficient space to get into some substantive discussions, although if this is a priority then some student preparation is very helpful.
- **Day-long simulations** (6-8 hours). This length permits extended discussion, even with larger groups, as well as scope for parallel sessions and/or sub-groups. Preparatory work becomes essential for any simulation at this length or longer.
- **Multi-day simulations**. Sometimes it is possible to join together several shorter sessions ... to allow for informal interactions between sessions and for the progressive development of positions and outputs.
- **Asynchronous simulations**. Purely online simulations (e.g. between students in different physical locations) can be run over an extended time period, with more or less flexibility on when interactions have to take place.

Often, these variants are combined together. A sequence of seminar-length simulations can thus serve as a preparation for a day-long or even a multi-day simulation, as is the case in our seminar proposal. In general, the longer the simulation, the more likely it is to be realistic and allow for development of roles and the scenario itself, though this brings about new challenges in terms of organisation and time demands (Usherwood, 2016).

As a **language teaching method**, simulation has been used rather infrequently, and predominantly at the tertiary level (Levine, 2004; cf. Black, 1995; Davis, 1996; García-Carbonell et al., 2001). In the Czech context, it is scarcely used at universities (e.g. Smejkalová, 2005) and at the secondary level (see section 6.5). In FLT contexts, such events may vary from less complex ones, such as managing a hotel or a building in the target country (e.g. simulation ‘L’Immeuble’ – ‘Building’, in which students of French ‘inhabited’ a building in Paris, Dupuy, 2006) to more complex and sophisticated ones simulating the work of international organisations, such as the United Nations (Model United Nations) or European Parliament (European Youth Parliament).

⁸⁹ Cf. definition of project-based learning.

⁹⁰ Similarly, Lowry (1999, p. 125, quoting Bartlett & Amsler, 1979) points out that in order for a simulation to provide a “valid learning experience”, it has to be realistic in appearance (cf. simulated environment) and be realistic in its internal process (cf. reality of function).

From a methodological point of view, simulations in FLT are believed to reflect the already mentioned shift in FLT methodology towards the development of cultural awareness and of communicative competence. Various authors (cf. Dupuy, 2006; Levine, 2004) believe that simulations, as alternatives to mainstream approaches, may provide effective means of facilitating these competences. When putting forward the reasons to use simulations in FLT, scholars commonly enumerate arguments that have been listed among characteristic features of innovative methods, such as active involvement of learners, stress on experiential learning, or cooperative learning.

Following Richards and Rodgers' (1986, 2001) format for **method / approach analysis**, Tompkins (1998) maintains that simulations stem from the interactional view of language, according to which language is used a means of realising interpersonal relations and personal goals. Furthermore, the learning theory is believed to be connected to various SLA theories, such as to comprehensible input theory and to some of the tenets of the constructivist approach to learning (cf. Scarcella & Crookall, 1990). According to García-Carbonell et al. (2001, p. 482), "simulation and gaming theory relates clearly to communicative language acquisition, especially in the area of interaction and experience". Dupuy (2006) adds that the main theoretical bases for simulations are experiential learning, project-based learning, and culture learning. Furthermore, the learner and teacher roles generally reflect the constructivist learning approach.

The simulation **syllabus** type is seen as a combination of procedural and process models, starting with less demanding activities in which the teacher plays a more active role, progressing to more sophisticated activities in the 'process' model, "allowing learners to control the nature of the interactions that take place" (Tompkins, 1998). As a result, **learning and teaching activities** are set around the primacy of meaning, are goal-oriented, outcome-evaluated, and have a relationship to the real world. As has been stated above, simulations have several **key features**, including reality of function, simulated environment, and structure (Jones, 1982).⁹¹ Levine (2004) adds three more features typical for language class simulation: task-based approach, briefing and debriefing phases, and single situation or premise. Levine (ibid., p. 28) stresses that a simulation must be based on CLT and **task-based learning** principles, "for it keeps the focus away from rote or mechanical practice and on meaningful interaction", and thus supports the integration of skills, and negotiation. Moreover, Levine (ibid.) extends the number of phases (see section 6.3) in a simulation to include **briefing and debriefing phases**, "which at one end provide students with the content information, grammatical knowledge, and vocabulary necessary to complete the simulation, and at the other end help put events and the learning process in focus, identify what was learned, and what was not" (ibid.; cf. Kolb's learning cycle, 2014). According to Levine, it is important for a simulation to be based on a **single situation**, e.g. organisation (e.g. UN in the Model UN). Dupuy (2006) adds that the simulated situation should also be culturally-relevant (cf. L'Immeuble).

⁹¹ Wilson (2001) reports on "simulations that are not simulations" which take place when a simulation is "converted" to a real situation.

Having introduced some main characteristics of simulations, we will proceed to the terminology of the method. In the following section, simulation and other related concepts will be clarified and the concept of global simulation defined.

6.1.1 Simulation, Global Simulation, and Related Concepts

There are a number of terms closely related to simulations, in particular that of role play and game / simulation game. Even though simulations display some characteristics of these methods, there exist many differences among the concepts. The following paragraphs aim to clarify the boundaries between these concepts.

To begin with the term **role play**, Tompkins (1998) points out that there is indeed little consensus in academic literature on how to use the terms role playing and simulation, even though it is generally agreed that simulation is a more complex concept than role playing. In role plays, students act as they are told and pretend to be somebody else while dealing with a problem or situation (Lee, 1991; Pasch et al., 1998). Role plays are therefore rather controlled when it comes to students' contribution, as they are not asked to provide much personalised input. On the other hand, in a **simulation** students bring their "own personality, experience and opinions to the task" (Livingstone, 1983, quoted in Lee, 1991) and therefore do not have to "invent behaviour that is unnatural" to them (Levine, 2004, p. 28). Importantly, simulation participants have full autonomy, including the power to make mistakes.

Another key difference is to be found in terms of the methods' complexity and / or length. While role plays are typically limited to a specific situation (e.g. arranging a meeting), simulations tend to be much more complex. Thus, simulations are typically longer, whereas role plays are rather short-term, usually not exceeding the length of one lesson. Pasch et al. (1998) provide the example of simulating a council meeting over a specific problem (role play) as opposed to the simulation of the council as such, with all its committees and procedures (simulation). Still, there is always an element of role play in simulations as, after all, participants are indeed assigned roles which are not inherent to them (Tompkins, 1998).

A **game**, on the other hand, is quite distinct from a simulation. In a game, all the partakers have the same role, i.e. they are players. In a simulation, however, each participant has their own specific role which is not shared by anyone else. Moreover, a game features a "scoring mechanism" according to which, at the end of the game, players get divided between winners and losers. In a simulation, on the other hand, there are no winning or losing parties (Jones, 1995). There, nevertheless, exists an overlap in the term **simulation game**, employed by various authors (e.g. Činčera, 2003; Crookal & Oxford, 1990; Finane, 1996). Even though this concept features the word 'game', it fully corresponds to the characteristics of a simulation in Jones' typology (1995). That is why for the purposes of the given text, 'simulation game' is treated as synonymous to 'simulation'.

The last concept to be explored is the term **global simulation**. Even though the terms simulation and global simulation overlap and many would probably use them interchangeably, there are several differences between them.

Global simulation involves engagement in a long-term project covering a variety of aspects of the given situation (Dupuy, 2006; Levine, 2004) and is thus usually day-long or multi-day long. It is generally a more complex type of simulation, as Dupuy (2006) points out. In her understanding, global simulation is *exhaustive* (the re-created situation is set in an elaborate context), *integrated* (involving various communication modes), *multidisciplinary* (involving many other curricular areas expect for languages), *multidimensional* (developing many different and competencies), and *inclusive* (student-centred).

From the methodology point of view, global simulation is often characterised in broader terms than simulation ‘method’. A global simulation is described as “simultaneously an approach, a set of classroom techniques, and the conceptual framework for syllabus“ (Levine, 2004, p. 27). In such an understanding, it displays great potential for alternative syllabus design and a new course format. Indeed, examples of the use of global simulation as a basis for course design can be found both in FLT literature (e.g. Dupuy, 2006; Levine, 2004; Smejkalová, 2009) and in literature on education in international relations (e.g. Kaunert, 2009; McIntosh, 2001; Obendorf & Randerson, 2013).

The word global has yet another, very relevant meaning, as it focuses on global issues. In a global simulation, students often times perform the roles of world leaders, debating of matters of global urgency. That is why global simulations are sometimes described in terms of “world-focused pedagogy” (Rodriguez, 2004, p.57), because “while learning about the world, [students] are also learning about civics, democracy, citizenship and government, which can result in a lifelong practical understanding of an individual’s place in a country and the global society” (cf. Global education, section 3.1). Furthermore, during debating and discussions, conversational learning takes place, i.e. “the process whereby learners construct meaning and transform experience into knowledge through conversation” (Kolb, Baker, & Jensen, 2002, p. 51 in Ezzedeen, 2008, p. 230).

In our understanding, **global simulation** is a *language teaching method incorporating features of the project-based approach and world-focused pedagogy, characterised as a complex, structured, long-term event, which is student-centred, multi-disciplinary, and has research and debating about global issues at its core, and in which participants have functional roles which they carry out according to specific rules of conduct.*

The simulation under scrutiny (Model United Nations) which forms the core of the proposed subject falls into the category of global simulations. Not only is it very complex, comprising all the points listed by Dupuy (2006), but can also be used as a starting point for a course design, with the initial and final stages taking place in the classroom, ‘sandwiching’ the actual simulation, the main activity and output of the subject, which takes place in project-form outside the classroom (cf. Bullard, 1990). Moreover, by simulating the debates taking place in the United Nations, possibly the world’s most important international organization, the students get to deal with global issues, all through the medium of the English language. The MUN simulation will be introduced in greater detail in section 6.5.1.

6.2 Benefits and Challenges of Simulations

In the given section we look into the benefits as well as challenges of the simulation method, both in general education and in FLT. We will also present results of studies dealing with the effect of the simulation method in FLT.

6.2.1 Benefits of Simulations

Simulations are employed for various purposes and there are many declared benefits associated with them. Below is a brief overview of the most salient ones.

First, many authors stress the fact that simulations encourage the development of a wide variety of **skills**, including communication skills, negotiation skills, or critical and decision-making skills (Adamson, 2013; Jones, 1995; Krain & Lantis, 2006; Phillips & Muldoon, 1996; Usherwood, 2014, 2016). In this aspect, simulations are closely related to the infusion method, whose aim is to teach students to “express and articulate their opinions, [and] understand the relationship between a part and the whole”⁹² (Smejkalová, 2009, p. 21). Public skills and formal writing skills are yet another set that is developed (Dougherty, 2003).

Moreover, great potential is seen in the development of **social and cooperative** skills (Dougherty, 2003; Reitano, 2003), as peer interaction and peer scaffolding is encouraged in simulations (Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 1999). Simply put, in order for the simulation to “go well, students must learn to effectively coordinate, cooperate and communicate in a group setting” (Dougherty, 2003, p. 240). Cooperation is also assisted by the information-gap nature of the activity in which “each student knows a specific aspect of the situation and must rely on others to get additional information and alternative perspectives” (Dougherty, 2003, p. 240), thus making learning more natural (McIntosh, 2001; Muldoon & Myrick, 1995; Pasch et al., 1998).⁹³ Furthermore, simulations have the potential to reduce anxiety and inhibition (Smejkalová, 2005), to “shake the pecking order in a class” (Jones 1982) and to create a supportive environment.

Importantly, courses centred around simulations encourage the **development of group identity** (Usherwood, 2014), as they “give students opportunities to get to know one another and to develop camaraderie which can otherwise be absent” (Dougherty, 2003, p. 240). As simulations are sometimes realised as “simulation classes” (cf. Black, 1995), during which students take on their roles for the entire duration of the course, it results in the creation of new social networks. This is especially the case at the higher educational levels, as

Unlike most courses, students get to know each other well, and stronger students help weaker students so that there is often a radical transformation on the part of academically weaker students in the program. They become active and effective in ways they have not experienced academically in other courses... Students in the course learn a sense of community because they must work together, sometimes as partners, and always as one delegation. (Reitano, 2003, p. 8)

⁹² “V neposlední řadě vycházím v této práci též z definice... ‘infúzní metody’, jejímž cílem je učit studenty formulovat vlastní názor, pečlivě argumentovat, chápat vztah části a celku.”

Smejkalová also adds several more methods that she draws her understanding of simulation from, including ‘dynamic situational method’ (“dynamická situační metoda”; Švec & Maňák, 2003, 121), involving features of ‘situational method’ and ‘economic games’ (“situační” a “inscenační metody”, “ekonomické hry”; Švec & Maňák, 2003, 121).

⁹³ This is perfectly in line with sociocognitive approach to learning introduced earlier. Seconding Kasíková (2010), Pasch et al. (1998) also claim that such social contact among peers is rather scarce in typical teaching contexts.

Simulations are also believed to generate enthusiasm and secure **active involvement of students** (Dougherty, 2003; Reitano, 2003; Smejkalová, 2009; Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011). Dougherty (2003, p. 243) believes that simulations enable students to gain unique first-hand experience of the topics in question. Moreover, “by putting students in control of their own learning, interactive exercises can make the world both relevant and intellectually exciting” (ibid.). Thus, simulations can bring about intrinsic motivation. Thanks to their constructivist nature, simulations empower students and let them take control of the situation, developing student autonomy (Adamson, 2013; Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011). This also allows the teacher to become a “resource person” and at the same time to monitor the students unobtrusively. Moreover, simulations enable students to accommodate their interests and preferred learning styles and thus be in charge of their own learning.

Maňák et al. (1997) believe simulations encourage the training of appropriate reactions in conflicts that are bound to arise, due to the fact that participants have to make decisions in “conditions of risk”. Moreover, a simulation enables students to gain an understanding of attitudes, views and dilemmas of other people by taking over their roles in a given complex situation. In this way, simulations can also be a tool for **cultural / multicultural / global education**, as they allow students to walk in the shoes of members of other cultures and nationalities and thus bring about an increased understanding of them (Dougherty, 2003; Dupuy, 2006; Muldoon & Myrick, 1995; Phillips & Muldoon, 1996).

Last, but not least, development is also seen in substantive **knowledge** in the content areas (Phillips & Muldoon, 1996). Simulations are perceived as “a way to allow participants to integrate a wide range of source materials into a more coherent whole, and then to reflect on the dimensions and interactions which that whole contains” (Usherwood, 2014, pp. 54-55). This way, they gain a “deeper understanding and greater appreciation” of the topics under scrutiny (Dougherty, 2003, p. 243).

Authors stress that the experiential nature of the task (cf. Kolb, 2014) supports a shift from surface learning that employs lower-level cognitive activities such as memorisation, to deep learning (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013; Raymond & Usherwood, 2013). **Deep learning** “concerns a situation where students engage in tasks meaningfully and use the most appropriate cognitive activity for dealing with it” (Kaunert, 2009, p. 259). Information gained in this way is believed to be retained for much longer than in traditional approaches (Smith & Boyer, 1996). However, “active learning activities do not guarantee deep learning” (Haack, 2008, p. 396). In order for deep learning to occur, the learning-teaching process has to fulfil a number of criteria, in particular the use of higher cognitive levels of learning and HOTS, and to include all phases of the experiential cycle (Kolb, 2014), including the debriefing phase.

Having analysed 19 Model United Nations course syllabi, Haack (2008) suggests that in order to put together a successful curriculum that supports deep learning, several criteria need to be met, namely the employment of a higher cognitive level of learning as opposed to superficial learning (e.g. “How does the Security Council facilitate cooperation?” rather than “What is the Security Council?”), of key concepts and principles (e.g. “conflict and cooperation”), proper alignment of activities and the course content, and the offer of progression, the last being relevant mostly at the university level.

Furthermore, an often quoted research study (Dale, 1969) found that “while students recall only 10% of what they read and 20% of what they hear, they remember 90% of their actions and statements combined” (Krain & Lantis, 2006, p. 397). To sum up,

Studies consistently show that active learning approaches increase student comprehension (Jensen 1998), enhance student problem-solving skills (Bransford, Franks, Vye, and Sherwood 1989; Lieux 1996), and increase the retention rates (Stice 1987; Schachter 1996; Silberman 1996; Hertel and Millis 2002). In particular, material learned through active learning exercises that tap into multiple senses and emotions and create “memorable events” have been found to create more enduring, more easily recalled memories (Clark and Paivio 1991; Jensen 1998; Banikowski and Mehring 1999). Moreover, active and experiential learning generates or enhances personal interest in a subject (McKeachie 1986; Lieux 1996; Newmann and Twigg 2000). (Krain & Lantis 2006, p. 399)

There are several other preconditions for a successful simulation. First, the majority of authors (e.g. Kaunert, 2009; Kerr, 1977; Smith & Boyer, 1996; Usherwood, 2014, 2016) believe setting out clear **objectives** is a key requirement, and all the other preconditions have to be aligned with these objectives (Raymond & Usherwood, 2013). Moreover, students should be informed about the nature and degree of **support** from the facilitators, and of the nature and degree of **preparation**. Importantly, there has to be a clear connection between the intended objectives and the **assessment** to be used in the simulation, this typically being the most problematic aspect of simulations (see below). Furthermore, **feedback** and debriefing is a necessary component of a simulation (Usherwood, 2016). The following elements should thus be aligned in a module (Kaunert, 2009; Usherwood, 2016): intended learning outcomes, learning environment, out-of-class work of participants, scenario, and assessment.

When it comes to **foreign language teaching** specifically, there are many specific **reasons for** using simulations (Lee, 1991; Levine, 2004; Davis, 2004; Hyland, 1993; Dupuy, 2006; Scarcella & Crookall, 1990) to be added to the ones listed above.

As other innovative methods, simulations are often connected to ‘flow’ experience, as involvement in such an activity “tends to encourage students to forget they are learning the new language, and simply to use the language in a socially and personally meaningful and intellectually interesting situation” (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990, p. 225). This way, the simulated **communication** resembles ‘normal language’ in ‘life out there’, beyond the classroom walls. Thus, near-real-life communication situations arise in which students can practise their foreign language skills.

Jones (1982, p. 7) also believes that the simulation is inherently inseparable from **language**. First, the simulation is “held together by mutual need arising out of the structure of the simulation, the functions of the participants and the motivation to communicate” (i.e. cohesiveness). Secondly, it involves “the language of discourse, transaction, negotiation, explanation and enquiry” (i.e. functionality). Functionality also includes the social aspects of suitability of behaviour to simulation roles and occasions. It is important to realise that the aim of a FLT simulation is not the production of grammatically correct utterances, but of adequate and suitable communication. In this understanding, even mistakes and failures count as learning experience. As simulations are “language in action, they reveal what really has been learned at a practical level”, as opposed to the rather artificial situation in a language test (Jones, 1982, p. 18). What follows is that one of simulations’ biggest assets is fluency

development and integration of **language skills**. As Scarcella and Crookall (1990, p. 225) put it,

one important characteristic of simulation is its capacity to allow a wide range of complex and varied communication patterns and social relations to develop. In addition, simulation allows the topic or issues under discussion to be dealt with at a variety of levels of complexity, thereby allowing participants to continue to be attracted to learning. Simulation therefore tends to raise the level at which 'enough has been learned'... Because it is inherently motivating, simulation may encourage learners to be more willing to continue expending energy on language learning – or rather, on activities which encourage the learning of language.

FLT simulations also facilitate the development of **intercultural competences** (culture-general learning) and help students with understanding the target culture (culture-specific learning), as well as with various social and cultural aspects of communication (Jones, 1982). Ruben and Lederman (1990, p. 208) point out that as opposed to the provision of cultural information by means of a lecture or a book, a simulation actually “allows for learning about communication and culture through direct and actual experience”. Dupuy (2006) goes as far as to say that culture learning is actually at the very core of simulations. Just as culture learning⁹⁴ encompasses both culture-specific and culture-generic elements, simulations themselves may be divided into culture-specific and culture-generic categories (Ruben & Lederman, 1990). While the first type deals with a particular culture (e.g. above mentioned Dupuy’s 2006 “L’Immeuble”), the other focuses on learning about human communication in general, irrespective of a specific culture. This way, simulations also bring along a deeper understanding of one’s own culture, as it is necessary to relate new findings to an individual’s existing knowledge, i.e. of his / her culture.⁹⁵

6.2.2 Challenges of Simulations

In the previous section, we introduced benefits of simulation use. The given section follows it up, by listing challenges associated with the use of simulations.

A noticeable problem relating to the simulation method is the limited quantity (and possibly quality, see below) of research studies available. Moreover, much of the research is related to the use of simulations in the field of international relations (IR). We will be listing findings of the IR simulation studies, as the simulation under scrutiny, Model United Nations (MUN), is often utilised in IR. Another problem associated with the research studies presented is the fact that they have predominantly been conducted in a tertiary setting. Here, it is unfortunately the only source of any information and data, as no studies relating to simulations have been carried out at the secondary level.

The given section provides an overview of some of the challenges in the use of simulations in education as seen by researchers, alongside some possible ways of addressing them. The introductory passage deals with the crucial questions of the effectiveness of the method and

⁹⁴ **Culture learning** is “the process of acquiring the culture-specific and culture-general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures. It is a dynamic, developmental, and ongoing process which engages the learner cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively.” (Paige et al., 2003, p. 4) (see section 3.2).

⁹⁵ Global simulations, including MUNs display rather culture-general elements.

the criticism related to its use, followed by sections on objectives, assessment and evaluation, times and space constraints, student involvement, and other issues. The final section deals with specific problems that may arise in the FLT situation.

Effectiveness of the simulation method

Some authors, including Raymond and Usherwood (2013), believe that many of the declared benefits of simulations have not been proven correct and that they are often based on faulty presumption, e.g. about the nature of motivation, the learning environment and learning styles, or content knowledge and affective knowledge. On a similar note, Smith and Boyer (1996, p. 693) claim that “the greatest unknown in using simulations is the impact on student learning”, paraphrased by Hazleton (1984 in Haack, 2008, p. 397) that “relatively little is known about what students may actually learn when participating in [simulations]”. Moreover, a lack of standardized or quantified evidence is frequently voiced, alongside the complaint that most of the evidence in support of simulations is “anecdotal” (e.g. Krain & Lantis, 2006; Raymond, 2010; Smith & Boyer, 1996).

Raymond (2010, p. 51) conducted a study investigating “whether a simulation had statistically significant effect on students’ exam scores in an [international relations] course or on student teaching evaluation scores”. He doubts the value of simulations, since even though the student questionnaires and evaluations confirm the claims of simulation proponents (such as student enjoyment or connectedness of abstract ideas to concrete experience) when using the criteria of exam scores, no statistical support for the achievement of learning goals was found. Raymond concludes that the simulation “was associated with only a tenth of a point increase in students’ exam scores” (a maximum of 100 points, p. 59) and as such, combined with the time and effort consumption, “it is questionable whether this simulation was a useful pedagogical exercise” (ibid., p. 60). Krain and Lantis (2006) nevertheless point out that the listed problems generally concern the field of political science and international relations in which simulations are often employed.

Taking as the starting point the suspicion that not all the declared benefits of active learning strategies may actually be true for simulations in international relations, Krain and Lantis (2006) conducted an experimental research study involving two sets of students in corresponding seminars, acting alternately as experimental and control group. In their research they compared the effectiveness of simulations on the one hand, with that of the “traditional lecture/discussion techniques”⁹⁶ on the other, using statistical methods. They tested whether students who participated in their simulation, named Global Problems Summit, “demonstrated a statistically significant level of increased knowledge about these issues compared with control groups who learned the same material in a traditional classroom (lecture/discussion) format” (ibid., p. 395). They concluded that while neither of the approaches was “inherently superior to the other” (ibid., p. 404), they generated different kinds of learning. The authors deduce the following (ibid., pp. 404-405):

⁹⁶ Here, it may be worth pointing out that while the literature available mentions discussion as being a “traditional” technique, it is not so in the Czech context. In the Czech schools, be it on secondary or tertiary level, discussions are still treated as something innovative, and even though the situation improves, a discussion is oftentimes not an inherent part of lectures.

The evidence presented here suggests that role-playing simulations ... may be particularly well suited for helping students to go beyond the boundaries of their own locales and experiences, and to develop empathy. Both groups in the first experiment saw significant increases in their perceived understanding of other countries' positions on the issue of weapons proliferation. However, the experimental group's gains in this area were significantly greater than those of the control group. Assessment of the more subjective elements of our study also suggests a possible link between simulation participation and an increased understanding of the importance of the ability to think beyond one's own experience... In summary, while both active learning techniques and more traditional classroom techniques can be effective in helping [students] increase their knowledge about global issues, the Global Problems Summit helped boost student understanding of some of the broader dimensions of international cooperation. This finding adds empirical evidence to bolster claims made by proponents of active and experiential learning. Not only did students enjoy the simulation and believe that it helped them to relate better to what otherwise might feel like distant and abstract global problems, but they also gained knowledge as demonstrated by rigorous and objective assessment techniques.

Similarly, Pierfy (1977 in Petranek, Corey, & Black, 1992, p. 175) having reviewed 22 studies on the effectiveness of simulation concludes that simulations are "not better (but neither were they worse) than conventional teaching methods and that [they] have a significant advantage over traditional instruction when it comes to changing attitudes and student interest." Furthermore, Preston (2000 in Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst-Tatsuki, 2011, p. 97) claims that the experiential nature of the activity is more likely "to challenge [students'] thoughts and beliefs than abstract notions delivered in a lecture." Haack (2008) claims that simulations have the potential of facilitating deep learning (as opposed to surface learning), but only when the activities are well-scaffolded and provide plentiful opportunities for the employment of higher order thinking skills, and can create a dialogue between theory and practice.

To summarise, there are some innate benefits to the simulation method, even though they may not be demonstrated traditionally. Even though students may not learn more content quantitatively or remember it better than students in courses using a more traditional design, it has been demonstrated that the value lies in other aspects, such as those listed by Krain and Lantis (2006) above. Regarding the use of simulations in FLT, there may be some other additional issues that influence its effectiveness, such as the level of motivation of simulation participants for FL study or the level of their perceived communication competence (cf. Smejkalová, 2009).

Finally, Jones (1982, pp. 76-77) believes that the difficulty associated with the objective evaluation of the method is that it concerns value judgement:

No amount of research could rank the techniques in order of educational value, producing a list showing the relative educational merits of the lecture compared with the textbook, the discussion, the informal drama and so on... The question of the comparison of techniques is without meaning unless the circumstances are considered.

Validity of the simulation technique is an important question, but it is an empirical one, and one for language teachers and course planners to decide. The question is this: in these circumstances, with these aims, with these students and with this choice of materials, which technique or combination of techniques is likely to be the most effective?

In Jones' view then, the teacher / facilitator plays a vital role and it is his / her job to make the final judgement on whether the simulation has been a success, or not. The whole discussion

can also be related to some general questions regarding the nature and ultimate goals of education and possibly to a “new learning paradigm” (Zenuk-Nishide, 2014).

Objectives

As is generally agreed, many of the problems listed in the introduction to the given section are brought on by the lack of clear learning objectives and the absence of aligned assessment. As in other methods, it is necessary to identify the respective goals in various associated areas, be it in terms of specific skills, knowledge, behaviour, language, or socialization. Setting objectives determines the structure and methods used (Smith & Boyer, 1996).

Raymond and Usherwood (2013, p. 158) go as far as to say that “simulations can negatively affect student-learning outcomes if they lack clarity in their learning objectives”. According to them (p. 162), “a methodologically well-designed simulation integrates student participation, learning objectives, and learning outcomes”. Interestingly enough, Jones (1995, pp. 11-12) claims that setting clear objectives prior to the actual simulation is not essential, and that it is better to “formulate aims on the basis of what actually happens rather than on what is supposed to happen”. In his understanding, the process is much more important than the product and predicting the course of the event, directed and ‘owned’ by the students, is not really possible.

Still, most authors would agree the nature of interaction can be predicted to a certain extent and it is therefore possible to set goals in varying degrees of detail prior to the activity. Furthermore, a facilitator does need to have a purpose in mind, otherwise the simulation can become messy. Usherwood (2016) provides the following example:

Consider a situation where you want to run a simulation about the Cabinet. Is focus on the internal operation of the Cabinet, with its committees? Or on the relationship between ministries, ministers and Cabinet? Or on the relationship between Cabinet and Prime Minister and party? Or on building package deals across issues and over time? All of these are possibilities and equally valid, depending on the learning objectives, but each require different simulation design and game-play, from a very stylised and abstract model to one grounded in the fine detail of the real-world practice.

To sum up, a recommended procedure is for the teacher to have a set of goals in mind when preparing and facilitating the activity, while being flexible and open to chances based on what happens during the course of the simulation.

Assessment and evaluation

Another feature of simulations, closely related to objectives, is assessment and evaluation. **Assessment** is often seen as very challenging, which can also be demonstrated by a somewhat inconsistent use of the term itself. Some authors use this term in the meaning of feedback (e.g. Usherwood, 2014), others when describing grading (e.g. Dupuy, 2006), or when assessing the effectiveness of the method as a learning tool (e.g. Raymond & Usherwood, 2013). Here, assessment is understood as a means “to demonstrate that simulations are productive tools for learning” (Raymond & Usherwood, 2013, p. 157).

Most authors agree that in order for assessment to be effective, it needs to be aligned with goals (e.g. Kaunert, 2009; Usherwood, 2014). Nevertheless, too often is assessment “both

students' and educators' least enjoyable part of the learning experience" (Raymond & Usherwood, 2013, p. 163). Therefore, assessment needs to become an integral part of the simulation, e.g. in relation to debriefing and feedback both on the activity as it stands and on student performance (for more information on debriefing, see section 6.3.4).

According to Kaunert (2009), assessment may be conducted using three main tools. First, by gaining feedback from students, be it in the form of student satisfaction questionnaires, group discussions, or emails. Secondly, Kaunert recommends the use of peer observations of teaching. And, finally, self-reflection of one's teaching is encouraged. Usherwood (2014, 2016) specifies which areas should be assessed during the assessment process, namely the processes employed during the simulation, the actors (i.e. participants and their performance), and outputs. Smith and Boyer (1996, p. 694) list three questions to "analyse the impact that simulation techniques have on students: 1) What are the advantages / disadvantages of using simulation in class?, 2) What did you learn from the simulation?, 3) How does this class differ from other classes you have taken?"

Related to assessment is the question of **evaluation** of student performance, i.e. grading of coursework, as this is a general requirement of most activities taking place in formal educational settings. Three basic questions to be asked are:

- Who conducts the evaluation?
- How, i.e. using what means, is evaluation conducted?
- What is evaluated?

As we will see, evaluation and assessment are closely related and often inseparable from each other. Thus, a presentation of the final outcome can serve as an assessment as well as evaluation tool.

Who

To answer the first question, it is typically the teacher-facilitator who has the primary responsibility for the evaluation of student performance and grading.⁹⁷ Dupuy (2006), nevertheless, employs a different strategy, allocating marks from three sources – teacher, peers, and self-evaluation (c.f. Pike and Selby's 1994 evaluation of global education activities). In this concept, the teacher "provides measurable criteria related to each project objectives" (Dupuy, 2006, p. 21). Students are involved in two separate tasks, namely peer assessment of both oral and written products and teamwork as well as self-reflection of their own work and participation. In such an approach, there is a lot of stress on student involvement and this hereby extends the student-centred nature of the method. On a similar note, Davis (1996) allocates as much as 50% of the final grade to student's own rating.⁹⁸

⁹⁷ Whenever considering evaluation of participation, the teacher should bear in mind the possible constraints. Should evaluation e.g. be done by means of observation of student participation, there need to be a sufficient number of assessors present (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013). Usherwood (2014) suggests that it is not possible for one assessor to evaluate more than five people for a longer period of time. This obviously limits the breadth of evaluation possibilities; feasibility is thus a key concern.

⁹⁸ Some ideas for evaluation and self-evaluation can be found in Gollob et al., 2010.

According to Kasíková (2010, p. 91), there are four possible approaches that can be employed to ensure comprehensiveness of the evaluation process:

- a group evaluates their own group work
- members of the group evaluate each other
- individuals evaluate themselves in the group context
- final presentation or product can be evaluated by another group or by the teacher

How

In terms of the evaluation instruments, an obvious question arises. Should traditional evaluation means, i.e. examinations and tests be used, or should we rather employ means more appropriate to the innovative nature of the method?

The decision regarding which type of evaluation to use is based on a number of factors, such as whether the simulation constitutes a key activity of the whole course or only one of the activities in the course, or whether the course is compulsory or optional. In their description of an Model United Nations (MUN) course at their university, Obendorf and Randerson (2012, p. 2) take care to point out that “the existence of Model United Nations as an assessed module is a highly distinctive feature... and a departure from the delivery of Model United Nations primarily as a co-curricular or extra-curricular activity at other institutions worldwide”. This, among others, means that as a compulsory course, it has very specific evaluation criteria and procedures (perhaps more formal and stricter ones), enabling it to be included as a part of overall degree classification. In the case of an extra-curricular activity, evaluation may be rather informal, conducted by means of oral feedback, disregarding grades, etc.

To provide an example of the reasoning the facilitators undergo when deciding on the evaluation type / scheme, Lowry (1999) explains why she decided not to give exams or tests. She did so because she “wanted students achieve and maintain a focus on understanding the material, rather than studying for an exam” (p. 124). However, she concludes that some students perceived her evaluation system as “uncertain” and that “using quizzes or exams in phase one [preparation stage – see below] would give the grading process a less subjective appearance and would provide information to the students about their performance earlier in the semester” (ibid.). This may be related to the fact that students are used to being formally evaluated and can feel “uncertain” about their grades.

What

Another concern in simulation evaluation is the question of what exactly should be evaluated: Should we focus on the product, which tends to be easier to evaluate, or should we rather pay attention to the process? As simulations are characterised in terms of the project-based learning approach authors advocate for evaluating the process alongside the product (e.g. Dupuy, 2006; Jones, 1995).

There are various possibilities of doing so. Lowry (1999) suggests evaluation should be done in three key areas of student involvement, namely effort, preparation, and participation. She bases her final grade on class participation (25%), written work (50%), and participation at

the conference (25%) – obviously, process is given more (75%) significance in the final grade than product (25%). Similarly, Dougherty (2003) allocates separate grades for two types of activities – papers (product) and performance (process). Obendorf and Randerson (2013) in contrast base their grading on four components: written work – paper (25%), simulation participation (35%), simulation preparation – research (25%), and reflective essay (15%).

When discussing evaluation, it may be useful to realise the differences between various evaluation cultures, i.e. the evaluation context in which the simulation takes place. Jones (1995, p. 23) claims that “some authors, especially the Americans, often build into the event inappropriate point-scoring mechanisms” for the purpose of evaluation. Jones believes that this is wrong as it disrupts the reality of function and can turn the simulation into a game, thus creating an unwanted “ambivalent”:⁹⁹

In a simulation about an assembly it is appropriate to count votes, but it is not appropriate to award a hundred marks for people who introduce successful resolutions, fifty marks for successful amendments, and ten marks for every minute a person speaks. Are the participants supposed to behave as parliamentarians or as gamblers?

On a similar note, McIntosh (2001, p. 275) stresses that the teacher

must resist the temptation to simply reward those who speak the most at the podium. Circulating among the groups, as well as the post-session debriefing, can help one to better estimate the direction and quality of interactions at all levels. In addition, the various student assignments enable assessment of individual work, while the action reports and resolutions provide a running record of group work.

In our experience, allocating points simply for ‘making a point’ also encourages unwelcome competition and even animosity among simulation participants. Moreover, it does not add to the quality of the debate as it encourages participants to make a point purely in order to gain marks for doing so, even though content-wise they have nothing to say.

Specific examples relating to the evaluation of global simulations activities, namely Model United Nations, can be found in Unit 0 – Teacher preparation of section 8.2.3.2.

Time and space constraints

Many authors describe another difficulty associated with the use of simulations, namely time and space constraints (Lee, 1991; McIntosh, 2001; Usherwood, 2014, 2016). Simulations are generally rather time consuming and require extensive preparation both on the part of the facilitator and of the participants. Moreover, in particular the simulation proper part (i.e. the simulated event) demands extra space and may require institutional support from and close cooperation with the school administration to allocate facilities (Adamson, 2013).

Usherwood (2016) points out that time and space constraints can actually influence the choice and design of the simulation itself. Nevertheless, he still insists that the most important aspect

⁹⁹ When discussing this matter, it is worth pointing out the example of the European Youth Parliament simulation (see section 6.5.2). Even though this simulation is in fact a competition, i.e. school teams compete for the chance to attend a national and later on an international conference or session, passing a resolution is intentionally not a scoring criterion. In such a simulation, the participant cannot control features such as the popularity of the topic s/he is assigned or the number of times s/he is given the floor. Rather, participation, quality of points, general conduct, or adherence to rules and procedures is evaluated. Simply put, the stress is on quality, not quantity.

of the simulation preparation is the goals to be achieved, only followed by the question of feasibility. If something is not possible, then the simulation layout or the constraints need to be questioned and adjusted.

Furthermore, the use of simulations reduces the time that is available to other activities and content (Dougherty, 2003; Krain & Lantis, 2006). Smith and Boyer (1996, p. 691) claim that this is actually “the principal disadvantage of using simulations ... The teacher must sacrifice a degree of breadth in substantive coverage in return for a deeper level of student understanding on more narrow topics.” This is, nevertheless, often welcomed by teachers who opt for a deeper understanding of the topic, as opposed to ‘narrow breadth’ (cf. deep learning above).

Student involvement

In terms of student involvement and participation, various types of problems can arise. First, a simulation heavily depends on **student willingness** to get involved in this type of interactive learning.¹⁰⁰ Dougherty (2003, p. 241) points out that “if students are only half-heartedly involved or uncomfortable, the exercises may not go smoothly”. The feeling of discomfort can often be caused by the participants not having taken part in such an activity before and thus related to a feeling of **anxiety**, or to be **afraid of public speaking**. This can be reduced by practice in interactive learning (see section 6.3.2.3), in which students have enough space and opportunities to practise before participating in the simulated event (simulation proper). Such activities may also help overcome student passivity and expectations of teacher-centred classes (Lee, 1991). Dougherty (2003) also suggests that assigning separate grades for preparation and participation can ease anxiety felt by some students in providing them with a feeling of recognition of their work. Other students may be afraid to express their opinions, especially when the issue at hand is sensitive or controversial. Ezzedeen (2008, p. 233) stresses that “instructors must ensure that all sides are addressed so that students can disagree without fear of derision“.

Some other concerns related to students-participants involve the presence of an **overenthusiastic or dominant student** (Dougherty, 2003) or a student trying to monopolize the simulation, which can in turn discourage and demotivate other participants (Ezzedeen, 2008). Here, it is up to the chair to deal with the situation, e.g. by reminding them of the requirement for mutual respect, by tabling the given issue, or by limiting the space or time for the delegate’s speech. Moreover, after the activity, the student can be taken aside for individual debriefing. Alternatively, especially for training purposes in the preparation stage or during in-class simulations, individual speakers can be given tokens which they exchange for the right to take the floor (i.e. to speak); employing this strategy should even up participation and ensure that the whole debate is not dominated by one or two students.

¹⁰⁰ Kasíková (2010) provides a comprehensive overview of issues possibly arising from uneven participation of students during cooperative learning activities, including various remedy strategies. She includes the following types of issues: dominant student, weak student, shy student, gender polarity, group discussion, conflict and argumentation, uncritical consensus, difficult task, intervention into group work, disciplinary issues, noise in the classroom, ill-equipped classroom (material issues).

Another possible way of dealing with this problem is introducing a degree of staff intervention by e.g. occupying the position of the chair by a member of the staff (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013, p. 357). This enables the facilitator to “maintain equity of opportunity... and to ensure adherence to the rules of procedure”, which can be especially useful in the preparation stages (cf. the cited authors included this element also in the simulation proper) (see also section 6.4).

A **less talkative student** (Ezzedeen, 2008), on the other hand, requires appraisal and encouragement. Sometimes this may entail the chair to call on them in the debate, or to discuss their unwillingness to communicate and join the debate in private.

A final pitfall is an **ill- or unprepared student**. Such a student’s performance (or rather non-performance) can again negatively affect other students’ participation and their learning. Dougherty (2003, p. 242) suggests “explaining to students in advance that their learning and that of their classmates depends upon everyone’s contributions” (c.f. cooperative learning). Here, it is probably advisable to penalise students for not having prepared, should this happen repeatedly.

Many of these practical problems can be addressed by class rules that can be put together during the first lesson / session. The result – an agreement in the form of a poster, signed by all participants, can be placed at a visible spot and referred to whenever needed (cf. Kasíková, 2010). All of the points covered in this section can also be discussed in the debriefing session, should they be encountered during the practice activities or simulation proper.

Other issues

Other areas of concern include the rather high **noise level** (Lee, 1991), especially in comparison with regular classes and activities. As simulations are student-centred, this is something inherent to simulations and as such has to be expected and accepted.

Moreover, there is an expressed **lack of connection to other areas of teaching**, which “reduces the useful inputting by participants of knowledge and skills from elsewhere” (Usherwood, 2014, p. 57). This is a rather big issue as authors of simulations typically believe that its use will actually contextualize the knowledge gained and facilitate its active use. This problem can be dealt with by proper and meaningful feedback which helps make the connection between the knowledge and skills gained through simulation and other teaching areas or in real life (Usherwood, 2016).

Another concern involves the excessive under- or over-simplification of the simulated event. **Under-simplification** involves the “inclusion of an excessive number of factors” (Usherwood, 2016), while **over-simplification** occurs “when there is so much focus on a single dimension of the real-world object that insufficient attention is paid to other important and relevant factors” (Usherwood, 2016). While extremes are indeed problematic, a certain amount of simplification is necessary and in fact inherent to simulations. The key thing to consider is that any decisions regarding simulation content should be fully justified and should not compromise the learning goals which often involve getting an understanding of the real-life situation or organisation (Usherwood, 2014).

Finally, a certain **level of role conflict** is necessary in order for the simulation to run properly. Too little conflict (‘everybody agreed about everything’) will produce little discussion. Too much conflict will compromise the activity by becoming offensive, and will thus prevent certain students from taking part (Usherwood, 2014). This problem can be addressed by a prior analysis of the scenario and by highlighting at which point of the simulation the problem may arise (Usherwood, 2016). Students can be briefed about this particular problem’s existence and about its possible negative effect on the simulation.

Specific problems of simulations in FLT

Naturally, all the problems listed in the section above apply to FLT simulations. Moreover, there are some language-specific ones.

First, FLT simulations are often believed to be suitable for linguistically more **advanced** students (cf. Smejkalová, 2009). This is definitely the case with more complex simulations, including global simulations which require students to focus on the specific content and, possibly and ideally, study authentic texts and resources in the target language. From this point of view, role-plays will prove more suitable and feasible activities for less advanced and younger students¹⁰¹, as the level of complexity of activities should always be adjusted to student needs (Adamson, 2013).

Sometimes, the perceived **inadequate level** of foreign **language skills** may pose a problem. This, obviously, has to be addressed by the facilitator during the briefing stage. As Adamson (2013, p. 561) points out, there is a need to “let the level, abilities, and interests of ... students dictate the manner of the event, not the other way around”; the facilitator should decide on the level of complexity of the simulation and the topics to be discussed accordingly. In Churchill’s (1997) experience, it is for this reason that organisers of FLT Model United Nations conferences (see section 6.5.1) in Japan sometimes restrict the extent of topics in the simulation to less challenging ones, such as social and environmental issues (as opposed to questions of security or economic issues). Offering manageable (i.e. not overwhelming) topics believed to encourage student participation. This is connected to the issue of **cognitive overload** (Adamson, 2013), i.e. overwhelming students with the amount of content to be studied in a foreign language. This can be overcome by careful selection and proper scaffolding of material, as well as by cooperation among students. Correspondingly, prioritizing of vocabulary is a necessity.

Another issue often discussed in academic literature is the **use of mother tongue** in simulations. It can be expected that such situations will occur in which students will be tempted to use their mother tongue, especially at the early stages of simulation, e.g. in the briefing stage (cf. Bullard, 1990), or during unmoderated discussion. As with all areas of teaching, flexibility is important in simulations and a complete ban on the use of the mother tongue may be counter-productive (Adamson, 2013). As in CLIL activities, a certain amount of code-switching is acceptable. Nevertheless, the facilitator must require more use of L2 as

¹⁰¹ Younger students are not only likely to have a lower level of L2 proficiency, but may also lack cognitive capacities or adequate experience of the world to take part in more complex simulations, including global simulations.

the simulation progresses and it should be made clear that during moderated debates and during simulation proper, L1 is forbidden (Lee, 1991).

Monitoring students' language progress during the simulation can also prove fairly difficult. The teacher's role in the simulation changes from a more active role in the introductory and preparatory stage to that of an observer in the simulation proper, during which he / she can devote time to collecting data for debriefing. The teacher's role and suggestions for observation and feedback are discussed in section 6.4.

A special area of concern is preparation of **materials** to be used during the briefing phase (see section 6.3.2). Such material has to be chosen with great care and properly scaffolded to enable students to get acquainted with the simulation and its rules. Moreover, the facilitator must predict the simulation-specific language and pre-teach specific vocabulary items to the students (see Appendices for examples of supplementary materials).

The declared benefits and challenges of simulations in FLT have also been subjected to scrutiny in various research studies that will be introduced in the next section.

6.2.3 Research on Simulations in FLT

The given section introduces research on simulations that has been conducted specifically in the area of foreign language teaching. There exist institutions that experiment with FLT simulations, predominantly at the tertiary level, and then report on their syllabus, simulation design, and/or experience (e.g. Black, 1995; Davis, 1996; García-Carbonell et al., 2001; Levine, 2004; Xiaoyou & Jian, 2004; Smejkalová, 2005; Dimitrova & Ivanov, 2005). Moreover, there is a significant body of literature on simulations in other fields (e.g. international relations) that are nevertheless conducted in the mother tongue of. Few studies have, however, been conducted in the field of FLT simulations that would find out more about the impact that simulations have on their participants, and confirm or rebut arguments raised by the promoters of the method. Below, several such studies are introduced.

In her evaluation of a global simulation entitled 'L'Immeuble'¹⁰², Dupuy (2006, p. 22) contradicts previous experience with the use of project-based learning according to which "students had mixed feelings about this approach to learning" (quoting Beckett's review of project-based learning student evaluations from 2002). Challenging this view, Dupuy reports that the evaluation of the students taking part in the given simulation was "overwhelmingly positive":

Students highlight the importance of having a collaborative, holistic approach to language teaching and learning in which more knowledgeable peers can be sought for help. Collaborative learning also leads to more positive attributions for learning success, greater self-perception, and increased confidence with the target language... Contrary to some of the student reactions reported in Beckett's (2002) literature review, here students welcomed having autonomy from the teacher, having control on the direction and shape of the GS, and learning in a non-traditional way. Students attested that this project was more interesting and engaging than any other they had before. (2006, pp. 22-23).

¹⁰² 'L'Immeuble' was a semester-long global simulation implemented in a third-year French course at an American university. The level of language proficiency was intermediate / high-intermediate.

Dupuy (2006, p. 23) received also some negative comments typically associated with the fact that simulations are time-demanding and are “a LOT of work, combined with all of the assignments in other classes”. Nevertheless, this was perceived by her students as a source of disappointment resulting from the inability to devote more time to the simulation, an activity they liked.

Davis (1996) conducted a very small questionnaire study dealing with EFL simulation he himself devised, but unfortunately with a rather small number of participants (15). The data concluded that over 70% of them “regarded this technique more productive than other exercises they had experienced before.” Davis concludes his study by saying that “whatever the obstacles, the comments in the questionnaire have shown me that once students had tasted the benefits of simulation, their desires to learn improved considerably”.

One of the most interesting studies is the questionnaire study conducted by Smejkalová (2005) among 125 Czech university students of German for business management. In this study, 80% of the participants saw simulations as being very important for the development of team work and creativity, and they also claimed that taking part in simulations motivated them for better performance. 56% also stated that simulations enliven regular FLT lessons. When asked about the negatives of the method, 9% of the participants said that the other classmates were not active enough, 5% viewed the necessity of a quick and flexible reaction to arising problems as a serious issue, and 7% stated they do not favour group work.

Smejkalová (2009) conducted also a follow-up study, this time using more advanced statistical techniques, in which she looked into the relationship among the preference for the simulation method and various student personality traits, including self-perceived communication competence in a FL or motivation for FL study. In the context of teaching German as a second language for university students of economics, Smejkalová found out that the simulation method is most preferred by students with a strong to very strong motivation for learning the given foreign language. The two features are directly proportional, the higher the motivation to learn the foreign language, the higher the preference for the simulation method.¹⁰³ The research also demonstrated that there is a direct proportion between the preference for the simulation method and the level of self-perceived communication competence, and that the simulation method is preferred by more advanced students. Thus, the higher the self-perceived communication competence, the higher the preference.¹⁰⁴

Even though these studies were carried out in FLT settings, none of them dealt specifically with the identification of possible impact of simulation participation on the development of

¹⁰³ “Bylo zjištěno, že metodu simulace nejvíce preferují studenti s velmi silnou až silnou motivací učit se daný cizí jazyk. Jedná se v podstatě o přímou úměru – čím vyšší motivace učit se cizí jazyk, tím vyšší preference metody simulace.” (Smejkalová, 2009, p. 120)

¹⁰⁴ “...metodu simulace preferují nejvíce studenti s dosaženou pokročilou až více pokročilou úrovní dané kompetence... Definovaný vztah můžeme opět vyjádřit přímou úměrou: čím vyšší dosažená subjektivně vnímaná a hodnocená kompetence, tím vyšší preference metody simulace.” (Smejkalová, 2009, p. 122)

In our research, it was shown that many students chose the simulation for contrary reasons, i.e. to improve their communicative competence. Nevertheless, it is true, that the students with a truly low communicative competence do not attend global simulations at all.

communicative competence. Moreover, as far as the author is informed, there is no research available on how simulations are used at the secondary level. The given research aims at providing data in the listed areas.

6.3 Structure of Simulations

There are various models of organising a simulation. In the given section, several of these models are introduced, followed by a modified model presented in our given study.

To start with, Bullard (1990) distinguishes three phases in a simulation: briefing, the simulation itself, and debriefing. Both briefing and debriefing further comprise two separate aspects, namely language and behaviour. Similarly, Jones (1982, p. 6) characterises a simulation as a three-part event with the same parts.

Sturtridge (1977, p. 11) presents a more detailed model breaking the design even further into the following phases:

Phase I

- informational input
 - the task
 - the roles
 - background
 - technical data
- linguistic input
 - drills
 - exercises
 - discussion strategies

Phase II

- group or pair work
- the 'confrontation' or discussion of the task or problem
- further work arising from the discussion; e.g. report writing

Phase III

- feedback
 - assessment of learner's performance
 - discussion of errors
 - intermediate remedial work
- (linguistic input)

Finally, Hyland (1993) introduces the following framework which adds another phase, preparation:

1. Preparation

- ensuring student familiarity and confidence with interactive learning
- assessing students' needs, interests, and abilities
- selecting or writing the simulation
- organising the room and gathering resources

2. Introduction

- *Information input*: tasks, roles, background; learners engage in information collection tasks

- *Language input*: useful lexis, structures, genres, discussion strategies, research skills, etc.

3. Activity

- group discussions and work on tasks
- solution of problem or completion of tasks
- work arising from discussions, e.g., report writing or oral presentations

4. Debriefing (optional)

- *Behaviour*: task review, discussion of tactics employed, assessment of performance, possible discussion of cultural aspects
- *Language*: analysis of language used, discussion of errors, remedial work, further linguistic input

For the purpose of the given paper, the models introduced above have been modified and merged, as found in Table 2 below. The modified version is more in line with prevailing terminology in literature on FLT simulation. Moreover, the updated model reflects the author's experience with simulation design. The core of the model, nevertheless, remains the same as in Hyland's model.

PHASE	DESCRIPTION / TASKS
1. Introduction	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assessment of students' needs, interests, and abilities • setting aims and objectives • selection, adaptation or writing of the simulation – creation of detailed design • collection of resources, development of materials • determining assessment and evaluation, development of assessment / evaluation instruments • discussion of aims and benefits with students-participants
2. Preparation (briefing)	
a. language briefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lexis and structures • genres and styles • discussion and presentation strategies • roles and tasks • rules and procedures
b. situation briefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • familiarising with the background, collection of information • research skills
c. practice activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ensuring student familiarity and confidence with interactive learning
3. Simulation proper	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • preparing and organising the room • group discussions and completion of tasks • production of simulation outcomes
4. Debriefing	
a. behaviour debriefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reflection on students' participation

b. language debriefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •language analysis •further language input
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Table 2 – Phases of FLT simulation

There are various approaches to the **length** of the individual stages. This depends on the amount of time allocated to the simulation and also on the amount of preparation students are expected to do outside the class. Lowry (1999) sets class time aside for students to conduct their research, which enables the students to discuss any issues or concerns they encountered with the facilitator and, moreover, to receive individual feedback from him / her during the lessons. The length of the individual stages also obviously depends on the extent and length of the simulation proper which can range from one lesson to a several-day conference. In courses that are built around simulations,

the briefing and debriefing make up the ordinary classroom lessons, sandwiching the simulations and providing the opportunities for language input. They are times when students meet and reflect upon new lexis or structures. The simulation itself is mainly an output activity, providing language practice. (Bullard, 1990, p. 55)¹⁰⁵

This is the approach we take when devising the MUN course. Below we provide a detailed description of the individual phases.

6.3.1 Phase 1 – Introduction

The introductory part involves the following elements

- assessment of students' needs, interests, and abilities
- setting aims and objectives
- selection, adaptation or writing of the simulation – creation of detailed design
- collection of resources, development of materials
- determining assessment and evaluation, development / selection of assessment / evaluation instruments
- discussion of aims and benefits with students-participants

6.3.1.1 Needs analysis and simulation selection

When selecting a simulation, Jones (1982, p. 29) recommends observing the following six steps:

1. Decide on the priority of aims – icebreakers, assessment and so on.
2. Estimate the interactive language competence of the students.
3. Search for simulations in as wide an area as possible.
4. If the language level of a simulation is suitable, then examine the mechanics of the simulation – time, numbers, interactive possibilities and so on.
5. If it seems to be a suitable choice, then participate in it yourself first.
6. Consider whether it needs adapting, bearing in mind the dangers of over-adaptation.

¹⁰⁵ This is the structure used in the proposal, as described in the research part of the paper.

The very first step a teacher planning a simulation has to make is conducting an **assessment** of students' level of language, their needs and abilities, based on which **aims** are set for the simulation. Needs analysis can be done in various ways, such as using questionnaires, tests, or interviews and discussions. **Relevance** of the simulation to the students' needs is crucial, as when there is a lack of it, students are less motivated to conduct the tasks. As Lee (1991) summarises,

The reason why they are learning the language would help in the selection of the ... simulation activity as these activities are to give them practice for real life situations. For example in the ESP¹⁰⁶ class, activities should be related to the type of course the students are taking. Management students would thus be involved in roles and simulations which are relevant to them for e.g. acting as different types of executives in a board meeting to decide on an important company policy.

Interestingly enough, Jones (1982) contradicts this opinion and believes that when the simulation aim is communication practice in a FL, it may actually be more motivating for the students to get involved in a simulation which is from a different, albeit related, science field. Either way, it seems important, even more so with adult students, to identify their needs and choose the simulation accordingly, ideally in combination with discussing the proposed syllabus with them.

After the needs analysis and language level evaluation have been conducted, the teacher starts the **simulation selection process**; there are three basic ways of approaching the selection.¹⁰⁷ First, it is possible to use a ready-made simulation. Alternatively, a ready-made can be adapted to reflect student needs and for the purposes of the given course. Last, a brand new simulation may be written.

All of these possibilities have their advantages as well as challenges. When **using a ready-made simulation**, the group is expected to follow instructions that were prepared by someone not knowing the specifics of the group; this way, part of the simulation may not be absolutely relevant, or at the appropriate level. Having said that, this variant is probably the least time-consuming and least demanding for the teacher to set up. It is also most suitable for beginner teachers. Jones (1982) recommends following the simulation creator's recommendations closely, as s/he may have a hidden agenda in mind necessary for the success of the simulation, which may be removed by the facilitator believing a feature, document, or role to be unnecessary. Jones also encourages the facilitator to try the simulation out before in-class use to have a first-hand experience in its strengths and weaknesses and to identify areas which

¹⁰⁶ English for Specific Purposes, e.g. Business English, Medical English or Legal English.

¹⁰⁷ Hyland (1993) recommends answering the following 13 questions to help the facilitator with selecting the simulation:

1. What do I want my students to know, to do, or to learn?
2. What is the event to be simulated?
3. What is the problem to be resolved?
4. What are the participants' roles and how are they grouped?
5. What goals do the participants have? How do they relate to each other?
6. What information does each participant have? (Often there needs to be an information gap.)
7. How is the event conducted, by whom, and for how long?
8. What background information do the participants need?
9. What particular lexis, structures, or language skills are needed, if any, to make the simulation successful?
10. What materials or props are required, if any?
11. What tasks can be given to early finishers?
12. What questions should be asked in the debriefing?
13. What follow up work or future simulations are suggested?

may require adaptation. We believe that given the complex nature of simulations, a first-hand experience is a must.

If the facilitator chooses to **adapt** a simulation, it is typically done in one of the two areas – language and mechanics. “Adapting the mechanics of a simulation is aimed at making it function more effectively in the conditions in which it is used,” such as assigning two people instead of one to a particularly challenging role in order for them to help each other (Jones, 1982, p. 31). Language adaptation, on the other hand, involves modifications in materials that may be too sophisticated for the given level. Adaptation of simulation may comprise “rewording of materials, pre-teaching necessary skills, or adding or changing specific information, directions, or activities” (Cummings & Genzel, 1990, p. 72). In the adaptation process, the teacher may alternate only certain aspects of the simulation, or specify and adjust the preparation stages (e.g. prolong or intensify linguistic preparation) in order to ensure students are well-prepared for the simulation proper.

An alternative approach, suitable for more experienced teachers, is **designing a brand new simulation**. This way, it is most probable that the needs and abilities of the particular group of students will be met.¹⁰⁸

Cummings and Genzel (1990, p. 71) list the following framework for simulation design:

1. determining game¹⁰⁹ criteria
2. developing the basic game idea
3. creating game materials¹¹⁰
 - a. objectives for the game;
 - b. complete directions for players’ and facilitators’ roles (if needed);
 - c. game setup instructions, including placement of props and materials required and their use;
 - d. play instructions, including rules, interaction patterns, action sequence, time limits, and other special cautions or directions for players and facilitators;
 - e. and procedure for aftergame feedback and discussion.
4. testing and revising

Levine (2004) views the process in a similar way. Nevertheless, he adds the necessity to not only identify the simulation premise or scenario but also the final project and “milestones”.

Except for writing the scenario itself, it is also necessary to gather and prepare **materials** to be used in the simulation, be it in the preparatory part, or in the simulation proper. This may comprise creating worksheets for linguistic preparation that cover specific lexical areas, as well as preparing headed notepaper to ensure maximum simulated environment. As Hyland (1993, paraphrasing Crookall, 1984) points out, the stress is on “creating believable situations that emphasise reality of context over language, and this may mean using resources not

¹⁰⁸ For specific examples of new simulations, see Dupuy, 2006 or Levine, 2004. These were written for a specific target group – university students, foreign language class of a specific proficiency, a specific semester. After the global simulations were first tried out, they became an integral part of the curriculum.

¹⁰⁹ The word “game” in their understanding is of the same meaning as “simulation” – see section 6.1.1 for a clarification of terminology.

¹¹⁰ Cummings and Genzel (1990) believe that the central aim of simulation design is to ensure that the simulation may be used by someone other than the designer which is why they also specify the content of directions for use (p. 71).

specifically designed for language work.” This view is shared by other authors, e.g. Činčera (2003) who notes that achieving a sense of reality within the simulation can be helped even by seeming trifles, such as the use of name badges for participants.

6.3.1.2 Assessment and evaluation

Assessment and evaluation can be quite a challenging part of the simulation design (see section 6.2.2). There are, nevertheless, several ways of approaching it, typically evaluating students’ performance in individual tasks or contribution to group work. Moreover, students’ product outcomes can be graded, with a final report, essay, oral presentation, or news bulletin (Hyland, 1993).

When evaluating the **product outcomes**, Davis (1996) suggests using the following criteria:

- layout – introduction, rationale, design, etc.
- mechanics – punctuation, spelling, and capitalization as studied in class
- content – organization, depth and breadth of arguments, presentation of ideas
- language usage – specific terminology

When evaluating **content**, especially of written work, it may also be worth considering taking into account the sources used, their quality, and the quality of citations.

When evaluating **group work**, students may provide feedback on their own or others’ performance. This can be done via a role checklist which the participants fill out based on whether they completed the tasks assigned. Davis (1996) believes that such an approach is advantageous as it empowers students and improves their self-reflection. Moreover, “it satisfied the students’ belief that their work should be fairly judged based in a system they clearly understand” (ibid.). Self-evaluation can be complemented by teacher’s observation of the group work (Dupuy, 2006).

For a more detailed overview of evaluation and assessment possibilities in simulations, see section 6.2.2. Specific examples of evaluation outcomes in the Model United Nations global simulation are listed in section 8.2.3.2.

6.3.1.3 Overview briefing of participants

During the introductory stage, it is important to discuss objectives and expected benefits with the students-participants. If the students are new to simulations, they may require a general introduction to what a simulation is, as well as what it is not, which type of behaviour is acceptable and which is not. It is important for participants to understand that role acceptance is an absolute necessity, that they must fulfil their duties in the best possible manner, that playing is not allowed, or that facts cannot be invented (Jones, 1982, pp. 32-33). As has been stated, students have to be informed about evaluation of their performance in the course, which is especially important given the fact that global simulation format is innovative and non-traditional. According to Hyland (1993), it may also be useful “to encourage them to see simulations as an essential and integral part of their language syllabus”.

Furthermore, Jones (1982, p. 32) warns about the danger of using incorrect terminology, as “the wrong words create false expectations, and false expectations cause inappropriate behaviour”. To provide an example, while it is suitable to use the expression ‘participant’ or ‘delegate’, it is unsuitable to use ‘student’, ‘player’, or ‘actor’; similarly using expressions like ‘drama’, ‘role play’, ‘game’, or ‘exercise’ instead of ‘simulation’ or ‘model’ may cause confusion as to the nature of the activity.

Among the participants, there may be students who have no prior experience with cooperative activities and thus have to be trained to work together (Kasíková, 2010). One of the ways to do so is by establishing rules for team work prior to the actual start of the work. These rules (ideal number is between 6 and 10) should be discussed and put together by the given group. Furthermore, they should be worded and written together on a poster. Next, they should be signed by everyone as a symbol of approval and put up in a visible place. This way, they can be referred to during work whenever necessary.

Another problem arising from the novelty of the method is that participants may be unsure as to how much power they can execute in the simulation. If at a loss, they should be advised to “ask themselves whether such powers are normally inherent in the function. If they are, then those are the powers they have in the simulation” (Jones, 1982, p. 33). Anyway, participants should be advised that once in the simulation, they are on their own, and it is thus no longer possible for them to ask for help. They can, nevertheless, get help from simulation participants whose function is such within the mechanics of the simulation.¹¹¹ The fact that they can no longer consult the facilitator should help them understand the necessity of studying and learning simulation rules (using MUN example, learning the rules of procedure). As Jones concludes (1982, p. 33), “the overview briefing should cover all the three aspects of a simulation contained in the definition ‘A simulation is reality of function in a simulated and structured environment’.”

6.3.2 Phase 2 – Briefing (preparation)

The preparatory part involves the following elements:

- language briefing
 - lexis and structures
 - genres and styles
 - discussion and presentation strategies
- situation briefing
 - roles and tasks
 - familiarising with the background, collection of information
 - research skills
 - rules and procedures
- practice activities
 - ensuring student familiarity and confidence with interactive learning

¹¹¹ In the case of MUN, for example, delegates can use the Point of inquiry to ask about a procedural matter.

The main aim of the briefing part is to ensure student confidence in the simulation proper, which it precedes. The basic question the facilitator needs to answer is: “What do the students-participants need to know or be able to do in order to participate effectively in the simulation?”

During this stage, students get familiar with various aspects of the simulation. Thus, they learn about their roles and tasks in the simulation, accommodate strategies necessary for proper functioning in the simulation, or learn specific lexis. As opposed to the simulation proper, the teacher is quite active in the preparation phase as s/he facilitates and organises the content. The teacher’s involvement at this stage is crucial, as s/he scaffolds the learning process (Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011).

Bullard (1990) notes that this phase is often overlooked by teachers-facilitators (just as the debriefing phase is); he nevertheless points out that the success of the actual simulation is dependent on proper briefing. Muldoon (1995) claims that participants typically spend 8 to 16 weeks preparing for the multi-day simulation (conference).¹¹² This is indeed a lot of time which should be made use of most productively.

As an FLT simulation covers both language and content issues, authors (e.g. Lee, 1991) distinguish two basic types of preparation – linguistic and factual (cf. dual goals of CLIL). Similarly, Bullard (1990)¹¹³ uses the terms language and situation briefing. When it comes to terminology, the content of the language briefing appears quite clear. Out of the given labels for the second type of briefing, the term “situation briefing” seems the broadest. This is because it does not suggest limiting the non-linguistic preparation to learning facts or behavioural patterns; therefore, this term is used as an umbrella term for both factual, behaviour, and situation preparation. There is, nevertheless, a third element in the preparation stage, namely practice activities, whose aim is to ensure that the students are familiar and comfortable and confident when conducting the simulation.

What follows is a description of the individual types of preparation.

6.3.2.1 Language briefing

Language briefing (as well as the subsequent language debriefing) covers “all aspects of the use of the target language, its structure, lexis, and so on, as well as any problems related to its use” (Bullard, 1990, p. 55). During this part of the preparation (Kerr, 1977), the teacher predicts the type of language used in the simulation and prepares various activities covering the expected language, be in the form of vocabulary activities or reading and listening exercises; specific functions may also be pre-taught. In this phase, the focus is on accurate use of vocabulary and functions (Sturtridge, 1977), as well as on correct use and pronunciation of specific vocabulary or formulaic phrases (Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011), such as addressing the judge using the expression ‘Your honour’ in a courtroom simulation. Moreover, discussion and writing strategies can be the subject of preparation, including a

¹¹² See examples of syllabi in the research part, section 8.2.3.2.

¹¹³ Bullard (1990) expands Jones’ (1982) concept of language and behaviour debriefing to briefing.

focus on various formal and informal styles that will be required in the main activity (i.e. simulation proper).

The importance of language briefing should not, however, lead to ‘overdoing’ by introducing too much new language. Levine (2004) warns against causing student inhibition while Jones (1982) voices his concern for the loss of sight of the ultimate aim of the simulation, effective communication. To prevent this, Levine (2004, p. 28) suggests that “language briefing can be regarded as a separate activity altogether, divorced to some extent from the simulation (e.g. by conducting it on separate class days).” Likewise, Bullard (1990) suggests keeping the quantity of new language small, as not to overload students. Providing a list of useful phrases and expressions may be useful, in order for students to assimilate these before the start of the simulation itself.¹¹⁴ As Adamson (2003, p. 566) points out, teachers should also prioritize “vocabulary which satisfies learner needs over low-frequency items that are mainly required to understand content. Low-priority language is better glossed and vocabulary tests should not reflect the most difficult items in the input but rather the most valuable.”

Language briefing also involves exercise in public speaking. There are various elements that have to be paid attention to when preparing students for public speaking in a FL, including “voice control, body language, speech content, and effectiveness. EFL students also need to acquire the language functions, skills, and cross-cultural awareness necessary to write and deliver speeches.” (Yamashiro & Johnson, 1997)

6.3.2.2 Situation briefing

Situation briefing involves preparation in all other matters and aspects of the simulation which do not concern the target language use. This includes factual preparation, behaviour briefing, role allocation, and training in research skills (when appropriate).

First, the **factual preparation** deals with the collection of specific facts and background information so that students can effectively – and truthfully – deal with the problem that constitutes the core of the simulation. Depending on the type of simulation, or rather on its subject, this preparation calls for the use of authentic sources of information, which can at the same time provide specific linguistic input. This can either be teacher-driven, student-driven (e.g. in the form of student presentations), or provided in various other forms, such as using different types of texts, be it written, audio-visual or electronic (online) input; the use of smartphones for in-class research has also been reported as successful (Adamson 2013). All of these can be used gradually in order to maximise the acquisition of language and target structures. Alternatively, students can be briefed shortly before the simulation itself, a variety suitable for simulations not connected to specialised courses, or for shorter simulations not requiring much preparation on the participants’ side.

Regarding the language of the input material, Bullard (1990) notes that using the mother tongue is a possibility and that this actually reflects what happens in real life outside of the

¹¹⁴ See Appendices for examples.

classroom (cf. code-switching in CLIL).¹¹⁵ Moreover, some research claims that there are “advantages to L1 discussion in the L2 classroom, particularly in terms of understanding and retention” (Adamson, 2013, p. 560; cf. Obendorf & Randerson, 2012). Nevertheless, while using L1 may be acceptable in certain contexts, it is not a preferred mode in many language classes and we suggest using this only in case of time constraints or possibly when content struggles occur. Moreover, in many global simulations, including MUNs, using L1 is not even a possibility, as many source documents are not available in L1 of the students.

While situation briefing deals predominantly with facts, **behaviour briefing** ensures that students learn about their roles and specific tasks they are to conduct during the simulation proper and also about any rules or constraints that will be imposed. It is important to understand that what may seem as unfair to the participants (e.g. being poorer than somebody else) does not automatically mean a mistake or imbalance; on the contrary, there is usually a good reason to include this feature. As long as everybody participates and is active, the simulation is balanced. (Jones, 1995)

At this stage it may also be worth repeating some of the information presented in the introductory stage. Thus, “for participants new to simulations, and for participants who may be expecting games, exercises, or role play, it is strongly advised that the briefing should explain the ‘professional’ nature of the behaviour required – no play acting, no mimicry” (Jones, 1995, p. 135).

The briefing stage has to also draw attention to **rules** specific to the particular simulation which may be more or less complex. In a parliamentary simulation, for example, it is necessary to clarify procedural issues, such as the voting procedure, limits on speaking times etc. Just as the participants are provided with a list of vocabulary and functions, they may get a written overview of the rules and procedures.¹¹⁶ Other than the need to follow the ground rules, the participants “have the full power to do anything that would seem sensible or plausible in the given situation” (Jones, 1982, p. 34).

A related issue is that of **role allocation**. It is a major concern of this stage and can be done in a number of ways. Jones (1982, p. 37) believes that the manipulation of allocation on the part of the teacher “contradicts the essential nature of a simulation, which is not to achieve the best possible result, but to give everyone an opportunity of fair and full participation” and as such role allocation should be random. Other authors are of the opinion that role assignment should always reflect the teaching objectives (Smith & Boyer, 1996), which may include ensuring enough role conflict (Usherwood 2014) or balance for evaluation purposes (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013). Having said that, there can be a combination of the two approaches, by placing requirements on certain more demanding roles, while leaving the other roles ‘open’ without any restrictions for students to choose from.¹¹⁷ In global simulations, there is also a

¹¹⁵ “A German businessman preparing for a meeting usually would approach that meeting with documentation and ideas put together in his own language, whether or not the actual meeting is to take place in that language or in a foreign one. One very real problem he faces is that he has to adapt the ideas in his first language to the second.” (Bullard, 1990, pp. 57-58).

¹¹⁶ See Appendices for examples.

¹¹⁷ In the Model United Nations, there are typically more and less demanding countries and committees to be allocated. Thus, there is a general rule that novice participants cannot represent a Security Council country (a country that has a permanent or non-permanent seat in the Security Council in the particular year – UK, USA, France, Russia, and China as permanent

general rule that no student is allowed to represent a country of which they are citizens. This helps to keep balance and is seen as a “valuable sensitizing tool” (Krain & Lantis, 2006, p. 397).

Last but not least, the situation preparation phase enables students to develop their **research skills** (when appropriate to the simulation) while searching for up-to-date information. This can be done either cooperatively or individually, again depending on the task at hand. Thus, using the example of MUN, students can research information about a specific country together, but study the various topics individually.¹¹⁸

Lowry (1999) reports that the research stage tends to be a most difficult one for students and she therefore sets class time aside for students to carry out their research. This also provides her with the time and opportunity to provide individual feedback to students during classes, be it to answer their questions or discuss the relevance of their papers and resources.

6.3.2.3 Practice activities

Apart from the two aspects of preparation discussed, there is one more area that calls for the attention of the teacher, namely what Hyland (1993) calls **familiarity with interactive environment**. Students may feel inhibited in a simulation, because they have different expectations about learning a language and about proper classroom behaviour (Lee, 1991). That is why they need to experience interactive learning methods prior to the simulation proper. Hyland (1993) believes that

a learning environment in which pair work, information-gap activities, cooperative tasks, and discussions play an important part is one that easily accommodates a simulation. Students will then be less inhibited by the idea of “suspending disbelief,” getting out of their chairs and participating in a simulated reality. A series of short, simple roleplays or group-based tasks can prepare students for what to expect and lead them gradually into a wider activity.

It is also advisable to gradually include various practical aspects of simulation in the class activities, such the rules of procedure, formal addresses etc. Specific examples of practice activities to be included in the preparation for the MUN global simulation can be found in section 8.2.3.2.

6.3.3 Phase 3 – Simulation Proper

The main part, “simulation proper”, comprises the following activities:

- preparing and organising the room
- group discussions and completion of tasks
- production of simulation outcomes

members, and 10 non-permanent countries), as the representatives of these countries should be strong and confident both in their conduct and in the rules of procedure.

¹¹⁸ E.g. students in group 1 research together information on the Kingdom of Denmark, but study the Danish view on specific questions separately – e.g. student A researches the Danish view on the use of GMOs in agriculture, while student B researches the Danish view on nuclear weapons. Similarly, students in group 2 research the same topics from the point of view of the Russian Federation.

During this part, group work, discussions, further research, and many other tasks take place in order for the participants to solve the problem, complete the task, and/or prepare the output material. The key activities at this stage are “decision-making, problem solving, and interacting” (Hyland, 1991). While the introductory and preparation stages typically take place in a regular classroom, simulation proper is where the main elements of simulation (reality of function, simulated environment, and structure) are finally put into practice. That is why at the beginning of this stage it is necessary to prepare the room(s) and other facilities that are to be used during the simulation and fit them with the necessary equipment and realia. During this stage, students work independently and the teacher’s role is primarily to monitor their progress and (in the worst-case scenario) help out with problems and difficulties that may arise, or serve as a linguistic informant (Sturtridge, 1977). Preferably the teacher should not intervene, or when doing so, should use simulation mechanisms (see section 6.4 for an example of doing so).

While observing students, the teacher may monitor two separate aspects, namely functional behaviour and language. For ideas on the content of observations and for recommended techniques, see section 6.4.

6.3.4 Phase 4 – Debriefing

In the final part, debriefing, the learning process and outcomes are in the centre of attention

Debriefing comprises two parts:

- behaviour debriefing (including situation debriefing)
- language debriefing

According to Kolb (2014), reflection / debriefing is a key element of the learning cycle. Gillespie (1973 in Petranek, Corey, & Black, 1992, p. 176) remarks that simulations are “not self-teaching and need a good debriefing session to assist students in reflecting on their behaviour and the purpose of the simulation”. Nevertheless, authors report that the lack of debriefing is a common and pressing problem of simulations (McIntosh, 2001; Haack, 2008).

Even though debriefing typically takes place after the simulation, it can appear at various other points, even prior to the simulation proper, e.g. after individual practice activities. Bullard (1990) points out that this stage in certain cases takes even longer than the actual simulation. Except for observations by participants and the teacher, media, e.g. video recordings, feedback forms, transcriptions, or journals can be employed for the purposes of debriefing (see below).¹¹⁹

The aim of debriefing is for students to consider and evaluate their participation, make sense of the experience, learn from it by drawing conclusions for the future (Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011) or to contextualize knowledge (cf. Činčera, Klápště, & Maier, 2005;

¹¹⁹ Ezzedeen (2008, p. 231) notes an interesting form of “hands-on” debriefing when describing how he and students participating in his discussion course rearranged desk to a U-shaped form and back: “When the term ended, we collectively placed the seating back to its original organization, humorously remarking how fast time had gone by, and unknowingly engaging in a hands-on debriefing experience.”

Usherwood, 2014). Debriefing should, furthermore, help students “review the language used and build on weaknesses” (Hyland, 1993). Without such a reflection, “students may see the activity as isolated event, rather than an opportunity for systematic observation and analysis” (Krain & Lantis, 2006, p. 399). Finally, debriefing provides a “necessary closure” to the activity (ibid.).

As Sturtridge (1977, p. 13) warns, “too often such a feedback session becomes tedious and negative with the emphasis on what was wrong. The learner then realises he has made many more mistakes than he thought at the time, when he felt he was communicating with some success”. Jones (1982, p. 49) seconds this warning by pointing out that “it is unwise to devote the debriefing to a recital of mistakes”, as the students may find this very discouraging. Contrary to the students’ opinion, debriefing is actually a most significant and most valuable part of the simulation (Bullard, 1990; Usherwood, 2014), as it helps develop the benefits of the activity. Therefore, it is necessary to be positive and constructive. Furthermore, the process requires externalization of the students’ reflections (Raymond & Usherwood, 2013, p. 163): “While students do internalize practice during the simulation, this is typically an implicit process, rather than an explicit one. Feedback depends upon the ability of the student to recall, to discuss, and thus to analyse their actions and motivations.” This way, students get a chance to integrate their experience to other areas of learning and to real life.

Petranek, Corey, and Black (1992) propose an alternative way of doing debriefing, namely the use of journal writing, which they believe has the potential of greatly expanding the learning experience. As each student works on their own journal throughout the course of the simulation, they have a chance to note significant experiences, theories and interpretations and thus the journal provides a “documentation of their personal choices and personal growth” (ibid., p. 181). The authors recommend the students to follow the ‘four Es’ approach applied in behaviour debriefing (see below).

Finally, there is the question of language used in the behaviour debriefing stage. Here, there are many justifiable approaches. Debriefing may be used as another opportunity for communicative use of the target language; that is, when the level of participants’ proficiency enables this in the first place. Alternatively, debriefing can take place in the mother tongue, which enables a deeper analysis and understanding of the behaviour taking place during the simulation proper (Adamson, 2016; Bastaki, 2013). Indeed, as before, the facilitator has to have a clear objective in mind regarding the purpose of this stage, and decide accordingly (Jones, 1982).

6.3.4.1 Behaviour debriefing

During **behaviour debriefing**, “students can clarify their own parts in the simulation, their perception of the task, and their contributions, reflecting on their actions and mistakes” (Hyland, 1993). Therefore, feedback should be student-centred and related to the students’ own understanding of the activities; they should be encouraged to be the main contributors to the discussion (Bullard, 1990). The ideal role of the teacher is that of a chair person, controlling the discussion while not criticizing behaviour. Thanks to the student-centred approach, students are also likely to comment on aspects or incidents that might not have

caught the facilitator's attention. This can in turn give the students an added value of recognition and appreciation of their critical and reflection skills.

There are various approaches to behaviour debriefing. Bullard (1990) suggests 'reliving' the simulation chronologically. Alternatively, a more formal way may be employed using debriefing checklists for peer evaluation.¹²⁰ Krain and Lantis (2006) employ a combination of a discussion session and a written evaluation form with closed- and open-ended questions (cf. Petrova, 2012).

In either case, the facilitator-chair should prepare points for behaviour debriefing beforehand (Činčera, 2003). Smith and Boyer (1996, p. 693) provide a rather detailed list of suggested approaches to debriefing questions in four separate areas:

1. **Open-ended questions that identify processes, goals, motivations, constraints and resources**
 - e.g. What happened? What angered you about this simulation?
2. **Interview of the major players¹²¹ about their goals, motivations and frustrations**
 - e.g. Mr. President, what exactly were you trying to accomplish and what prevented you from doing so?
3. **Questions about communication**
 - e.g. To whom did you talk? Why?
4. **Questions about the reality of the game**
 - e.g. In what ways did the simulation diverge from reality? In what ways was it similar to the real world?

Alternatively, Petranek, Corey, and Black (1992, p. 177) offer the 'four Es' approach, during which events, emotions, empathy, and explanations are discussed subsequently (in this order). Činčera (2003) adopts a different approach taking as the starting point Kolb's experiential cycle (cf. Kolb, 2014), and concludes that behaviour debriefing should be divided to three stages: reflection, generalisation, and planning. During the reflection part, participants should be allowed to express their impressions of the activity; ideally, all participants should express their views. Nevertheless, it is important not to let the negatives prevail. The second stage, generalisation, is used for finding and expressing analogies between the simulation activity and the real world. Such a discussion can be started by asking participants in what aspects they believe the simulation was, or was not, realistic. This stage is succeeded by planning and transfer during which the participants search for 'lessons for life' and suggest ways of improving their performance for next time (Činčera, Klápště, & Maier, 2005).

While debriefing typically happens immediately after the end of the simulation, there is space for many **follow-up activities** taking place later on. Jones (1982) suggests "looking at the real thing" (e.g. visiting a press office) or "doing something" (starting a school newspaper).

6.3.4.2 Language debriefing

Language debriefing phase is considered one of the key elements of an FLT simulation and "full linguistic benefit is usually largely dependent on a successful debriefing phase" (Bullard,

¹²⁰ See McIntosh (2001) for an example of a "post-simulation discussion worksheet" and several "team worksheet" report templates.

¹²¹ See section 6.1.1 for a clarification of terminology.

1990, p. 55). Hyland's (1993) claim that it is optional with elementary and pre-intermediate classes could thus be easily disputed. In any case, it is in this phase that the teacher again takes on a more central and directive role. What was said and what was not said because the students did not have adequate language is a main concern of this phase (Jones, 1982).

Students should first express how they felt about using the target language. Bullard (1990) suggests starting the discussion of by asking "Was there anything you wanted to say during the simulation which you didn't say because you didn't know how to?" This phase can thus include features of further language input, providing students with language that may employ next time (Sturtridge, 1977).

Petrova's research (2012, p. 1022) suggests that when reflecting on the use of language skills and vocabulary at an FLT conference, students found out that the conference "either revealed their poor speaking skills or inadequate knowledge of the relevant vocabulary ... or gave them an opportunity to learn some new words and phrases that might be useful in their future career and practice using them in a situation close to real life." Both these types of experience can be motivating, provided students get a chance to reflect on and thus learn from them.

The students' comments about their language use can be followed by the teacher's observations which generally concern errors that have most hindered the achievement of communication goals. The degree of error-correction is up to the teacher, depending on both the extent of the simulation as well as on his or her goals for the simulation. The language of effective communication may also be studied at this stage (Jones, 1982).

Jones (1982) further proposes exploiting the language that occurred during the simulation for purposes of **discourse analysis**. Such an analysis first requires recording and transcribing the language. This transcript can later on be used for both looking at the accuracy of the language used (grammatical analysis), as well as its functional effectiveness (discourse analysis). The key concern is focusing "on what it is that the participants are trying to communicate" (Jones, 1982, p. 52). Discourse analysis in simulation may involve various aspects (Jones, 1982, p. 57):

One is a personal one, the different use of techniques: signposting, questioning and categorical statements by individuals. Another is a general approach, for example, the variety of forms of questions: 'Betelg?' 'The bran?' 'Where is the hill?' Whereas the last is a specific request for specific information, the first is more a request, or an order, than a question, even though the intonation is that of a question. The difference between the spoken and the written word is also a useful line of enquiry. The contextual appropriateness of the discourse is another fruitful field. Despite the need for shared knowledge, nobody said 'Have you told us everything?'

6.4 The Role of Teacher in Simulations

As has been demonstrated in previous sections, simulations in FLT are based on the constructivist approach to learning and on the communicative language teaching approach. They are student-centred and call for maximum student involvement and activity. Thus, learners are generally expected to be active and exercise control over their learning, with limited activity on the part of the teacher and limited teacher talking time.

Having said that, the role of the teacher is not constant throughout the simulation and changes depending on the particular stage of the simulation (see Table 3 below). The teacher is rather active especially in the initial stages of the simulation, i.e. during the introductory and briefing stages, and has a substantial role also in the debriefing stage. During the simulation proper, however, the teacher remains mainly an observer, and is thus provided “with a unique opportunity to monitor, assess and appreciate the participants, not just for their language abilities as students, but as whole people. No other classroom activity provides more invisibility for the teacher” (Jones, 1982, p. 17).

Below is an overview of the various roles performed by the teacher during the individual phases of a simulation (Bullard, 1990; Cummings & Genzel, 1990; Hyland, 1991; Jones, 1995; Levine, 2004; Sturtridge, 1977):

PHASE	TEACHER'S ROLE
Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assessor • organiser • facilitator
Preparation (briefing)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organiser • facilitator • “predictor” of language
Simulation proper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • data collector, observer of student performances • monitor of the learning environment and of roles • activity manager • informant on scenario • resource – expert on the target language and culture, walking dictionary, “language paramedic”, linguistic informant • supervisor
Debriefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • chair • discussion leader

Table 3 – Teacher's roles during individual phases of a simulation

During the simulation proper when the teacher is predominantly a passive observer, he or she may monitor two separate aspects, namely functional behaviour and language. **Monitoring functional behaviour** involves examining how well the students are adhering to their roles or whether they are making use of all documents and information they are provided with. In

general, it “includes a variety of behaviour – organisational, communicative, social, and even anti-social” (Jones, 1982, pp. 42-43).

In terms of **monitoring language learning** it is a must for the teacher to realise that “the aim of the simulation is not to produce correct words, grammar and pronunciation, but to communicate effectively according to roles, functions, and duties” (Jones, 1982, p. 38). The emphasis is on fluency, not on accuracy (Sturtridge, 1977). Monitoring language thus involves paying attention to both language structures on the one hand and functionality and appropriateness of the language on the other.¹²² The ideal way to approach this is probably for the teacher to “sit in the background with a note-pad” (Kerr, 1977, p. 9), writing down not only mistakes, but also “what is not known, that is, what the students are trying to say but what they have to talk their way round with the language at their disposal” (Sturtridge, 1977, p. 13). This way, sufficient data for language debriefing is collected without the disturbance of the flow of the activity.

As to the **degree of intervention** in the simulation, opinions vary a lot. While Jones (1995, p. 24) discourages any form of intervention whatsoever, e.g. a facilitator “interfering with participant decision-making to try to ensure ‘success’” as this results in a “teacher-assassinated simulation” (Jones, 1982, p. 41).¹²³ On the other hand, Obendorf and Randerson (2013, p. 359) claim that in certain situations, intervention is acceptable. They believe that if a simulation is a part of an assessed module, interventions are not only justifiable but also necessary. These may include “a degree of staff intervention into the operation of the simulation” (ibid.) associated with the attempt to balance often opposing objectives:

These [objectives] include the desire for the agenda and conference debate to evolve naturally as a result of the participation of individual students, an aspiration towards a sense of ‘realism’ in the simulation ... and the need to ensure that all students have equitable opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge and skills for assessment purposes. These considerations are particularly apparent in the day-long conference itself, where discreet staff intervention or direction from the chair (occupied by a staff member) is often required to ensure that all delegations meet one of the key assessment requirements... (ibid.)

Again, the key to success is having clear reasons for intervening in such a manner. In general though, interventions, both in terms of situation and language, are discouraged during the simulation proper, unless they concern misbehaviour or inappropriate behaviour which affects the mechanics of the simulation (e.g. fooling around, not participating). In such a situation, the facilitator should intervene via means inherent to the simulation mechanics, e.g. by sending a note from the head of the state calling the delegate to an urgent meeting. Having withdrawn the participant in such an unobtrusive manner, the facilitator may investigate the matter and intervene accordingly. (Jones, 1982)

¹²² “Monitoring is also an inevitable function of the participants themselves, and part of the nature of the simulation... Unlike writing an answer in an examination, the participant usually knows immediately if the language is effective or not.” (Jones, 1982, p. 45)

¹²³ Jones (1982, p. 41) voices his opinion very strongly: The facilitator “should avoid smiles, frowns, hints and gestures which indicate encouragement or discouragement of decision-making behaviour. Each bit of interference diminishes participant responsibility and reinserts the teacher into the classroom.”

A teacher that is new to interactive forms of teaching may see the changing teacher roles as quite a big challenge and may feel uncomfortable. Therefore, it is crucial to remind oneself again that students must have the possibility and power to act themselves and to make mistakes (Jones, 1995). As Usherwood (2016) puts it in his Top tips for simulations: “Have confidence in students’ ability to work things out for themselves... it is committing [yourself] to a ‘no spoon-feeding’ position.”

6.5 Global Simulations in Upper-Secondary FLT

In the given section, the global simulation method will be illustrated by specific examples. Global simulation has been characterised earlier, as *language teaching method incorporating features of the project-based approach and world-focused pedagogy, characterised as a complex, structured, long-term event, which is student-centred, multi-disciplinary, and has research and debating about global issues at its core, and in which participants have functional roles which they carry out according to specific rules of conduct.*

The global simulations presented below are models of international organizations. The text specifically focuses on two selected simulations, namely the Model United Nations (MUN) and the European Youth Parliament (EYP), because of their target audience, upper-secondary school students.¹²⁴ While MUN is probably the most wide-spread global simulation, which is used with upper-secondary, pre-graduate, as well as post-graduate students alike, EYP is unique in that it focuses specifically on adolescents. This life period (ca. 15-19) is by some called the “impressionable years – the period from late adolescence to early adulthood when individuals develop political habits that will continue to influence them throughout the course of their lives” (Andolina et al., 2003). That is why using global simulations can form a powerful tool to develop democratic values and attitudes in this age group.

We will first start with the introduction and characteristics of MUN, providing two examples of Czech MUNs, and then briefly introduce the EYP simulation.

6.5.1 Model United Nations

Nothing stimulates high school students' learning like the Model United Nations. (Fast 2012, p. 70)

As the name suggests, MUN is the model of the United Nations. The term **model** in the context of simulations denotes “the essential working elements of something” (Jones, 1995, p. 87), here of the UN organisation. MUN conference can also be defined in terms of “operational simulation because participants are given specific real-world roles as representatives of UN member states, and the simulation has a real-world equivalent in the United Nations” (Muldoon, 1995, p. 28).

The MUN involves not only the simulation of the principal organs of the UN, including the General Assembly and its Committees or the Security Council, but also of other institutions

¹²⁴ There are many other global simulations modelling existing international organisations, including Model GATT (Lowry, 1999), European Union Simulation (Kaunert, 2009), European Council Simulation (cf. Usherwood, 2014), or OPEC Conference Simulation (Petrova, 2012). Moreover, there exist slightly ‘artificial’ simulations that have intentionally been constructed for educational purposes and are of varying degrees of sophistication. They therefore do not model a real-existing international organisation but rather incorporate the general negotiation and international relations principles. These include ICONS – International Communication and Negotiation Simulations (Vavrina, 1992), Global Problems Summit (Krain & Lantis, 2006), IDEALS – International Dimension in Education via Active Learning and Simulations (Muldoon, 1995), or model NGO (Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 1999).

In the Czech Republic, there exist the two upper-secondary school global simulations in English, i.e. MUN and EYP, and a number of other simulations realised mostly in Czech, including the Prague Student Summit that encompasses Model UN (upper-secondary students, Czech), Model NATO (upper-secondary students, English), Model EU (university students, Czech), and Visegrad Four Model (university students, Czech) (Asociace pro moderní otázky, 2016). There is also Prague MUN, a university-level MUN conference hosted by University of Economics (English).

associated with the UN, such as the International Court of Justice. MUN “encourages participants to engage with contemporary or historical events or issues of importance to the United Nations system” (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012, p. 3), and it provides them with the opportunity to learn about the UN’s workings and the system itself.

The MUN global simulation is largely known especially among American high-school students; it is, nevertheless, gaining more popularity in Europe, where there are several big MUN conferences. The MUN framework is quite flexible and can thus be applied in various contexts and educational levels (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014). Indeed, MUNs are simulated at most types of schools, starting from secondary schools, and are of varying lengths (see 6.1), including residential conferences.

According to Haack (2008, p. 395), “the subject of UN studies has been at the forefront of active learning since the introduction of Model United Nations in the early twentieth century.” The first simulation of an international organisation ever to take place was the Model League of Nations set up by a group of Ivy League students in the 1920s (Phillips & Muldoon, 1996). With the establishment of the UN, MUN conferences started to be organised with the first one taking place in March 1947 (Muldoon, 1995)¹²⁵. The popularity of MUNs started growing especially during the 1960s, both thanks to the growing number of UN members, associated with decolonisation (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013), but also as a response to the increasing demand for experiential learning activities (Phillips & Muldoon, 1996).

Since then, the ‘MUN spirit’ has spread worldwide and conferences are organised all around the world. In 1995 Muldoon (pp. 32-33) noted that since the end of the Cold War, “the pace at which the Model UN is being adopted in other countries has outstripped the growth within the United States and Canada, where the Model UN is already firmly established.”

Today, MUN is still growing worldwide. According to the United Nations Association of the United States (United Nations Association of USA, 2013a, 2013b), 400 000 secondary and university students worldwide participate in a MUN every year, and around one million people have participated in MUN since its start, half of them from the USA. The United Nations Association of USA claims that there are currently over 400 conferences taking place in 52 countries. The activity is still, also thanks to the number of participants, primarily subjected to research in the USA and thus the vast majority of “available scholarly literature on the organisation, running and pedagogic benefits of the MUN predominantly reflects American experiences and American educational settings” (Obendorf & Randerson, 2013, p. 352).

¹²⁵ Muldoon (1995, p. 34) bases this information on a notice which appeared in an issue of *Changing World* magazine inviting students to join a simulation of the newly founded UN General Assembly. This, according to Muldoon, is “the only record of the transition of annual Model League of Nations Assemblies to the Model UN General Assembly”. United Nations Association of USA (2013b) contradicts this information by stating that “while there is no official record of how Model UN began, we do know that Model UN is the successor of a series of student-led Model League of Nations simulations. Some people believe that the first Model UN conference was held at Harvard University, although other colleges claim they held the first conference.”

6.5.1.1 Characteristics of MUN

The purpose and objectives of MUN

The **purpose of MUN** is to get young people involved in the discussion and negotiation of current affairs, global issues, and to teach them about the real UN and its agenda (Brennan, 1996). Nevertheless, MUNs are not only about gathering information and extending knowledge, but also about forming opinions and values, meeting people from other parts of the world, and “developing a sensitivity to the differences between [them] and other very different cultures, and recognising the importance of being able to see world as other see it” (Reitano, 2003, p. 4; cf. Jacobs & Cates, 1999). Thus, the delegates “learn to break away from narrow, national self-interest and develop true international cooperation” (The Hague International Model United Nations, 2012). According to The Hague Model United Nations (THIMUN), the biggest MUN conference in Europe, the mission of MUN is “to promote and foster collaborative solution-oriented discussion to important issues by instilling life-long passion for improving our global community into today's youth, who will be tomorrow's leaders” (The Hague International Model United Nations, 2012).¹²⁶

The **objectives** of MUN are twofold – educational objectives and higher objectives (Williams & Stein, 2006, p. 31). Educational objectives concern “achievements and personal gains”, whereas higher objectives are the general goals of the mankind as stated in the UN Charter. From this point of view, knowledge and practical skills gained by attendance at the conference classify as educational goals, while forming opinions, values and attitudes associated with the promotion of world peace, human rights, and of intercultural dialogue and global community are considered higher objectives. An important objective is also the learning experience as such (Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011). As we can see, these objectives are in line with the expected outcomes of ETEGC.

Educational objectives can be summarised as follows (Karns, 1980, p. 1):

- a) to acquaint students with the scope and depth of the problems facing mankind;
- b) to develop understanding of the structure, the strengths, and weaknesses of the UN; the scope and depth of the issues facing that organization;
- c) to familiarize participants with the assigned country, its culture, people, economic, geographical, historical and political realities, goals and interests, and to develop skills in analyzing and interpreting national positions on various issues;
- d) to understand better the dynamics of the international system and the role of the United Nations in contributing to global cooperation, peace and order in the context of international conflict and the growing problems of interdependence;
- e) to provide a practical experience in multilateral diplomacy and to develop the written, verbal, interpersonal and organizational skills necessary to the diplomatic process.

Educational objectives of MUN can also be described in terms of an educational triad – content, process and product. “As learners prepare for their participation at the actual event – the product, they go through the process of researching and developing a specialized

¹²⁶ The motto of another conference (PRAMUN, Prague Model United Nations) is ‘Youth engaged in debate, seeking solutions to the problems of the world’.

understanding of the issue and their assigned country's position on the issue – the content” (Muldoon, 1992 cit. in Churchill, 1997, p. 187).

Higher objectives include the following (Williams & Stein, 2006, p. 31):

- a) saving succeeding generations from the scourge of war;
- b) believing in fundamental human rights;
- c) believing in the dignity and worth of the human person;
- d) believing in the equal rights of men and women and of nations;
- e) maintaining justice and respect for international law;
- f) promoting social progress and better standards of life;
- g) practicing tolerance;
- h) living together in peace and security;
- i) promoting the economic and social advancement of all peoples.

These general objectives are complemented by the **development of skills**. In terms of general (non-linguistic) skills, students (United Nations Association of Greater Boston, 2017):

- Recall and synthesize information learned from video, lecture, and text about a topic of global importance
- Research their country and their country’s official position on a particular topic
- Write a 4-5 paragraph paper stating their country’s position as well as a 1 page speech convincing other students to agree with their country’s position
- Listen to other students in order to build on their points
- Speak extemporaneously about topics that have been studied
- Collaborate with classmates to write a proposed solution (resolution)
- Interrogate proposed solutions with specific questions
- Evaluate solutions based on efficacy and alignment with their country’s position

In general, the MUN simulation shares the declared benefits of other simulations, including the development of various skills and knowledge in terms of deep learning (e.g. Zenuk-Nishide, 2014; see section 6.2.3). Likewise, MUNs are endangered by the same problems, including the question of overall effectiveness, assessment difficulties, or time and space constraints (McIntosh, 2001, see section 6.2.2). Nevertheless, there are some specific benefits of the MUN global simulation type. As Obendorf and Randerson (2012, p. 4) summarise (cf. Hazleton, 1984; Petrova, 2012; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014; Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011),

it is evident ... that a broad consensus exists in the pedagogic literature about the value of simulations, such as Model United Nations, in both scaffolding student knowledge of global affairs and the politics of international organisation, and in developing key skills in research, negotiation, debating, public speaking, parliamentary procedure, etc.

Moreover, benefits are found in terms of research skills, cross-cultural awareness, citizen engagement, collaboration or learner autonomy¹²⁷ (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012). These claims are also supported by feedback from teachers and students taking part in MUN

¹²⁷ “... while students may well be constrained by the demands of role-play and the requirements of the simulation itself, many of the issues that emerge for debate are clearly the product of students’ own preoccupations and concerns (while still relevant in the simulation framework)” (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012, p. 9).

conferences (e.g. Suteau, 2013). Reitano (2003, p. 4) reviews all the key elements of MUN, including experiential learning, cooperative skills, and global learning in his summary:

The keys to its effectiveness are an emphasis on “hands-on” learning by emphasizing the importance of achieving genuine expertise, by the expenditure of hard work and the necessity of cooperation with others to meet a real challenge, by developing sensitivity to the differences between us and other different cultures, and by recognizing the importance of being able to see the world as others see it.¹²⁸

Several studies have indicated that the significance of getting involved in MUN and similar projects lies also in the fact that “civic training in adolescence can influence adult behaviour” (Andolina et al., 2003, p. 275). This means that students who participate in such projects “as teenagers are disproportionately more involved as adults“ (ibid.) in civic and political activities. Similarly, Reitano (2003, p. 4) believes that the MUNs positively affect political and civic attitudes of teenagers by “creating the opportunity for engagement with activities that provide for a healthy long-term civic life”. Reitano supports this claim by his small-scale study in which he contacted 15 former college students-MUNers; most of them confirmed that MUN did influence their career choice (14 out of 15). Out of the 15 students, 4 were still studying, 2 were working in education, 1 was working as a film producer, 3 were working in government, 1 was working for socially responsible company, and 4 were working in non-profit organisations.

Foreign language development and international posture

The MUN simulation has been most widely adopted at American high schools, colleges and universities, which aim at achieving the objectives listed above. There is also a body of research in specific areas of studies, international relations in particular. Unfortunately, only a limited number of studies dealing with the influence of MUN participation on **L2 development** have been conducted, most of which are qualitative, drawing conclusions typically from student evaluations of the simulation. Many of the studies have been conducted in Japan, where there is currently a growing interest in MUNs (cf. Zenuk-Nishide, 2014).

It is believed that through MUN, students develop both general language skills (Williams & Stein, 2006) and foreign language skills, including reading, writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary (Brown, 2009; Fast 2012; Kurniasih, 2011 in Nasution & Mayangsari, 2016; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014; Xiaoyum & Jian, 2004). Furthermore, Zenuk-Nishide and Acar (2011) claim that MUN participants “had a statistically significant increase in self-efficacy in discussion and negotiation skills” (cit. in Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011, p. 93).

When considering the language goals of MUN, it is important to realise that an upper-secondary school MUN “is not an alternative to a solid language-focused program, but as a feature of a balanced curriculum, it has the potential to give students some experience of an elusive world where people do need English to get things done and speaking a foreign language genuinely does make a difference” (Adamson, 2013, p. 566). It is thus not a substitute for regular LT, but rather a great complement to it.

¹²⁸ “Being able to see the world as others see it” is considered a general motto of MUN conferences.

Brown (2009, p. 538) believes that **debating** using the MUN style, topics, and parliamentary procedures can serve as “the vehicle by which to improve students’ oral and written proficiency in the target language.” Xiaoyum and Jian (2004) support this by stating that the MUN activity modifies “the common traditional function of language learning, i.e. to grasp language knowledge and pass examinations, instead, it leads to the real aim of language teaching – to help people communicate with each other in fluent English”. MUN courses are also an ideal place for the development of various aspects of public speaking, as listed by Yamashiro and Johnson (1997 – see 6.3.2). Debates can be based on different types of questions, be it

questions of conjecture, defining, cause and consequence, value, and procedure and proposal. Depending on the issue, certain questions will be more applicable than others... A debate could just as easily address a values-based issue, such as rescinding the death penalty, in which case, debaters would need to focus on questions of value; for example, is such a course of action good or bad, just or unjust? (Brown 2009, p. 538)

Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) used statistical methods to study the influence of learning environment on L2 proficiency and attitudes, while comparing two groups of students: a study-abroad group and a stay-home group who participated in a MUN programme. According to the authors (p. 569), “EFL learners who have international interest envision an imagined international community that they can be part of using English, which could result in an enhancement of motivation and L2 WTC”¹²⁹. According to the same research, MUNs display the capacity to increase **L2 proficiency** and **international posture** (see section 5.2.2.1) in a similar way the study-abroad programme do (pp. 570, 581-582):

Students... represent a country and do research so that they can discuss the topic... from the country’s perspective in English. Through cognitively and emotionally involving content, students are encouraged to form opinions and express themselves in English. All through the curriculum learners learn to use English to mediate their participation in ‘an imagined international community’, and the MUN is an occasion when the imagined community becomes visible and concrete... In a teaching context in which an imagined international community is created through content-based teaching with the model UN, the development of international posture and increased amount of communication as well as proficiency was observed among the group of learners who stayed home... Despite the limitations, we feel that the results of this study demonstrate, in addition to the effects of contexts, the possibility that international posture can develop together with proficiency and amount of self-initiated communication in English, not only in the study abroad context but also in the home context, if learners are ready to participate in an (imagined) international community.

What may thus be quite unique about MUNs is their capacity to provide the participants with the experience of **imagined international community**, a term closely linked to that of international posture. By using English as a language that is spoken as a lingua franca in many countries around the world, participants gain the feeling of connectedness and “are simultaneously participating in imagined communities of practice outside the learning context” (Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011, p. 91; cf. Kharchenko, 2014).¹³⁰

¹²⁹ WTC stands for willingness to communicate, see section 5.2.2.1.

¹³⁰ “TOEFL scores, international posture, L2 WTC, and frequency of communication in L2 were assessed in the participants’ first year and third year, and compared between (a) study abroad and stay-home groups, and (b) two program options with substantially different class hours and emphasis in education.” (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008, p. 566)

As has been mentioned, simulations ensure a real-life feel of the activities students are involved in. What is special about MUN is that it offers **authentic L2 use experience** in real contexts. Moreover, according to Yashima (2009, p. 151), MUN participation is strongly connected to the **desire to communicate**, as “engagement in global issues and doing research for the MUN makes what learners want to communicate clearer”. Except for the communication in an international environment provided by the conference as such, the preparation for MUN participation contains plentiful opportunities for interaction with the world ‘out there’ and for getting in touch with English (or Englishes¹³¹) as used in reality, be it in terms of research of documents or interaction with officials.

In this context, Churchill (1997) describes the first assignment that the delegates are given, namely to write a letter to (alternatively to call) the embassy of their assigned country or to its permanent mission to the UN to request information about the country’s position on a specific issue. As he stresses (*ibid.*, p. 189), this “real world task demands that the students negotiate with a speaker of an English that is quite different than their own and different from that of their ... teachers”. The key realisation for students is that an initial perceived difficulty or nuisance “over the differences evolves into an understanding that such Englishes exist and that communication is successfully conducted in spite of the differences” (*ibid.*) (cf. Kachru, 1988 in Crystal, 2003).

Global awareness and the UN-MUN reality gap

As a student reports, MUN “broadens your knowledge base and forces one to become more open-minded. Before I became involved, I was ignorant to the issues of the world and how ... globalism has interconnected the world” (Reitano, 2003, p. 6). Global issues is indeed an area which makes MUN very special in comparison with other simulations.

In 1988, Regenbogen (p. 20) expressed a considerable concern that “students around the world are practically illiterate in the area of international studies... Global awareness is often ignored to the point of nonexistence.” He believed this to be caused by the limited number of lessons allocated to history and social science disciplines in the curriculum. Even though the situation has probably been improving, with the onset of global education as a compulsory part of schooling in many European countries, as well as with the easier access to information via modern media, there are still many aspects in which MUN can contribute to the development of global awareness of students.

There is a lot of subject matter that can be studied through MUN. “Most of the activities can be arranged to reinforce the traditional content, but they can also break down ethnocentric attitudes, raise the level of awareness, and provide experiences that will be remembered long after the dates memorised have been forgotten” (Regenbogen, 1998, p. 20).¹³² The fact that it enables a hands-on experience with internalisation (McIntosh, 2001¹³³) makes a crucial

¹³¹ “A distinct variety of English which reflects other languages used alongside English”, typically in former British colonial territories (Graddol, 2010, p. 11). See also section 3.2.

¹³² Brown (2009, p. 540) provides the example “poverty of the third world” which students investigate from different perspectives by studying articles and other sources. Such perspectives can include “micro versus macro issues, government responses, the role of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), best practices, and regional solutions”.

¹³³ According to McIntosh (2001, p. 275) “simulations like the Model United Nations are among the best ways to teach the theory and the practice of international relations.”

difference when compared to traditional classroom teaching. Even more importantly, “Model United Nations ... encourages students to regard internationalisation and intercultural awareness as key personal attributes gained through their studies” (Oberndorf & Randerson, 2012, p. 13) and thus brings about a change in attitudes (Andolina et al. 2003; Reitano 2003) and a “greater understanding of various viewpoints” (Dougherty, 2003, p. 243). Finally, it has the capacity “to prepare students for a culturally diverse and globally orientated workplace” in a world where inter-cultural encounter is a commonplace thing (Zenuk-Nishide, 2014, p. 34).

To sum up (Phillips & Muldoon, 1996, p. 144),

students participating in MUN simulations are more likely to develop global perspectives and to appreciate the dynamics of an interdependent world. Moreover, students will probably have the opportunity to interact with peers from many countries ... Finally, students will also become aware of available internships and permanent job opportunities with national and international organizations in the private, nonprofit, and public sectors.

The MUN approach to teaching global issues nevertheless has its problems and limitations. As Regenbogen (1998, p. 21) points out, “the actual development of units involving global studies requires considerable personal and professional commitment, as well as a willingness to make the appropriate tradeoffs in the coverage of traditional content... [which] does require a great deal of additional effort on the part of teachers who are often already overworked.” Furthermore, according to some authors, there may be problems with the content of materials used. In their evaluation of instructional materials used by American high schools and universities for preparation for the MUN program from 1983, Gulick and Merkle criticized the United Nations Association’s (UNA-USA) materials for their lack of critical analysis of the world’s problems. This is obviously an important issue to consider. We nevertheless believe that, at least when it comes to models taking place in the Czech Republic, this point of criticism does not apply.

First, among the body of literature on MUN, this is the only critical voice; moreover, it dates back 30 years. While in the USA, there is an organisation that facilitates preparation for and realisation of MUN conferences, namely UNA-USA, which may to a certain extent ideologically influence the content of preparation materials, no such thing is likely to happen in the Czech context. Here, there is no organisation tending specifically to MUNs, neither is there any organisation that would prepare content materials for preparation. On the contrary, Czech MUNs are typically hosted and run by schools or student organisations and participants are required to gather resources and to research the topics on their own, possibly with the help of their teachers. Thus, no bias is to be expected, and even the question of being uncritical of the UN is not applicable in this context, as students are expected to form their own opinion on the organisation both when studying its history, structure, and effectiveness, and when experiencing the UN procedures and decision-making during the MUN conference. Thus, we consider this problem not relevant to our current discussion and context.

However, there is another issue to be addressed. Muldoon (1995, p. 29) believes that the biggest challenge MUN was facing at the time was the “reality gap” involving the fact that “the effort of the Model UN conferences to reflect their real-life counterpart is becoming

more difficult". What Muldoon had in mind was the ever-changing nature of international politics after the end of the Cold War and the failure on the part of MUN conference facilitators, organisers, and participants to mirror these changes. He believed this to be caused by both the lack of materials on the UN, as well as the tendency of simulation participants to rely on their past experience, partly due to the fact that the conferences are often run by students with limited knowledge of international relations, rather than by experts in the field. "This contributes to the reality gap where students' understanding of the UN and of modern-day diplomacy is not fostered or developed properly. Unfortunately, this runs counter to the educational function that the Model UN is intended to provide students." (ibid., pp. 30-31)

Muldoon saw the solution to the problems with out-dated preparation materials in the use of ICT which were just then starting to emerge globally and were seen as a source of unlimited opportunities, coupled with increased academic support. Paradoxically enough, ICT have eased our access to information, but have not simplified the preparation, due to the excessive amount of sources whose quality is verifiable with great difficulties. It is therefore advisable that whenever – i.e. in the briefing phase – students produce a piece of writing, it is supported and annotated with a list of sources so that the teacher can evaluate their quality and potentially provide support on conducting research.

MUN agenda

During the conference, student-delegates **represent selected countries** or NGOs in various **committees** of the General Assembly and in the Security Council; the bigger conferences also simulate sessions of the International Court of Justice. Thus, during the situation briefing phase, students do not only have to get ready for the discussion of the individual topics, but also study the official policies of the given states. The official language of the European MUNs is usually English, although there are many non-native speakers among participants.

Prior to the conference, participants choose a particular committee in which different issues are discussed.¹³⁴ Each committee has two or three topics on their programme, typically discussing the same questions and issues which are on the UN's agenda in that particular year; the relative difficulty and sophistication of the topics can often prove challenging to research. If, nevertheless, the delegates do prepare well, then space for a fruitful discussion opens up during **committee work**, and interesting resolutions (the official output of the committee work) come out of it. Committees are led by chairs, organisers who have been through previous sessions as delegates themselves. Alternatively, members of the teaching staff may occupy the position of a chair. At the end of each session, there is a **General Assembly** (GA), where the resolutions by the individual committees are presented, discussed, and voted on.

Both during committee work and in the GA, delegates are bound by rules of conduct called the **rules of parliamentary procedure** and have to employ special ways of addressing their fellow delegates and officials. Furthermore, specific types of formal texts are produced, namely policy papers and resolutions, which again have to follow set rules.

¹³⁴ To provide a specific example, the Social and Cultural Committee at PRAMUN 2016 dealt with the topic of The global increase of migration, and growing nationalism throughout the world.

To fulfil the criterion of simulated environment, delegates are expected to dress up formally and are equipped with badges and placards. Moreover, the committee discussion often takes place in rooms which are arranged in a horse-shoe shape, while more fancy premises are arranged for the general assembly¹³⁵ (cf. Obendorf & Randerson, 2013).

The typical MUN conference has the following parts:

- Opening Ceremony (guest speakers, opening speeches)
- Committee Work
- General Assembly
- Closing Ceremony

Many conferences also include a cultural programme for their delegates. Attending a MUN conference is thus an extraordinary experience.

The following section provides specific examples of two conferences taking place in Prague.

6.5.1.2 Examples of MUNs

PRAMUN

PRAMUN (Prague Model United Nations) is an upper-secondary conference taking place in Prague since 2009. It is hosted by Gymnázium Jana Nerudy and organised by Firebird Fine Arts Tours annually in early January. PRAMUN includes the simulation of the regular committees of the General Assembly, of the Security Council, and the Historical Committee.

The programme has a similar structure every year:

- Wednesday evening – Youth Forum (informal debate in committees on quotes by influential personalities)
- Thursday morning – Guided tour of Prague
- Thursday evening – Opening Ceremony
- Friday morning – Committee Work
- Friday afternoon – Committee Work
- Friday evening – Evening of Czech history
- Saturday morning – Committee Work
- Saturday afternoon – General Assembly and Closing Ceremony
- Saturday evening – Folklore dancing and disco
- Sunday morning – Excursion

As is clear from the programme, the idea behind PRAMUN is not only to provide students-delegates with plenty of opportunities for formal debating but also for informal interactions. Moreover, stress is put on the integration of culturally relevant topics.

¹³⁵ The GA of PORG MUN conference e.g. takes place in the big hall of the Prague City Council, whereas PRAMUN's GA is located in the hall of the Museum of Music, a part of the National Museum.

PORG MUN

PORG MUN conference started with a preliminary session in 2013 and with regular conferences in 2014. PORG MUN is hosted and organised by PORG, a private secondary school. At PORG MUN, there is a simulation of regular committees of the General Assembly, of the Security Council, of the Historical Committee, and of the International Court of Justice (since 2016).

The PORG MUN programme is as follows:

- Thursday morning – Registration
- Thursday afternoon – Opening Ceremony
- Thursday evening – Social Programme
- Friday morning – Committee Work – Lobbying Session
- Friday afternoon – Committee Work
- Friday evening – Social Programme
- Saturday morning – Committee Work
- Saturday afternoon – Committee Work
- Sunday morning – General Assembly
- Sunday afternoon – Closing Ceremony

DSP MUN

DSP MUN conference started in 2016 and is hosted and organised by the German international school, a private secondary school. It is a small three-day conference having a similar programme to that of PORG MUN.

6.5.2 European Youth Parliament

The European Youth Parliament (EYP) has a slightly different simulation format than MUN. Moreover, while MUN is a model that is realised by many institutions in the form of various conferences, there exists only one organisation which organises EYP events and conferences, albeit in various European countries.

This simulation is introduced for several reasons. First, even though there are many aspects in which EYP differs from MUN, it fulfils the definition of global simulation. Second, some of the activities used in the MUN proposal in the preparation stage for MUN (see section 8.2.3.2) are based on activities used in EYP. Furthermore, EYP features very clearly set-out aims, whose description and analysis enables the comparison with the goals of the cross-curricular subject Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts (see section 4.2.3).

The European Youth Parliament (EYP) is a non-governmental educational organization for young European citizens, a project of the Schwarzkopf Foundation with headquarters in Berlin. EYP is active in most European countries and is “tailored entirely to the needs of the

young European citizen“ (European Youth Parliament, 2006, p. 4). It hopes to encourage “independent thinking and socio-political initiative in young people and facilitate the learning of crucial social and professional skills” and to help “the uniting of Europe” (ibid.).

EYP organises various projects and events, including national and international conferences and forums, which enable upper-secondary school students from whole Europe to meet up and discuss current issues, as well as personal matters. The official language of the EYP is English and it thus facilitates students’ development of their foreign language communication skills, English being a mother tongue of only a small minority of participants.

The procedure at an EYP conference is fairly similar to that of MUN. Nevertheless, there are three crucial differences. First, as opposed to the MUN format, participants present their own ideas, rather than those of selected countries. Second, the two main parts of the conference, i.e. committee work and GA, are preceded by yet another stage, team-building. This is because EYP stresses the need to develop cooperative skills in order for participants to work together successfully during the subsequent stages. Finally, EYP conferences are typically less formal than MUNs.

Crucially, the declared aims of EYP are identical with those of both the Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts as well as the general goals of the Czech upper-secondary curriculum and of European education policies, as listed above (see section 4.2.3). The specific **aims** are as follows (European Youth Parliament, 2006, p. 5):

- 1) Raise awareness of European issues, encourage active European citizenship and motivate students to get engaged in European politics.
- 2) Promote international understanding, intercultural dialogue and diversity of ideas and practices.
- 3) Contribute to the personal skills development of European youth.
- 4) Provide a forum in which young people of Europe can express their own opinions, without reverting to role play.

According to the **evaluation** of three International Sessions of the EYP in 2005, “77% of the participants raised their awareness of European issues, 78% felt encouraged to increase their active democratic citizenship, 93 % experienced and appreciated intercultural dialogue and 84% developed and improved their personal skills and competences” (ibid.).¹³⁶ As the project is conducted in English, it can be inferred that the “personal skills and competences” improvement also includes the development of communication and language skills in a FL. As the project fulfils the goals of the CCS ETEGC, and can also serve as an example of its integration.

¹³⁶ Unfortunately, the booklet does not provide any specific information about the research design or the number of participants. Therefore, again, a more reliable and detailed research into the issue would be needed; the presented results, nevertheless, sound promising, certainly in the field of values and attitudes.

6.6 Summary

The given chapter introduced a selected innovative method of foreign language teaching, the simulation method. We introduced its characteristics, provided a definition of the concept of global simulation, listed both benefits and challenges, and also devoted attention to practical matters of structuring simulations and of the role of the teacher.

The final section of the given chapter focused on the introduction of the global simulation method, as implemented at the upper-secondary level. The global simulation method was defined as a *language teaching method incorporating features of the project-based approach and world-focused pedagogy, characterised as a complex, structured, long-term event, which is student-centred, multi-disciplinary, and has research and debating about global issues at its core, and in which participants have functional roles which they carry out according to specific rules of conduct.* The section introduced two global simulations, namely Model United Nations (MUN) and European Youth Parliament (EYP), serving as a springboard to the research part which investigates the suitability of the MUN global simulation for the purposes of dual-focused education, namely for the integration of ELT and global education.

Summary of the Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework was divided into four chapters which aimed to introduce current policies and practices in foreign language teaching. Starting with the most general concepts in chapter 3, we presented education for global and European citizenship and language and culture learning. We described the context in which these approaches originated and linked them to the globalised nature of today's world.

Next, in chapter 4 we introduced language policies as declared by key education policy documents on both European and national level. We highlighted how these policies are connected to the concepts presented in chapter 3 and how the curricular reform on the national level clearly reflects the educational tendencies found on both European and global level. On the national level, we specifically focused on two relevant educational areas, namely foreign language teaching and education for global and European citizenship.

Chapter 5 focused specifically on contemporary foreign language learning and teaching, with the aim of highlighting the context for the use of innovative methods. Again, we were searching for ways of connecting global education and language and culture learning and teaching.

Finally, chapter 6 presented in detail the simulation method as an innovative method of FLT. Special attention was paid to the global simulation variety of the method. Two global simulations and their goals were introduced, demonstrating correspondence to the ETEGC subject, as described in the national curriculum.

The findings presented in the theoretical framework are put to use in the research part of the paper. The research part aims to develop and test a teaching model centred around the global simulation method, suitable for the integration of Global Education and English as a Foreign Language at the upper-secondary level, with respect to the goals and characteristics as stated in the national curriculum and to the innovations that have been introduced.

RESEARCH

The research part introduces research methodology and the results of the research, and it is thus comprised of two sections of the respective titles. The research methodology chapter (Chapter 7) introduces research design and research question, organisation of the research and overview of participants, as well as methods of data collection and analysis. The results chapter (Chapter 8) introduces research findings, and is divided into three sections corresponding to the individual stages of the research. Chapter 8 also includes the introduction of the conception (teaching model) of the Model United Nations subject that was subjected to scrutiny during the action research and the discussion of results.

7 Research Methodology

The individual sections of the given chapter introduce research methodology. First, research design and its characteristics are introduced, followed by the presentation of research question, the organisation of the research and characteristics of its participants. Furthermore, data collection and data analysis methods are introduced, alongside research limitations.

The research methodology is based on the goals of the research part, namely:

1. to examine the suitability of the global simulation method for the purposes of meeting the dual goals of global education and ELT
2. to develop a teaching model based on the global simulation method meeting the dual goals of global education and ELT, with respect to the goals of the Czech national curriculum
3. to subject the proposed teaching model to repeated examination in class and to review from teaching professionals

The research is characterised by the following aspects:

1. it is related to curriculum development and implementation – it puts in practice the goals of the national curriculum
2. it is practical – it concerns a change of everyday teaching practices
3. it is teacher-led – it is mainly conducted by teacher-researcher in her classes
4. it is repetitive – the proposed teaching model is implemented repeatedly

7.1 Research Design

Bearing the aims and characteristics of the research in mind, a suitable research design was sought and action research selected. **Action research** is a type of research that aims to improve teaching practices by means of reflection and change of a specific educational situation or context, “built on the participation of everyone involved, i.e. both researched individuals and researchers” (Šed'ová et al., 2014, p. 15). The aims of action research correspond to the characteristics of our research, for a number of reasons. First, action research is well-suited for the purposes of curriculum development and implementation. As McKernan (1988, p. 174) puts it,

A curriculum is an educational proposal, or hypothesis, that invites a critical response as it is implemented. A curriculum invites teachers and others to adopt a research stance toward their work, suggesting rigorous reflection on practice as the basis of further professional development.

Thus, action research is practical and reflective. The practical nature of action research also promotes democratic participation of teachers and students (Pavelková, 2012), as it allows them to take initiative to make their own choices within the context of the educational systems. Nezvalová (2002) believes that such a democratisation of teaching is becoming the “practical reality in the 21st century school”. This goes hand in hand with the fact that the goal of action research is not as much a production of academic papers or reports, but rather the development of the teaching practice. Action research

aims at feeding the practical judgment of actors in problematic situations. The validity of the concepts, models, and results it generates depends not so much on scientific tests of truth as on their utility in helping practitioners to act more effectively, skilfully, and intelligently. Theories are not validated independent of practice and then applied to curriculum, they are validated through practice. (McKernan, 1988, pp. 173-174)

To sum up, action research seems to be the ideal research design for the purposes of the development of a teaching model based on specific aspects of the curriculum, and for a subsequent testing of its effectiveness. It allows the teacher-researcher, as well as the research participants, to actively influence the classroom reality.

7.1.1 Origins and Current Position of Action Research

The origins of action research are unclear. While its establishment is generally associated with the American social psychologist Kurt Lewin (Adelman, 1993; Janík, 2004a), there is some evidence that action research was implemented even before Lewin, e.g. in the work of John Dewey and the progressive education movement (McKernan, 1988). Lewin was influenced by social anthropology and aimed for an open and democratic approach to research in social sciences, with the research subject in the centre of attention (Janík, 2004a). Lewin argued that in order to “understand and change certain social practices, social scientists have to include practitioners from the real social world in all phases of inquiry” (McKernan, 1988, p. 178). That is why, in the 1940s, Lewin started cooperating with teachers at Columbia University, marking the point in time when action research entered the field of education (Janík, 2004a).

This practice eventually led to the establishment of the “Teacher-Researcher Movement”, coming into existence with the 1975 thesis “The Teacher as Researcher” by Lawrence Stenhouse (McKernan, 1988). It was another member of this movement, John Elliott, who

defined action research as “the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it” (ibid., p. 173). In this viewpoint, the teaching professional becomes a researcher, and the classroom becomes a “laboratory for empirically testing hypotheses or proposals that are the planned and implemented curriculum” (ibid., p. 174). Since then, action research has been used extensively not only in education, but also in other fields, including psychology, medicine, industry, or community work.

While action research is now internationally considered an established part of qualitative research (de Banffy-Hall, 2015) and has “become one of the essential methods of data collection that influences curriculum development, affects the methodological practice, and creates public policy“ (Schumacher, 2007, p. 29), in the Czech educational context, the use of action research is still a novelty (Janík, 2004a; Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2015). Nevertheless, it has been accepted into the repertoire of research methods, with a number of researchers paying attention to action research as a method of inquiry, both on a theoretical and practical level (cf. Janík, 2002, 2004a; Nezvalová, 2002, 2003; Pavelková, 2012; Seberová, 2010, 2013; Šed'ová et al., 2014; Šed'ová, Sedláček, & Švaříček, 2016; Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2015; Walterová, 1995). According to its Czech proponents, action research is a suitable design for bridging the theory-practice gap (Walterová, 1995). Moreover, it is believed to provide access to data that are unattainable using other types of research (Pavelková, 2012). Furthermore, Janík (2002) claims that action research is a means to help overcome problems of teaching practice and a way to introduce innovations. On a similar note, Nezvalová (2012) believes that “action research has the potential to enhance the quality of the school as a place of learning for students and the development of professional skills of the teacher”. Janík (2004a, p. 2) maintains that it is “justifiable to describe action research as one developing not only the teacher as an individual, but the teaching profession as a whole.” The given paper serves to extend the number of scientific papers implementing the method in the Czech educational context.

7.1.2 Characteristics and Model of Action Research

Action research is cyclical in nature, as the classroom reality is repeatedly subjected to reflection aiming at planning of further, follow-up action (Nezvalová, 2003) and at formulating and testing solutions to practical problems (Wall & Higgins, 2006 in Šed'ová et al., 2014). It is a “sustained, intentional, recursive, and dynamic process of inquiry“ (Pine, 2009, p. 30). Furthermore, action research is participative, i.e. both the researcher and the research subjects are treated as partners in the process (Hendl, 2008, p. 137), with the traditional roles often being interchangeable (Seberová, 2013).

To summarise, the main characteristics of action research are (Walterová, 1995, p. 25)¹³⁷:

- The research takes place in real environment and reflects its complexity.
- The research methodology and intervention strategies are developed simultaneously.
- Research results are used when making decisions on the next steps to be taken.

¹³⁷ Jako hlavní znaky akčního výzkumu se zpravidla uvádějí: výzkum probíhá v reálném prostředí a reflektuje jeho komplexnost; simultánně se rozvíjí metodologie výzkumu a intervenční strategie; výsledků zjištění se průběžně využívá k rozhodování o dalším průběhu akce; důsledky intervencí a efekty změn jsou permanentně zkoumány; zpracování a vyhodnocování výzkumných dat je zveřejňováno pro potřeby zúčastněných skupin aktérů; výzkum provádí netradiční výzkumný tým (profesionální i neprofesionální výzkumníci), jehož členové jsou současně subjektem i objektem zkoumání. (Walterová, 1995, p. 25)

- The consequences of interventions and the effects of the changes are studied perpetually.
- The research data and their results are published in order to be made use of by research participants.
- The research is conducted by a non-traditional research team (professional and non-professional researchers) whose members are at the same time subjects and objects of the research.

Action research has several phases, with the main ones being action, reflection, and revision (Nezvalová, 2003; cf. Kolb’s experiential learning cycle, 2014), and is built upon constructivist learning theories (Janík’s preface to Korthagen et al., 2011). In the ALACT model, Korthagen (2001, Korthagen et al., 2011) includes an extra phase of awareness (“theory with a small t”; cf. ‘practical theory’, Elliott, 1981), separating the descriptive and the reflective phase. The ALACT model has the following phases:

- 1) action
- 2) looking back on the action
- 3) awareness of essential aspects
- 4) creating alternative methods of action
- 5) / 1) – trial / action

The same phases can also be described using verbs (Tripp, 2005):

- 1) act
- 2) describe
- 3) evaluate
- 4) plan

Janík (2004a) adapts Altricht and Posche’s (1998) model and involves two more phases, namely (0) research entry (starting points), and (6) presentation of findings and subjecting them to public discussion.

In the current study, the above models were adapted to reflect the reactive type of action research (Schmuck, 1997 in Nezvalová, 2003) in which action follows data collection. The adapted concept of reflective practice employed in the current study thus features the following phases:

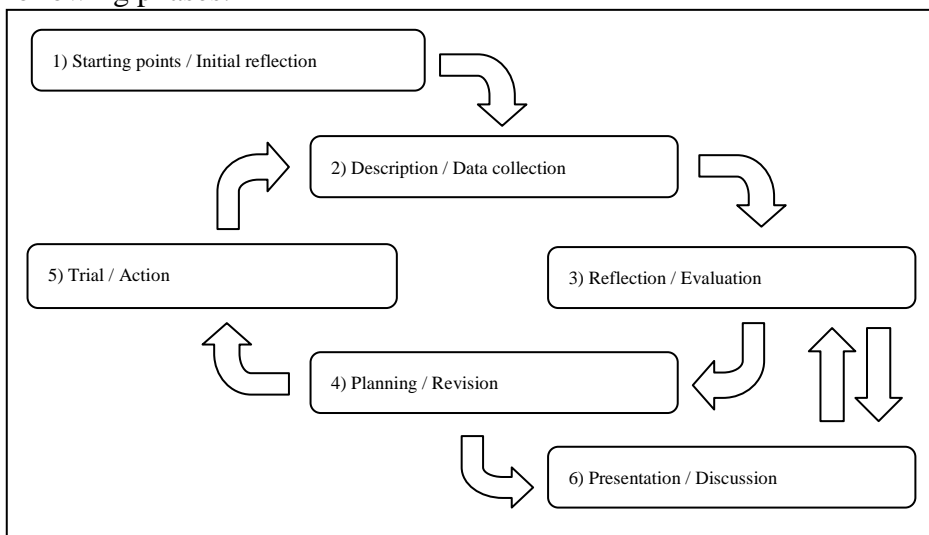


Figure 2 – Phases of action research – revised model

7.2 Research Question

The study presents an action research investigating the possibilities of integration of the cross-curricular subject Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts into upper-secondary classes through the medium of English. The research took as the starting point an incentive for the integration of the given cross-curricular subject as stated in the RVP G:

The implementation of Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts in school practice exceeds the possibilities of instruction with the subjects traditionally divided. It requires effective team cooperation on the part of the teachers, the application of innovative and non-traditional educational procedures, techniques, forms and methods, cooperation between pupils, the preparation of projects, employment and support of extracurricular forms of learning and extracurricular activities. The implementation of this cross-curricular subject is also supported by, for example, contacts with important figures of public life, with social partners, with humanitarian organisations, cultural and social institutions in the region or cooperation with foreign, especially European, partner schools. (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 70)

The main research question was thus worded accordingly: **What is a suitable method for the integration of the ETEGC CCS into upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes with respect to the nature of the subject as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)? (research question 1)**

The main research question in this wording was used in the introductory stage of the action research. The suitability of the global simulation method for the subject integration having been confirmed in the introductory stage (see 8.1.3), the research question was subjected to rewording. Rewording of the research question is in line with the cyclical nature of qualitative research (Švaříček & Šedřová, 2007), and in action research in particular (Janík, 2004a). The rewording took place at the beginning of the main research stage. The research question was worded as follows:

How should the global simulation method be effectively integrated in the upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes, while meeting the characteristics of the ETEGC CCS as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)? (research question 2a)

Subsequently, during research cycle 2, another research question was added:

How does the proposed teaching model of the MUN subject facilitate the development of communicative competence in English as a Foreign Language in upper-secondary school students? (research question 2b)

7.3 Organisation of Research and Selection of Participants

The research took place in three stages during several consecutive school years, from 2012 to 2017. The main research stage took place in school years 2013/2014, 2014/2015, and 2015/2016.

The research was organised according to the phases of action research as outlined in Figure 2 – Phases of action research – revised model. With the exception of phase 1 (initial reflection), all phases took place repeatedly, in line with the cyclical nature of action research, in order to render more data and more viewpoints.

The participants in the research study were selected by means of purposeful sampling. **Purposeful sampling** (Palinkas et al., 2015, p. 534) “involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest”. The subjects’ availability is another important criterion of selection in purposeful sampling (ibid.). All available subjects became participants of the action research (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007). Thus, a **complete sample** (Flick, 2006) of all participants in PRAMUN 2012, as well as a complete sample of all students attending MUN seminars in the main research stage were involved in the research. In stage 3, all available teachers of English that participate in the preparation of students for the MUN global simulation participation teaching in Prague were involved. Stage 3 thus involves only 2 research subjects, due to the fact that MUN teachers are often not teachers of English or are not qualified teachers at all.

All participants took part in the research voluntarily. Research subjects participating in the introductory stage gave oral consent to research participation. Research subjects participating in the main and follow-up stages of the research took part after an informed consent was signed; in the case of minors, parents were also requested to sign the informed consent.

Organisation of the action research

Stage	Cycle	Phase	Research subjects
Introductory stage (2011-2013)			
2011	1	1 – Starting points	
2012		2 – Data collection	PRAMUN 2012 participants
2012		3 – Reflection and evaluation	
2012-2013		4 – Planning	
Main stage (2013-2016)			
2013-2014	2	5 – Trial	Group A
2013-2014		6 – Data collection	Group A
2013-2014		7 – Reflection and evaluation	Group A
2014		8 – Revision	
2014-2016	3	9 – Action	Group B, C, D, E, F

2014-2016		10 – Data collection	Group B, C, D, E, F
2014-2016		11 – Reflection and evaluation	Group B, C, D, E, F
2016-2017		12 – Revision	
Follow-up stage (2016-2017)			
2017	4	13 – Presentation and discussion	MUN Teachers
2017		14 – Reflection	
2017		15 – Revision	
2017		16 – Presentation	

Table 4 – Organisation of the action research

Below is an overview of the participants taking part in the individual stages of the action research.

Introductory stage								
		Students	Teachers					
Total count		198	6					
Sex	female	113	3					
	male	85	3					
Age	average	16	44					
Main stage								
		Total	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group E	Group F
Total count		101	21	16	22	16	13	13
Sex	female	55	12	9	13	10	6	5
	male	46	9	7	9	6	7	8
Age	average	16	16	16	15	15	16	15
Year ¹³⁸	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	5
	5	50	5	4	22	16	0	3
	6	28	9	2	0	0	12	5
	7	2	1	0	0	0	1	0
	I.	5	5	0	0	0	0	0
	II.	10	0	10	0	0	0	0
	III.	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
	mode	5	6	5	5	5	6	6
Follow-up stage								
		Teachers						
Total count		2						
Sex	female	1						
	male	1						
Age	average	44						

Table 5 – Overview of research subjects

¹³⁸ Roman numerals denote classes of the four-year programme, Arabic numerals denote classes of the eight-year programme.

7.3.1 Introductory stage

7.3.1.1 Phase 1 – Starting points

Phase 1 of the research took place in the first half of the 2011/2012 school year. During this period, a preliminary answer to the initial research question was sought, by means of study of the national curriculum, of Czech and foreign academic literature, of examples of good practice from abroad, and by means of informal talks with teaching professionals – teachers of English aiming at a more global perspective to the teaching of the subject (typically MUN and EYP teachers).

The review pointed out the **global simulation method** as a promising one to be used for the integration of European and global issues, both in terms of content and foreign language development. First, the description of the ETEGC CCS and its declared goals (see 4.2.3) was compared with the description of the global simulation as presented in academic literature (Hazleton, 1984; Obendorf & Randerson, 2012; Petrova, 2012; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014; Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011) and proved to match. Next, the global simulation as outlined in foreign research studies was found to display numerous benefits for learners of foreign languages (Brown, 2009; Fast, 2012, Kurniasih, 2011 in Nasution & Mayangsari, 2016; Williams & Stein, 2006; Xiaoyum & Jian, 2004). Furthermore, the national curriculum (RVP G) pointed out the need for the use of extracurricular forms of learning for the integration of the subject (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 70), while a Czech scholar listed the global simulation method as a possible means of integration (Walterová, 2006). That is why a pilot study was prepared to investigate the presupposed benefits of the global simulation method and the suitability of its use for the purpose of the CCS integration.

7.3.1.2 Phase 2 – Data collection

Phase 2 involved a pilot study at the **PRAMUN 2012 conference** in January 2012 (Prague Model United Nations conference, see 6.5.1.2). The aim of this study was to confirm or reject the notion of the suitability of the global simulation method for the subject integration as outlined above. The study involved two groups of research subjects: 1) students-delegates and 2) MUN directors, i.e. teachers preparing students for MUN conferences.

At the time of the research, there was only one upper-secondary English-speaking MUN conference taking place in the Czech Republic, PRAMUN. That is why it was this conference that was selected for the pilot study. The conference organisers were first consulted and asked for consent with the research study, followed-up by the consent of the participating teachers and oral consent of delegates.

The participating schools were regular secondary schools or international schools, with private schools outnumbering public schools. Most schools had over 51 members of staff and over 500 students.

Students-delegates

198 participants out of the total 226 took part in this part of the pilot study. There were 113 girls (57%) and 85 boys (43%). The average participant's age was 15.96 with girls being on average slightly older (16,01) than boys (15,93).

Participants of altogether 30 nationalities were involved, with Americans (84, i.e. 42%) and Czechs (26, i.e. 13%) being the biggest groups. Other big groups included Turks (11, i.e. 6%), Moroccans (10, i.e. 5%), Russians and Egyptians (both 7, i.e. 4%). Moreover, there was a diverse group of participants (17, i.e. 9%) who identified themselves as "mixed", i.e. having two nationalities (e.g. American and German). Of the rest of the participants, 4 considered themselves Indians, 3 Dutch, 3 South Korean, 2 German, 2 Swiss, 2 Kazakh, 2 Hispanic, 2 Israeli, and 2 British. Finally, there was 1 participant of each of the following nationalities: European, Pakistani, Brazilian, English, Filipino, Bangladeshi, Norwegian, Serbian, Spanish, Austrian, Iranian, Jordanian, Thai, and Cuban.

The high number of nationalities represented in the research is probably due to the fact that many of the participating schools were international ones, attended by both locals and foreigners. That might also be the reason why 42% of participants were American, even though only one school based in the USA took part. The overview lists nationalities as indicated by the students. Therefore, it is interesting to see that two students stated their nationality as British while another one declared English as his/her nationality. Moreover, another student regards him/herself as European national.

Out of the 198 participants, 108 (55%) were native speakers of English. The rest (non-native) included all Czechs (26) and other non-native speakers (64), predominantly the Turkish, Moroccans, Russians, and participants of mixed nationality.

Teachers-MUN directors

Six MUN directors took part in this part of the pilot study. The typical PRAMUN 2012 Director was 44 years old. There was an equal number of men and women. An average director had extensive MUN experience, having been to a MUN conference 8 times on average, preparing MUN delegates for about 8 years. Most of the directors taught Humanities and Social Sciences subjects: English, Social Studies, History, Geography, Political Science, Anthropology, and Religious Studies; two of the directors stated that they teach "Model UN".

7.3.1.3 Phase 3 – Data analysis and reflection

The third phase, taking place in the second half of the school year 2011/2012, involved data analysis, reflection and evaluation. As the data confirmed the suitability of the global simulation method for subject integration as outlined above, the action research continued to the planning phase.

7.3.1.4 Phase 4 – Planning

The fourth – planning – phase took place in the school year 2012/2013. The aim of this phase was to prepare a preliminary teaching model of the MUN subject, to be tested during the subsequent phases of the action research.

The planning involved two parallel processes. On the one hand, academic and research literature was studied, in order to provide ideas for syllabus preparation and to point out to possible limitations of the global simulation method to be considered when implementing the method. At the same time, further examples of good practice were sought, in order to broaden the range of activities to be included in the MUN subject. The result of the planning stage was a syllabus and basic handouts to be tested in the main stage.

7.3.2 Main stage

The **main stage** of the action research was conducted in three consecutive school years, namely in school years 2013/2014, 2014/2015, and 2015/2016. This stage involved the realisation of the seminar with 6 groups of upper-secondary students from three different schools. All classes were taught by the researcher. The research was conducted after the consent of the respective school headmasters. Participants or their parents also signed informed consent.

The attendees of the MUN subject completed a set of questionnaires at the beginning and at the end of the course (i.e. in September and in June of the given school year), while the teacher-researcher kept reflective notes. The aim of the main stage was to produce the final teaching model of the MUN subject, by means of the action research cycle (see 7.1.2) testing the conception developed in the planning phase of the introductory stage.

The following sections introduce a description of the individual phases of the action research, alongside the description of research sample in terms of numbers, age, sex, study line, and English language proficiency level. Language proficiency is described using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001), as follows (p. 24):

Proficient user	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent user	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic user	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Table 6 – Levels of language proficiency (CEFR)

7.3.2.1 Phases 5 – 7 – Trial, Data collection, Reflection

The fifth phase of the action research took place in school year 2013/2014 and involved student research group A. In the case of all groups, the seminar took place once a week over the course of the whole school year, with lessons lasting 90 minutes.

Group A

Research group A attended the MUN subject at school 1 in school year 2013/2014. The group attended the MUN seminar as an extra-curricular, optional (*nepovinný*) class.

This group included 21 students, 12 females and 9 males of average and mode age 16. They were a mix of different years and study lines, with half of the students from year 6 of the eight-year gymnasium programme (*sexta*).

In terms of their English language competence, all were at a B1+ or B2 level of the CEFR, with the exception of the students from year III and year 7¹³⁹, who were both at B2+ level. All students were Czech speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

The sixth and seventh phase, data collection and reflection / evaluation took place across the entire 2013/2014 school year.

7.3.2.2 Phase 8 – Revision

The revision phase took place over summer holidays 2014. The revision involved updating materials produced in planning phase 4 and made use of the description and reflection conducted during phases 6 and 7. The result of the work was a revised syllabus and updated set of materials and handouts.

7.3.2.3 Phases 9 – 11 – Action, Data collection, Reflection

Phases 9 to 11 took place over two school years – 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 and involved working with student research groups B, C, D, E, F, as well as compiling notes about the suitability of the teaching model. During this period, the conception was further tried, evaluated, and revised. Groups B, C and D were from school 1, while groups E and F were from two other schools. The aim for involving two more schools in the final year of the main stage of the research was to try the conception out in various educational contexts and with students with different educational backgrounds, in order to determine the most suitable variant for the implementation of the subject.

¹³⁹ Roman numerals denote classes of the four-year programme, Arabic numerals denote classes of the eight-year programme.

Group B

Research group B attended the MUN seminar at school 1 in school year 2014/2015. The group attended the MUN seminar as an extra-curricular, optional (*nepovinný*) class.

This group included 16 students, 9 females and 7 males of average and mode age 16. 63% of the students were from year II of the four-year gymnasium programme.

In terms of their English language competence, all were at B1 or B1+ level of the CEFR, with the exception of the two students from year 6, who were both at B2 level. There was one Kazakh student who immigrated to the Czech Republic at a young age, completed his compulsory schooling in the Czech Republic, and had a native-speaker proficiency in Czech. All the remaining students were Czech native speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

Group C

Research group C attended the MUN seminar at school 1 in school year 2014/2015. The group attended the MUN seminar as an extra-curricular, optional (*nepovinný*) class.

This group included 22 students, 13 females and 9 males of average and mode age 15. All the students were from year 5 of the eight-year gymnasium programme (kvinta).

In terms of their English language competence, all were at B1+ or B2 level of the CEFR, with some students at B2+ level in speaking competence. There were two Vietnamese and two Serbo-Croatian students who immigrated to the Czech Republic at a young age, completed their compulsory schooling in the Czech Republic, and had a native-speaker proficiency in Czech. All the remaining students were Czech native speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

Group D

Research group D attended the MUN seminar at school 1 in school year 2015/2016. The group attended the MUN seminar as an extra-curricular, optional (non-compulsory; *nepovinný*) class.

This group included 16 students, 10 females and 6 males of average and mode age 15. All the students were from year 5 of the eight-year gymnasium programme (kvinta).

In terms of their English language competence, all were at B1 or B1+ level of the CEFR, with some students at B2 level in speaking competence. There was one Vietnamese and one Ukrainian student who immigrated to the Czech Republic at a young age, completed their compulsory schooling in the Czech Republic, and had a native-speaker proficiency in Czech. All the remaining students were Czech native speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

Group E

Research group E attended the MUN seminar at school 2 in school year 2015/2016. The group attended the MUN seminar as a semi-compulsory class (*povinně-volitelný*), i.e. the seminar one out of several courses the students chose from.

This group included 13 students, 6 females and 7 males of average and mode age 16. 12 students were from year 6 of the eight-year gymnasium programme (sexta) and 1 student was from year 7 (septima).

In terms of their English language competence, all but one student, who was at B1 level, were at a B2 level of the CEFR. All students were Czech speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

Group F

Research group F attended the MUN seminar at school 3 in school year 2015/2016. The group attended the MUN seminar as a semi-compulsory class (*povinně-volitelný*), i.e. the seminar one out of several courses the students chose from.

This group included 13 students, 5 females and 8 males of average age 15 and mode age 16. The students were equally divided among year 4, 5 and 6 of the eight-year gymnasium programme (kvarta, kvinta, sexta).

In terms of their English language competence, students were at B2 to C1 level of the CEFR. There was one Russian student who immigrated to the Czech Republic at a young age, completed their compulsory schooling in the Czech Republic, and had a native-speaker proficiency in Czech. All the remaining students were Czech native speakers and were learning English as their first foreign language.

7.3.3 Follow-up stage

The **third stage** was conducted in 2017 and involved the finalisation of the conception of the subject and development of methodological notes for teachers. Furthermore, it involved semi-structured in-depth interviews with 2 Czech teachers of English as a Foreign Language that have been involved in the preparation of upper-secondary students for participation in MUN conferences.

7.3.3.1 Phase 12 – Final revision

Phase 12 involved a revision of the developed materials based on the teacher-researcher's notes from individual lessons and on data from questionnaires (phases 10 and 11). Furthermore, it included the finalisation of methodological notes and teaching unit descriptions, alongside the improvement of the graphic design of handouts used in the teaching units.

7.3.3.2 Phase 13 – Presentation and discussion

This phase involved the presentation of research findings and of the complete conception of the subject to teaching professionals and conducting follow-up interviews with them. The aim was to complement the perspective of the teacher-researcher and of the students-participants by a third source of viewpoints. Teacher in interview 1 is a 51-year-old female, a teacher of English language. Teacher in interview 2 is a 37-year-old male, a teacher of English and Social Sciences.

The aim of the interviews was to subject the developed model of the MUN subject, methodology notes, and materials developed in the main research stage, to reflection and review from members of teaching professionals' community. Furthermore, the interview discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the global simulation method and the organisation of the MUN subject.

7.3.3.3 Phases 14 and 15 – Reflection and revision

The two phases followed-up on the in-depth interviews. As the interviewees did not suggest any significant changes to the conception, no major revisions were made.

7.3.3.4 Phase 16 – Presentation

The last phase included the production of the research report, i.e. of the research section of the given paper.

7.4 Data Collection Methods

According to Hendl (2008, p. 164), the main group of data collection methods in qualitative empirical research include listening to narratives, asking questions and getting people's answers. Qualitative inquiry in general includes different types of interviews, questionnaires, scales, and tests. Focusing attention on action research in particular, McBride and Schostak (1991 in Sadeghi, 2012) list observation, interviewing, and the collection of documents and artefacts as main data collection methods. Elliott (1991) adds a few more, including diaries, document analysis, photographic evidence, tape/video recordings and transcripts, using an outside observer, running commentary, shadow study, checklists, questionnaires, and inventories.

The current research uses predominantly qualitative methods (non-standardised questionnaires, semi-structured in-depth interviews, participant observation), alongside one quantitative instrument (a standardised test), and thus employs mixed, descriptive research methodology. As the research combines various data collection methods, it allows for triangulation of methods (Hendl & Remr, 2017). This provides for the collection of a variety of perspectives (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007), with the ability to compare and contrast between them (Elliott, 1991).

Below is an overview of the data collection methods, as used in the individual stages of the research. The questionnaires, the standardised test, the questions used in the semi-structured interviews and the transcripts of the interviews are included in Appendices.

7.4.1 Introductory stage

In this part of the research, **non-standardised questionnaires** with various types of questions were used – open-ended, semi-open, closed, and yes-no questions. Moreover, in some sections, statements rated on a five-point Likert scale were used.

A **questionnaire** is a form that is completed in writing by a respondent and used by researchers to find out information about “ideas, feelings, attitudes and values of research subjects” (Hendl & Remr, 2017, p. 82). Questionnaires are used independently of specific research designs, both in qualitative and quantitative research (ibid.). It is recommended that the content and wording of the questionnaire first be checked with a sample of research subjects (Hendl, 2008). This was done prior to the pilot study.

Students-delegates

The questionnaire consisted of four sets of questions:

- 1) **Delegate personal profile** consisted of open-ended, semi-open and yes-no questions, covering basic personal data (age, gender, mother tongue, nationality, prior attendance to a MUN conference, native vs. non-native speaker of English).
- 2) **Motivation for taking part in MUN** aimed at finding out whether intrinsic, or extrinsic motivation prevails. The design and statements were selected and modified from TUSMS

Questionnaire 2 (quoted in Afzal et al., 2010), which sub-divides intrinsic motivation into ‘self-exploration’ and ‘altruism’, and extrinsic motivation to ‘career and qualifications’ and ‘social enjoyment’. Two statements were selected for each of the four categories and were graded on a five-point Likert scale¹⁴⁰.

3) General impact of MUN participation, covered political and civic engagement, multicultural awareness, academic and professional orientation. This part consisted of 10 statements rated on a five-point Likert scale.

4) Linguistic impact of MUN activity on non-native speakers of English and made use of a five-point Likert scale, on which 10 statements were rated.

Teachers-MUN directors

In this part of the research, open-ended questions were used.

The questionnaire consisted of four sets of questions:

1) MUN Director personal and professional profile consisting of open-ended questions surveying directors’ age, gender, attendance to MUN conference, motivation for participation, and experience with other simulation projects.

2) School profile gathering information about the participating schools in terms of their type, legal status, staff size, and number of students.

3) MUN preparation investigating how the individual groups prepared for the conference.

4) Impact of participation on students, investigating what MUN Directors think about the impact of MUN participation on students.

7.4.2 Main stage

In the main stage, data from research subjects, i.e. students in the MUN subject, were collected using both non-standardised questionnaires and a standardised test. The administration of these tests was conducted in September and in June of the respective school year. Each participant in the study was given a unique identification code which they used when completing the questionnaires and tests. The data were complemented by observation by the teacher-researcher.

Non-standardised questionnaire

The **non-standardised questionnaires** included two types of questions: open-ended questions and yes-no questions.

In **Set 1**, the questionnaire aimed at finding **motivation for participation** and students’ expectations of the course, both in terms of content and foreign language use. For this purpose open-ended questions were used and a question which involved ranking priorities. This set was administered during the first lesson in September.

In **Set 2**, the questionnaire aimed at gathering **feedback** from research subjects on their satisfaction with the course, usefulness of activities, and suggestions for improvement, both in

¹⁴⁰ Scale with five levels: strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree.

terms of content and foreign language use. Furthermore, the subjects were asked about their opinions on the integration of simulations in other subjects. For this purpose, open-ended as well as yes-no questions were used. This set was administered during the final lessons in June.

Standardised test

The non-standardised questionnaires were complemented by a **standardised inventory**, “a list of statements about a situation which others may agree with or not” (Elliott 1991, p. 82). The inventory used was the Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale (see section 5.2.2.1 for the explanation of the concept of self-perceived communication competence) by McCroskey and McCroskey (1988, 2013). This self-report style research instrument “measure[s] subjects’ perceptions of their communication competence” (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988, p. 111) and is made up of 12 statements describing 12 communication situations:

The items were chosen to reflect four basic communication contexts – public speaking, talking in a large meeting, talking in a small group, and talking in a dyad – and three common types of receivers – strangers, acquaintances, and friends. For each combination of context and receiver type, subjects are asked to estimate their communication competence on a 0-100 scale. In addition to a global self-perceived communication competence score, the scale permits generation of a subscore for each type of communication context and each type of receiver. (ibid., pp. 111-112)

In the test, the subjects were asked to indicate how competent they feel in the listed communication situations. They were to use 0 for “completely incompetent” and 100 for “competent”.

The test was selected for a number of reasons. First, it is a standardised research instrument that has been subjected to a reliability test, proving its reliability (McCroskey & McCroskey, 2013). Next, the wording of the statements was simple enough for the use with the research participants and the statements did not require a translation; this was ensured by administering the test to a group of students of the same age who did not participate in the actual research. During the administration, nevertheless, the translation of the word “acquaintance” was provided, and the instructions were repeated in Czech. Furthermore, the test includes a clear and rather simple scoring and thus scores can be calculated without the need of using advanced computational operations.

The test was administered twice during the course of the school year, in both Set 1 and Set 2, in order to provide data for comparison of individual scores.

Participant observation / self-reflection

The listed data collection methods were complemented by a self-reflection combined with **participant observation** conducted by the teacher-researcher. In qualitative research, participant observation serves as a source of data useful when compared with respondent data, e.g. from questionnaires. While traditionally “the researcher engaged in participant observation tries to learn what life is like for an ‘insider’ while remaining, inevitably, an ‘outsider’” (Mack et al., 2005, p. 13), in action research, to remain an outsider is not quite possible, as the teacher-researcher is a “classroom participant” (Sadeghi, 2012) (cf. “insider-outsider”, Corbin Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). In action research, the teacher-researcher is

involved in a continuous, self-reflective process. In the current research, we relied methodologically on the guidelines for conducting reflection in phase 2 of the ALACT model (Korthagen, 2001, p. 7), where reflection mainly concerns the teaching context and teacher's and students' goals, behaviour, thoughts, and feelings.

During the research, notes were compiled after the teaching units. These notes reflected the teaching / learning that took place, including the usefulness and suitability of the activities used, students' (lack of) involvement in the activities, challenges faced, etc. They were then used in the reflection and revision stages of the action research and served as a basis for e.g. changing the order of activities, removing activities from units, or for re-wording of handouts and supplementary materials.

7.4.3 Follow-up stage

In the follow-up stage of the research, **in-depth interviews** were conducted. An in-depth interview is a non-standardised questioning of an interviewee, conducted usually by one interviewer (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007). In an in-depth interview, the interviewee is considered an expert and the researcher's task is to "learn everything the participant can share about the research topic" (Mack et al., 2005, p. 29).

An interview should have a clear structure. When conducting the interview, Hendl (2008, p. 169) suggests the following order of questions: Start with 'non-problematic' ones investigating current activities and experience, as this establishes rapport and encourages the interviewee to be descriptive in his/her answers. Next, aim the questions at finding out information about personal interpretations, opinions and feelings connected to the activities under scrutiny. Demographic questions should be asked separately or at the very end of the interview, as not to discourage the interviewee from answering further questions. Kvale (1996) further points out that the interview should start with briefing and end with debriefing in which the interviewee can ask questions and provide further comments.

A **question** in an interview is "a stimulus for the generation of answers" (Hendl, 2008, p. 169) and as such should be "open, neutral, sensitive, and clear" (ibid.). An open question allows the interviewee to choose any direction in which to answer, i.e. does not narrow down the options for answering. Švec (2004 in Maňák & Švec, 2004) distinguishes three main types of questions, namely probing questions, directing questions, and ad-hoc questions. **Probing** questions 'dig deeper' and point the interviewee in a certain direction, e.g. *What exactly happened? How did you participate?* (Hendl, 2008, p. 170). **Directing** questions are directed at the research topic and may be prepared by the interviewer prior to the interview, while **ad-hoc** questions are produced 'in the spare of the moment'. The researcher should also continually clarify categories or concepts introduced during the interview, in order to cater towards a smoother and more objective categorisation and interpretation of an interviewee's answers (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007).

In the given research, we employed a **semi-structured interview**, in which the interviewer makes use of a previously compiled list of questions and topics (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007) related to the main research question. The resulting interview data consisted of typed

transcripts of tape recordings and interviewer's notes on the interview content. Originally, the researcher planned to include data on a participant's behaviour and context, as is typical in other types of action research (Mack et al., 2005). However, while conducting the first interview, information on the participant's behaviour and context was found unnecessary, as the content of the interview was non-problematic to the interviewee. Notes involved information as to what the interviewee was e.g. referring to, i.e. which table or material.

The questions in the interview (see Appendices) were grouped into three topic areas. The first set of questions aimed at finding out what the interviewees think about the MUN activity in general, in terms of its characteristics, advantages, and disadvantages. The second set looked into the impact of MUN participation on students. The third set dealt specifically with the seminar proposal and with the interviewees' opinions on the suitability and usefulness on the materials. The complete conception of the Model United Nations Subject (see section 8.2.3) was provided to the interviewees a week before the interview, alongside a sample of worksheets for units 1 to 6.

The semi-structured type of inquiry was selected as it has a number of advantages. First, it allows the researcher to double check that the interviewee understood the question and to confirm the researcher's understanding of the answer. Furthermore, it allows the interviewee to express their opinions and points of view, and to suggest relations and connections (Hendl, 2008).

7.5 Data Analysis and Interpretation

The aim of data analysis is the “reduction, organisation, synthesis, and summarisation of information” in order to make sense of research results (Hendl & Remr, 2017, p. 215). The given section includes an overview of the methods used.

The main data collection methods involved two types of qualitative inquiry, namely non-standardised **questionnaire** with open questions and semi-structured **interviews**. According to Hendl (2008, p. 186) the two types of data can be analysed in a similar way. The following procedure was used.

The collected **textual data**, i.e. answers from questionnaires and transcripts of interviews, were subjected to the following (cyclical) analysis, inspired by Hendl and Remr (2017):

1. Interviews were transcribed and re-written using standardised language, as the focus of the inquiry was on the content rather than on the language itself (ibid., p. 208).
2. Answers to open-ended questions from the questionnaires written in Czech were translated to English. An answer from the questionnaire was not included in data analysis if it was illegible or incomprehensible.
3. A complete analysis of one text was conducted.
4. Topics found in the text were listed.
5. The topics were ordered, indicating main topics and minor topics.
6. With every topic on the list, an indication of where in the text the topic can be found was noted using a section number corresponding to a question in the interview or in the questionnaire.
7. Examples of identified topics and subtopics were sought in other texts.
8. New topics from other texts were added to the list.

In the qualitative data analysis, we also employed a **quasi-statistical approach** (Hendl, 2008, p. 225), which involves the conversion of initially qualitative data to quantitative format, e.g. by means of a detailed description of the absolute frequency of categories in a given sample (Hendl & Remr, 2017). Thus, topics from the texts were put together and their frequency expressed. A topic was only used once in a single text, i.e. if a research subject in an open-ended question answered using several sentences, repeating the same topic, its frequency did not change.

The **Self-perceived Communication Competence** (SPCC) standardised test was analysed using the manual provided by the authors of the test (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988, 2013). The values in four basic communication contexts (public speaking, talking in a large meeting, talking in a small group, talking in a dyad) and in three types of receivers (strangers, acquaintances, friends) were counted, alongside the total SPCC score. The data from the SPCC test were only used when the research subject completed both sets, i.e. at the beginning and at the end of the school year. Isolated data, i.e. data from only a single set, were not subjected to the analysis.

The SPCC test uses a number of scores (0-100) that is higher than the total number of research participants (55). This is why the collected data were grouped into intervals of 10 points each, with the aim of improving the comprehensibility of data and their further interpretation. The graphs are available for each communication context (4 graphs) and type of receiver (3 graphs), as well as for the total SPCC score (1 graph). There are two sets of graphs, each visualising the data in a different way.

The first graph in the pair shows the comparison of the distribution of members among individual absolute frequency groups, as demonstrated in September as opposed to June data collection. The data were grouped by absolute scores as distributed on the scale, with each frequency group representing 10 points (i.e. all scores ranging from 10 to 19 were grouped together, etc.).

To provide an example, the following scores would be distributed as follows:

- scores: 55, 62, 67, 75, 75, 77, 91
- absolute frequency groups:
 - o 0-9 – 0 members
 - o 10-19 – 0 members
 - o 20-29 – 0 members
 - o 30-39 – 0 members
 - o 40-49 – 0 members
 - o 50-59 – 1 member
 - o 60-69 – 2 members
 - o 70-79 – 3 members
 - o 80-89 – 0 members
 - o 90-100 – 1 member

The second graph in the pair shows the changes in the development of SPCC scores, with the data grouped according to their incremental frequency. The horizontal axis is again divided according to frequency groups. This time, the number of members of the frequency group is put together by adding the number of members in the absolute frequency group to the number of members of the previous group.

Coming back to the previous example, the second graph groups the data in the following way:

- scores: 55, 62, 67, 75, 75, 77, 91
- incremental frequency groups:
 - o 0-9 – 0 members
 - o 0-19 – 0 members
 - o 0-29 – 0 members
 - o 0-39 – 0 members
 - o 0-49 – 0 members
 - o 0-59 – 1 member (1 member of the absolute frequency group)
 - o 0-69 – 3 members (2 members of the absolute frequency group + 1 member of the previous group)

- 0-79 – 6 members (3 members of the absolute frequency group + 3 members of the previous group)
- 0-89 – 6 members (0 members of the absolute frequency group + 6 members of the previous group)
- 0-100 – 7 members (1 members of the absolute frequency group + 6 members of the previous group)

This way, we can see the dynamics of the development of SPCC scores. The earlier (the more left on the horizontal line) the curve begins to rise, the higher number of research subjects displays a lower SPCC score. The later (the righter on the horizontal line) the curve begins to rise, the higher number of research subjects displays a higher SPCC score.

This way, the graph demonstrates changes in the distribution of scores. The further away the two curves (representing September and June data collection) are from each other on the horizontal axis, the bigger the rise in the SPCC scores; similarly, the closer the curves are, the smaller the rise in the SPCC scores. If the curves have identical development, then there is no change in the SPCC scores between the two sets.

7.6 Research Limitations

There are a number of research limitations in this study. Many of them are inherent to the nature of action research (cf. McKernan, 1988), while others are connected with the educational situation under scrutiny.

The first research limitation, one most typically associated with qualitative research, is the limited possibility of generalisation of the study. Even though the study features a complete research sample, the number of participants is limited, and it is thus not possible to transfer research findings onto other situations and context. Nevertheless, in action research, the focus is on the single unit, not on the whole educational reality. The aim is to improve a specific educational situation or context, and to critically evaluate curriculum and its implementation, not to produce generalizable statements or theories.

For the same reason, a control group was not included in the given research. We were only interested in looking for a means of integration of the global simulation method and the influence it has on the participants. Nevertheless, should a follow-up study be conducted, including a control group would certainly produce more detailed data and would better validate research results.

Another limitation of the study is connected to the definition of research questions and its relation to the development of foreign language competence. The original intention of the researcher was to follow also the development of general linguistic competence in English. Nevertheless, having studied academic literature, as well as having conducted a preliminary investigation in the introductory stage of the research, it proved impossible to pinpoint and control variables present in the development of general linguistic competence. The individual research groups in the main stage consisted of students of different age, educational and socio-cultural background, etc. It was impossible to limit the extensive variation in the ways students interact with the language outside the school classroom (hobbies and afterschool activities, language courses, etc.). Furthermore, in case of schools 2 and 3 and partially school 1, it was not possible to influence the study year of students present in the seminar as this was done by the school management. That is why, based on the introductory investigation, we decided to devote our attention purely to the study of SPCC, which seemed to be best facilitated by the global simulation method that has debating and presentation, i.e. modes of communication that directly influence SPCC, at its core.

A further limitation, again connected directly to the nature of action research, is the fact that the teacher is at the same time the researcher. Had another researcher been present in the classes, much more observant data would have been collected and research findings extended.

A final limitation is the limited amount of data collected in the research, as well as a limited number of collection techniques. It can be argued that more data could have been collected and analysed or that the nature of open-ended questions is too subjective. Nevertheless, data collection methods were selected after a careful and realistic consideration of the time available for their analysis. As Elliott (1991, p. 83) puts it, “it is no good collecting more evidence than one can afford to process and reflect about”. The selection of data collection methods was thus based on the criteria of “containable time”.

8 Results

The given chapter is divided into 3 sections, corresponding to the three research stages – introductory stage, main stage, and follow-up stage. The main stage is further sub-divided into two action research cycles, i.e. the research has 4 research cycles in total. Each of the sections introduces the data collected in the data collection phase, alongside an account of the reflection and planning / revision phases.

Stage and research cycle	Phase	Section in the Results chapter
Introductory stage		
Cycle 1	1 – Starting points	
	2 – Data collection	8.1.1, 8.1.2
	3 – Reflection and evaluation	8.1.3
	4 – Planning	
Main stage		
Cycle 2	5 – Trial	
	6 – Data collection	8.2.1.1, 8.2.1.2, 8.2.1.3, 8.2.1.4
	7 – Reflection and evaluation	8.2.1.4, 8.2.1.5
	8 – Revision	8.2.1.5
Cycle 3	9 – Action	
	10 – Data collection	8.2.2.1, 8.2.2.2, 8.2.2.3, 8.2.2.4
	11 – Reflection and evaluation	8.2.2.5
	12 – Revision	8.2.2.5, 8.2.3
Follow-up stage		
Cycle 4	13 – Presentation and discussion	8.3.1
	14 – Reflection	8.3.2
	15 – Revision	
	16 – Presentation	

Table 7 – Overview of the Results chapter

8.1 Introductory Stage – Research Cycle 1

In order to investigate the potential of the global simulation method, a pilot study was conducted. It aimed at finding out what kinds of students are drawn to the global simulation method, what their motivation for taking part in the MUN simulation is, and what they gain from participation. The pilot research was conducted among PRAMUN 2012 delegates. MUN directors, i.e. teachers both preparing the students for the conference and accompanying them there, were also asked about their personal and professional profile, school profile, and the nature of MUN preparation at their respective schools.

8.1.1 Students-delegates (phase 2)

The questionnaire return was 198, out of the total 226 participants. For the majority of participants, PRAMUN 2012 was their first MUN experience (70%). A significant number of participants have also taken part once (32, i.e. 16%) or twice (19, i.e. 10%) before. Only 8 participants took part in a MUN three or more times before (a total of 4%).

Motivation for MUN participation

As can be seen from Table 8 below, in general, intrinsic motivation is slightly more important for MUN participation than extrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, when studied separately intrinsic motivation of the SE type (self-exploration) is by far the most important one, with most participants agreeing with the statements (N.B. especially the significant score of 4,15 by Czech in SE2). What seems to be just slightly less motivating is the social contact. Note also the fact that even though students find the MUN experience challenging, at the same time they believe it is a fun place to be.

	Statement “I took part in MUN ...”	Cz (n=26)	EU (n=11)	Am (n=84)	Total (n=198)	Cz ranking	Total ranking
I: AL	...because I genuinely want to help others (AL1)	3,08	3,46	3,46	3,5	7 th	7 th
	...because I want to help solve society's problems (AL2)	3,5	3,55	3,79	3,74	6 th	5 th
	average – both AL statements	3,29	3,51	3,63	3,62		
I: SE	...because I want to explore new ideas (SE1)	3,88	3,73	3,81	3,88	3 rd	3 rd
	...for my personal growth and development (SE2)	4,15	3,73	3,99	3,99	1 st	1 st
	average – both SE statements	4,02	3,73	3,9	3,94		
total average – intrinsic		3,78					
E: CQ	...to gain valuable skills for my career (CQ1)	3,73	3,73	3,63	3,74	4 th	5 th
	...so I can get a better job (CQ2)	3,08	2,82	3,32	3,14	7 th	8 th
	average – both CQ statements	3,41	3,28	3,48	3,44		

E: SO	...because it's a fun place to be (SO1)	3,73	3,91	3,85	3,83	4 th	4 th
	...because it's a great place to meet new people (SO2)	4,08	3,64	3,88	3,98	2 nd	2 nd
	average – both SO statements	3,91	3,78	3,87	3,91		
total average – extrinsic		3,68					

Table 8 – Motivation for taking part in MUN (PRAMUN 2012)

Abbreviations: Cz = Czech; EU = EU nationalities excluding Cz; Am = American; I = intrinsic; AL = altruism, SE = self-exploration; E = extrinsic; CQ = career and qualifications, SO = social enjoyment. NB: In the actual questionnaire, statements were shuffled.

General impact of MUN experience on participants

Table 9 below shows that MUN has the capacity of attracting students' attention to global issues (score 4,24) and developing their multicultural understanding (score 4,11), even though Czech students score slightly lower. At the same time, the MUN experience does not motivate them for political or civic involvement (contradicting Andolina 2003), at least at the time of their upper-secondary school studies (in Andolina's study, the target age was 15-25).

As can be seen in the last two columns of the table, Czechs differ in terms of their motivation from foreign students. The MUN participation has e.g. more impact on Czech students' motivation to study abroad and to study foreign languages. On the other hand, the experience does not motivate Czechs to be more attentive to news, contrary to foreign students.

statement	Cz	EU	Am	Total	Cz	Total
“Taking part in MUN ...”	(n=26)	(n=11)	(n=84)	(n=198)	ranking	ranking
...has made me think more about global problems and issues.	3,73	4,64	4,36	4,24	2 nd	1 st
...has made me more attentive to news about politics and government.	3,27	4,09	4,13	3,9	8 th	3 rd
...has motivated me to get engaged in community and / or volunteer work.	2,81	3,64	3,25	3,24	9 th	9 th
...has motivated me to get engaged in politics in the future.	2,65	3,55	3,42	3,21	10 th	10 th
...has provided me with extended knowledge and better understanding of foreign countries and cultures.	3,77	4,18	4,3	4,11	1 st	2 nd
...has helped me see the world as others see it.	3,31	4,09	3,98	3,78	6 th	5 th
...has helped me improve my own learning.	3,31	4	3,99	3,83	6 th	4 th
...has motivated me to study foreign languages.	3,62	3,45	3,29	3,28	4 th	8 th
...has motivated me to study abroad.	3,65	3,73	3,7	3,62	3 rd	6 th
...will have an effect on my choice of studies and / or job in the future.	3,38	3,31	3,45	3,5	5 th	7 th

Table 9 – General impact of MUN experience on participants (PRAMUN 2012)

Linguistic impact of MUN experience

Table 10 below demonstrates that the non-native speakers have, on the whole, improved their linguistic skills, in particular discussion and communication skills. They also feel improvement in their self-confidence in English.

While Czechs feel that the most significant gain is the development of individual speaking skills and presentation skills, the ranking is not as high for non-native speakers of other nationalities. The second most important impact as selected by Czech speakers is the development of discussion and general communication skills. Based on these results we argue that the MUN participation has the capacity to positively influence the self-perceived communication competence.

statement	Cz (n=26)	Other (n=64)	total (n=90)	Cz ranking	Total ranking
“Taking part in MUN ...”					
...has improved my individual speaking / presentation skills in English.	3,85	3,63	3,69	1st	4th
...has improved my discussion / communication skills in English.	3,81	3,83	3,82	2nd	1st
...has improved my comprehension (reading and listening) skills in English.	3,42	3,44	3,43	5th	5th
...has helped me broaden my vocabulary in English.	3,69	3,7	3,7	3rd	3rd
...has helped me improve my general self-confidence in English.	3,62	3,75	3,71	4th	2nd

Table 10 – Linguistic impact of MUN experience on participants – speakers of English as second or foreign language (PRAMUN 2012)

Selected statements from questionnaires

Below is a selection of statements demonstrating the impact of the MUN activity on its participants. In the questionnaire, the research subjects were to comment on their MUN participation.

- *MUN is an excellent opportunity to encounter many different perspectives and opinions. The problems of today's world are large ones and ones that the youth of today must be aware of.* (female, American, 17)
- *This program has motivated me to more than ever study abroad and develop my confidence in speaking with others.* (female, American, 17)
- *I think that MUN, especially PRAMUN, presents a great opportunity for people to stop complaining about problems in the world and attempt to solve them, even though we don't actually solve the problem for real... it's still pretty cool.* (female, American, 14)
- *Taking part in MUN has furthered my understanding of world issues. I greatly enjoyed the entire experience.* (male, American, 17)

- *MUN raises awareness and gives hope for a better future.* (female, mixed-nationality, 16)
- *I really look in the news and pay attention to global events and conflicts because of MUN.* (female, Indian, 14)
- *This has been an amazing opportunity to develop as a person and learn so much about the world. I only wish I could have done this sooner!* (male, Hispanic, 17)
- *Before coming to MUN I had a good knowledge of the world around me but now I have an even greater grasp of the world!* (female, American, 17)
- *I think MUN is a great experience to go out and be a representative of country which might have a different point of view than you.* (male, Dutch, 14)
- *I was already very interested in foreign relations but now I am even more so.* (male, Russian, 16)

Regarding foreign language competence, the following comments were especially significant:

- *MUN has helped me have more self-confidence and realize that it's okay to make mistakes when doing something like public speaking.* (female, Kazakh, 15)
- *After attending THIMUN for two years I've found MUN to not only have a drastic effect on my speaking ability but my view and appreciation of the international community.* (male, mixed-nationality, 17)
- *PRAMUN has been an amazing opportunity to improve my debating skills in English.* (female, mixed-nationality, 18)

8.1.2 Teachers-MUN Directors (phase 2)

6 teachers-MUN directors, out of the total 9, handed in their questionnaires. The questionnaires aimed at finding answers to two main questions: How is the MUN preparation organised in their respective school, and what impact does MUN participation have on their students.

MUN preparation

In most cases, the MUN preparation is conducted by means of an extracurricular class, taking place once or twice a week over the course of ca. 15 weeks (September-December), each session lasting 90 minutes. Teachers often use *a variety of materials collected from different sources* and/or make use of websites of big MUNs and other internet sources; some teachers create their own websites where both them and the students upload materials. Some of the teachers work on their own, others cooperate with colleagues or even with other schools. When asked about the percentage of students attending the MUN, the answers varied from 3% up to 20% of the total number of students in the respective schools.

Impact of participation on students

Directors mentioned various assets of the MUN global simulation:

- *developing greater understanding of the world and varied cultures*
- *development of critical thinking, problem solving, listening, public speaking and research skills*
- *exploring global issues from a different perspective (cf. I think MUN is by far the best way to integrate contemporary issues.)*
- *developing leadership, responsibility*
- *great college preparation*

Directors also pointed out the value of personal experience of meeting other young people from foreign countries and cultures, e.g. *I can't think of a short-term opportunity that does as much for bringing the world along to a better place.*

When listing drawbacks, many teachers mentioned student nervousity. Next, the lack of facilities and materials for MUN preparation were listed.

Other simulations attended by the MUN directors included International Student Leadership Conference and Model United States Congress in which some had participated themselves as delegates. Moreover, directors mentioned using debates and simulations in their own classes.

When asked about their personal motivation for taking part in MUN, various reasons were mentioned: directors find their participation *energizing, motivating, or enjoyable.*

8.1.3 Reflection and planning (phases 3 and 4)

The introductory research stage, the PRAMUN 2012 pilot study, rendered some interesting findings which helped to provide the answer to the main research question, worded as follows:

What is a suitable method for the integration of the ETEGC CCS into upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes with respect to the nature of the subject as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?

The study confirmed the fact that the MUN global simulation method is a perspective educational activity and a positive learning experience.

First, both students-participants and teachers-MUN directors preparing students for MUN participation agreed that MUN has the ability to develop students' global knowledge and attitudes and draws their attention to global issues. A MUN conference is also seen as a place to develop internal motivation, support personal growth and explore new ideas.

Furthermore, in terms of foreign language development, MUN seems to have the capacity to develop communicative competence in a foreign language. The non-native speakers have, on the whole, reported improvement of their linguistic skills, in particular discussion skills. They can also see an improvement in their self-perceived confidence in English, even though the change is not as significant. The given pilot study, nevertheless, only investigated the

situation at the time of the conference and as such the specific impact of the activity in terms of development of specific skills could not be measured.

Last but not least, MUN also seems to spark motivation for the study of foreign languages and for studying abroad among Czech students. Therefore, it seems suitable for the Czech educational context.

Having answered the research question, it was re-worded as follows: **How should the global simulation method be effectively integrated in the upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes, while meeting the characteristics of the ETEGC CCS as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?**

In order to answer the given question, the teaching model of the MUN subject was developed. The conception was developed based on the study of academic literature and examples of good practice from abroad, with the help of the results of the pilot study. Furthermore, it made use of some of the pilot study results, in particular reflecting the problematic areas of MUNs, namely demands on speaker confidence and debating skills, and the lack of support materials. The developed conception was then subjected to three cycles of action research during the main and follow-up stages of the research.

8.2 Main stage

The main stage of the action research consisted of two research cycles. The first cycle (cycle 2) involved one research group – group A at school 1, while the second cycle (cycle 3) involved all other research groups, i.e. B, C, and D from school 1, group E from school 2, and group F from school 3. For a more detailed overview of the individual research groups, see section 7.3.

8.2.1 Research cycle 2 – group A

8.2.1.1 Set 1 – Motivation and expectations (phase 6)

The research in the first school year of the main research stage started with one group of research subjects. At the beginning of our work, the students were encouraged to think about their main motivation and reasons for wanting to participate in the MUN seminar. The motivation was discussed both in class, i.e. orally, as well as written down by the students.

The predominant reason for participating in the MUN seminar was the development of the English language. Out of the total 21 students, 15 listed this as the most important reason for participation. Another reason that featured significantly (12) was the hope for the reduction of stress and anxiety when speaking publicly in English; many claimed that they were afraid to speak in English because they thought their English was not good enough and they wanted to improve it. When it comes to non-linguistic reasons, 8 students mentioned interest in global issues and international politics as a motivating factor. One third was also looking for an “interesting and fun” activity.

Interestingly enough, the “objective” competence in English as a Foreign Language was quite high in the research group, with most students being at a B1+ or B2 level of the CEFR, with the exception of 2 students, who were at B2+ level. This obvious contradiction directed the research in terms of English language competence at the self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) and the SPCC test was subsequently included in the set of data collection methods.

Consequently, the main research question was complemented by another question, resulting into two separate questions, namely:

2a) How should the global simulation method be effectively integrated in the upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes, while meeting the characteristics of the ETEGC CCS as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?

2b) How does the proposed teaching model of the MUN subject facilitate the development of communicative competence in English as a Foreign Language in upper-secondary school students?

8.2.1.2 Set 2 – Feedback (phase 6)

At the end of the school year, a feedback session was conducted and feedback questionnaires were handed out. The participants were asked to comment on the following areas:

- Which aspects of the global simulation / activities in the seminar were most beneficial and why?
- Which aspects of the global simulation / activities in the seminar were not beneficial and why? Which should be left out, if any?
- Which activities are missing and should be included?
- Should global simulation and discussion activities be included in regular lessons? Why?

When it comes to the most beneficial aspects of the global simulation, half the students commented on the fact that seminar participation helped them to improve their speaking skills in English. Almost all claimed that they improved in expressing their opinion and debating in English (*Debating was most beneficial.*). Many also liked the formal aspects of preparation for the simulation proper, the MUN conference (*Without the preparation, I wouldn't have been able to prepare on my own. We did the preparation in the lesson and that helped us a lot, in my opinion.*). Some commented on the reduction of their anxiety (*You lose anxiety of talking to strangers.*). A few mentioned the practicality of the skills gained (*You can know goniometric functions perfectly, but if you are unable to defend your own opinion and to know how a democratic society works, you have no chance of being successful in today's world.*).

On the whole, many participants commented on the broadening of knowledge and horizons:

- *It surely helps you come out of your shell and present and discuss your opinions.*
- *It's always interesting to broaden your horizons and to learn about a different point of view.*
- *It helps you cultivate your discussion skills, and to defend not only your own ideas, but also ideas that you disagree with but that you have to represent.*

There was only one activity that a few participants found not beneficial, namely the country research, because *I could have done this at home where I can concentrate more.* A few students also said they would leave out the UN system presentations at the beginning of the course. The reasons were different, though. While one student claimed they were *too detailed*, another wrote that *they didn't provide any new information.*

When suggesting activities to be included, a few students said they would have appreciated more conference preparation: *At the beginning of the PRAMUN conference, I was lacking information about the procedure.* Another student voiced this even strongly: *I have the feeling that attending an MUN conference for the first time, you have no idea what to do.* (cf. paragraph on beneficial aspects).

When asked about the inclusion of the simulation method in regular classes, 90% of the students said this would be beneficial, the rest did not answer the question. Nevertheless, when commenting on their answer, many said such an inclusion would be really difficult:

- *I personally think that this is at least 1000x more useful than most things we do in normal classes. But I am not sure how realistic it is within the context of Czech educational system at Czech schools.*
- *Not all students are able to debate and to pay attention.*
- *I once participated in such an activity and the response was not too good, as only about a fourth of students participated and the debate was not very constructive. In my opinion, this is due to the fact that most students are not used to such activities.*

8.2.1.3 Set 1 and 2 – Self-perceived communication competence (phase 6)

As mentioned earlier, the results of the motivation questionnaire led to the inclusion of the SPCC questionnaire in the data collection instruments. Nevertheless, while working with group A we experienced a problem with SPCC questionnaire return rate. While the other sets were completed in class, the students were allowed to take the SPCC questionnaire home with them, and some did not bring it back. Some were absent during the June administration of the questionnaires. Moreover, three students left mid-way through the seminar. Due to this, only 7 completed sets, i.e. including data from both September and June, were collected. In the subsequent years, all questionnaires were completed in class.

As can be seen from the graphs below, there was a rise in the score of SPCC in all areas. In all aspects of SPCC, the data collected in June (black curve) demonstrate more subjects with a higher SPCC score than data collected in September (grey curve). Thus, we can assume that course participation had a positive effect on the SPCC score of research subjects.

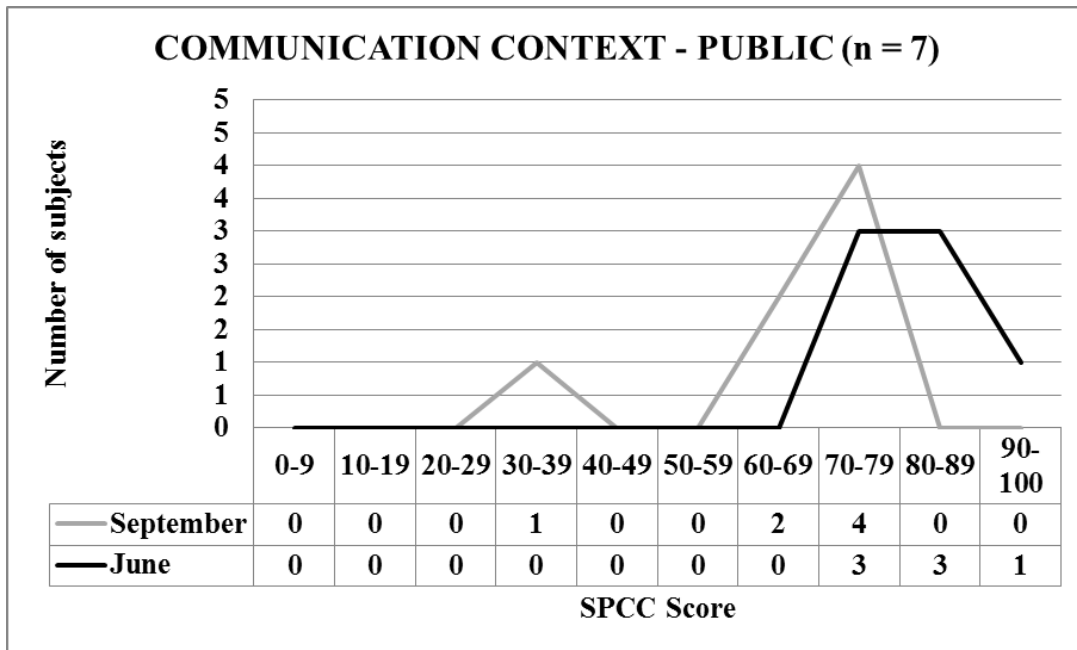
The biggest positive change that took place within the ‘communication contexts’ area was in the ‘Group’ context, with the improvement in median SPCC score by 14 points. In the ‘types of receivers’ area, the biggest positive change was in the ‘Acquaintance’ receiver, with the improvement in median SPCC score by 15 points. The total SPCC score also improved by 12 points (see Table 11).

	Difference in median score between September and June data collection
<u>Communication contexts</u>	
public	+11
meeting	+10
group	+14
dyad	+10

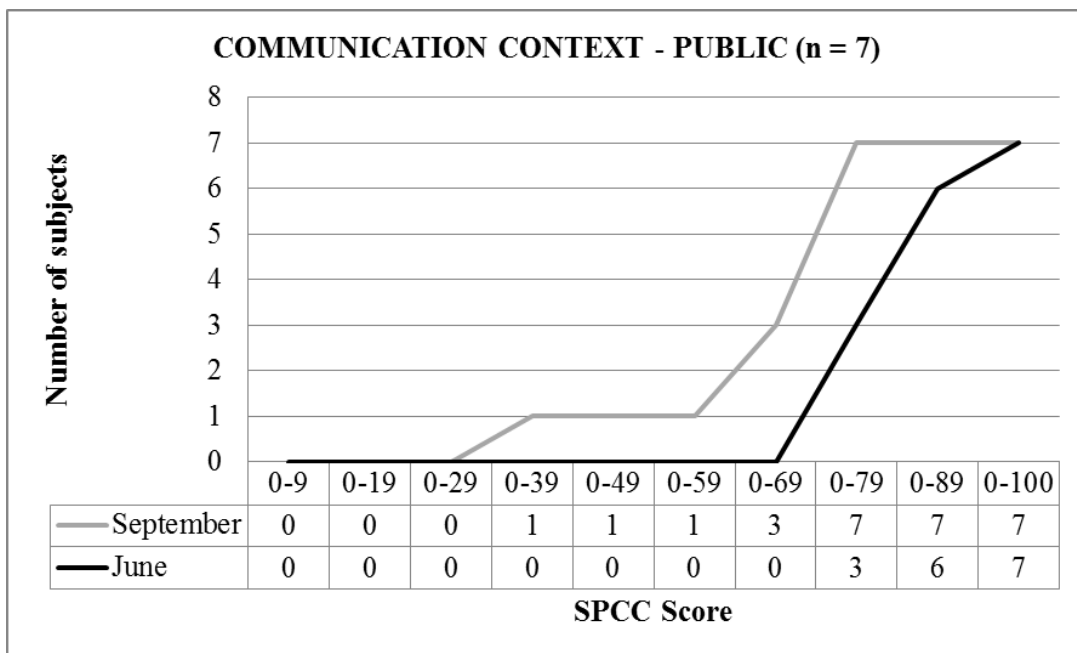
<u>Types of receivers</u>	
stranger	+9
acquaintance	+15
friend	+10
<u>Total SPCC Score</u>	+12

Table 11 – Differences in median scores – SPCC – Group A

Communication context – Public



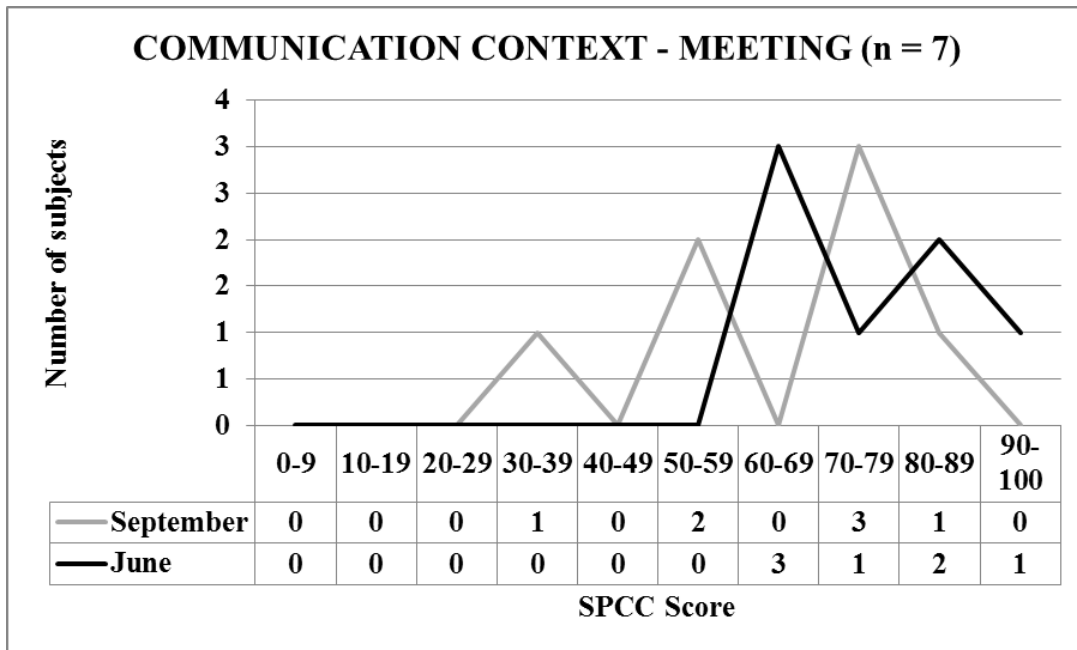
Graph 1 – SPCC – Public – absolute frequency – Group A



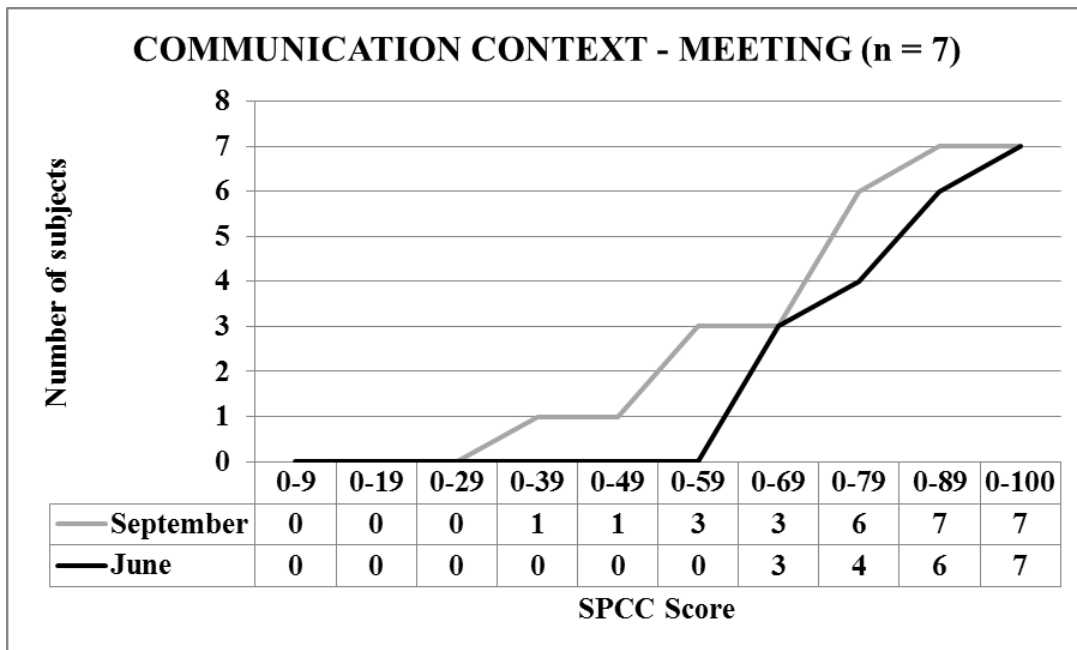
Graph 2 – SPCC – Public – incremental frequency – Group A

In the communication context – public, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 68 points, in the June collection, the median was 79. The improvement was by 11 points.

Communication context – Meeting



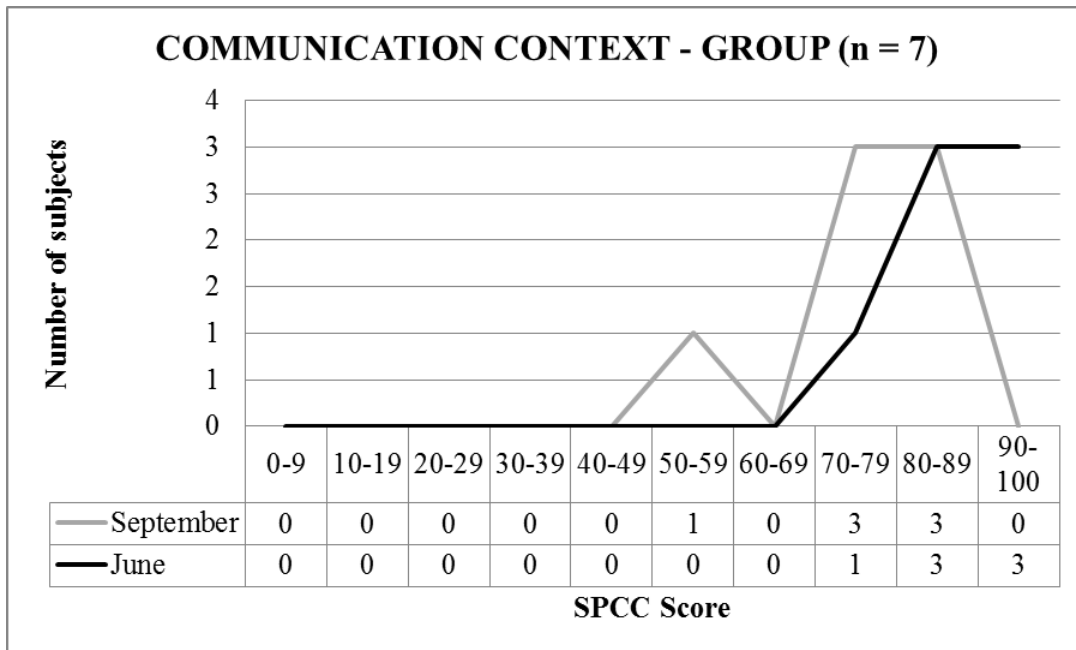
Graph 3 – SPCC – Meeting – absolute frequency – Group A



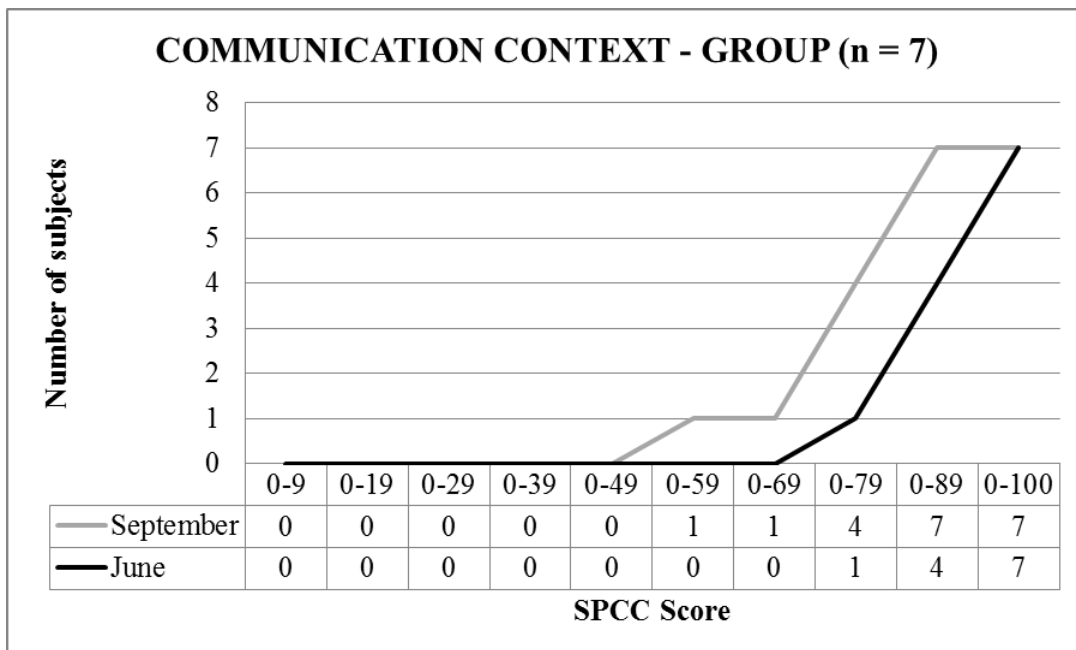
Graph 4 – SPCC – Meeting – incremental frequency – Group A

In the communication context – meeting, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 57 points, in the June collection, the median was 67. The improvement was by 10 points.

Communication context – Group



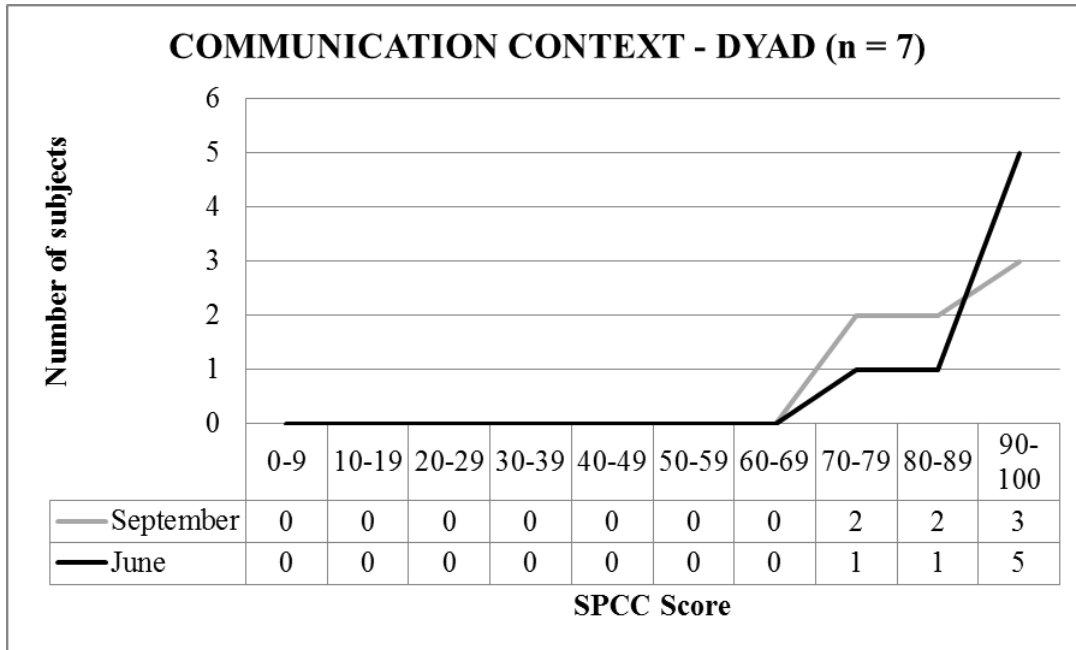
Graph 5 – SPCC – Group – absolute frequency – Group A



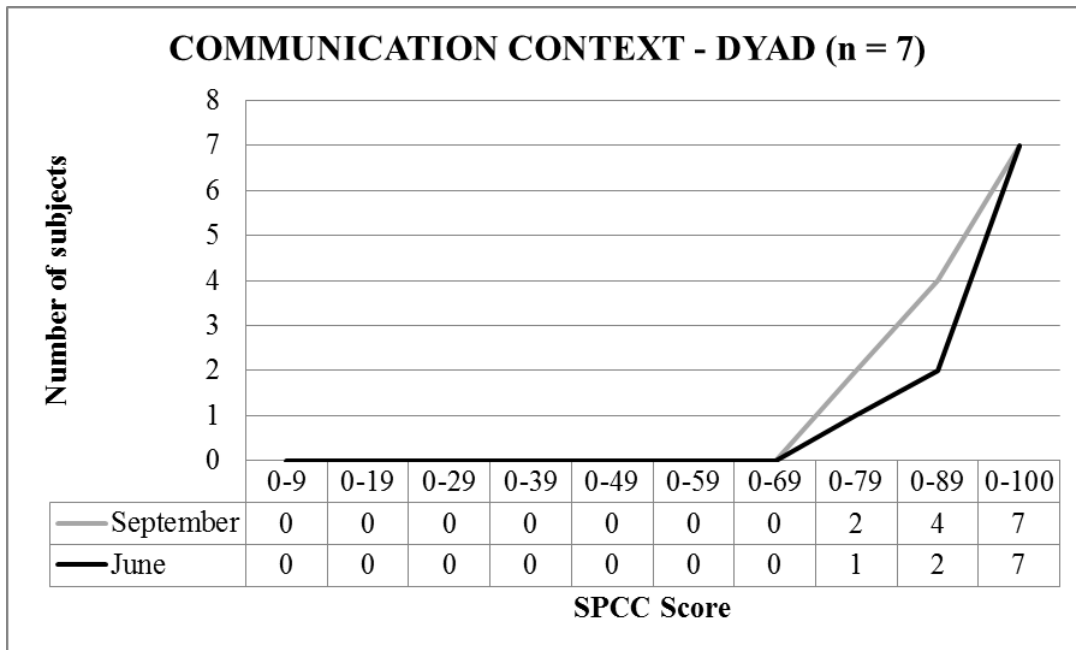
Graph 6 – SPCC – Group – incremental frequency – Group A

In the communication context – group, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 73 points, in the June collection, the median was 87. The improvement was by 14 points.

Communication context – Dyad



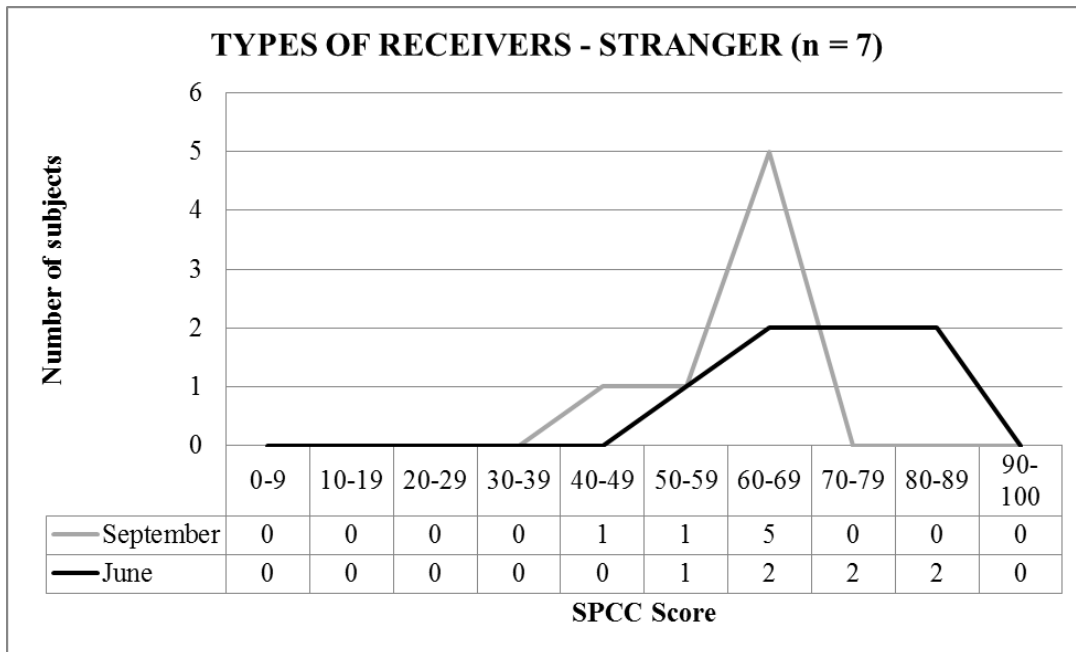
Graph 7 – SPCC – Dyad – absolute frequency – Group A



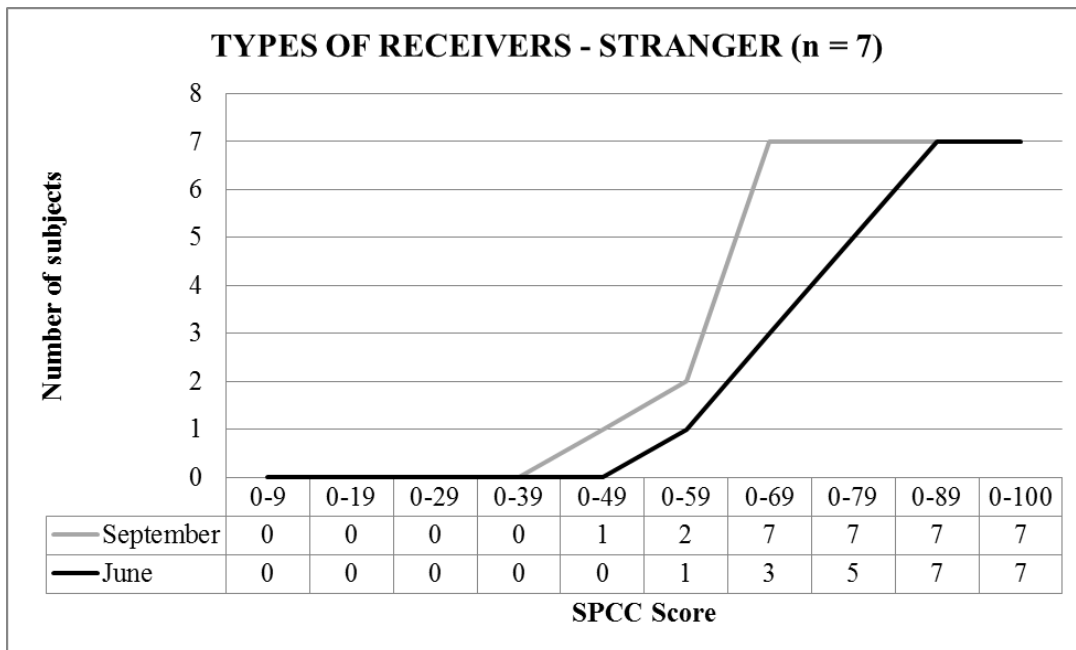
Graph 8 – SPCC – Dyad – incremental frequency – Group A

In the communication context – dyad, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 77 points, in the June collection, the median was 87. The improvement was by 10 points.

Type of receiver – Stranger



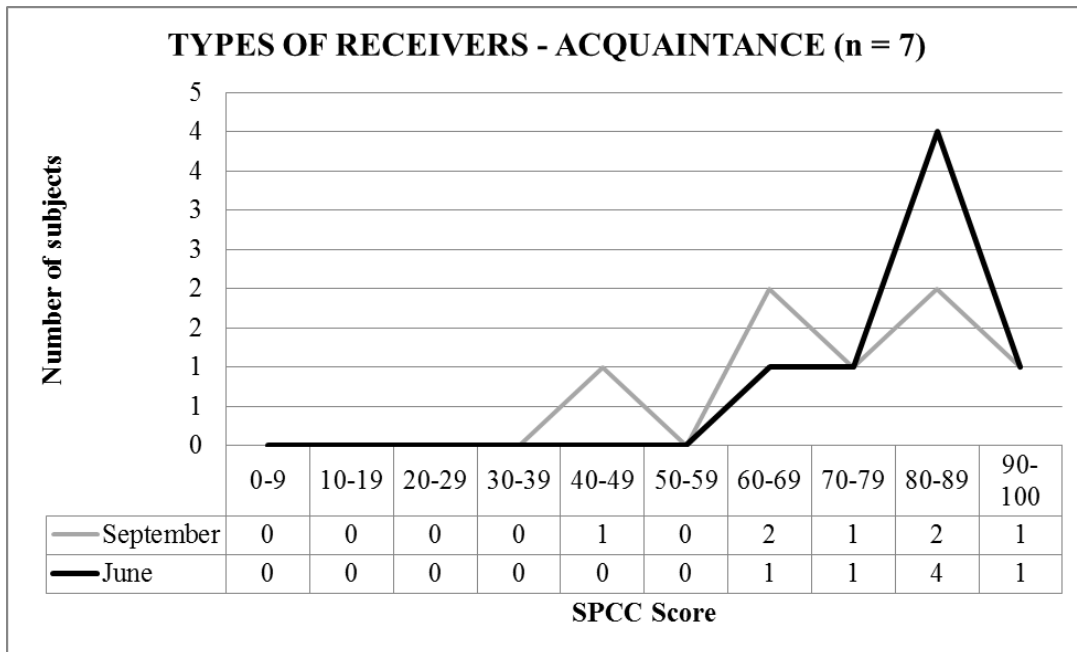
Graph 9 – SPCC – Stranger – absolute frequency – Group A



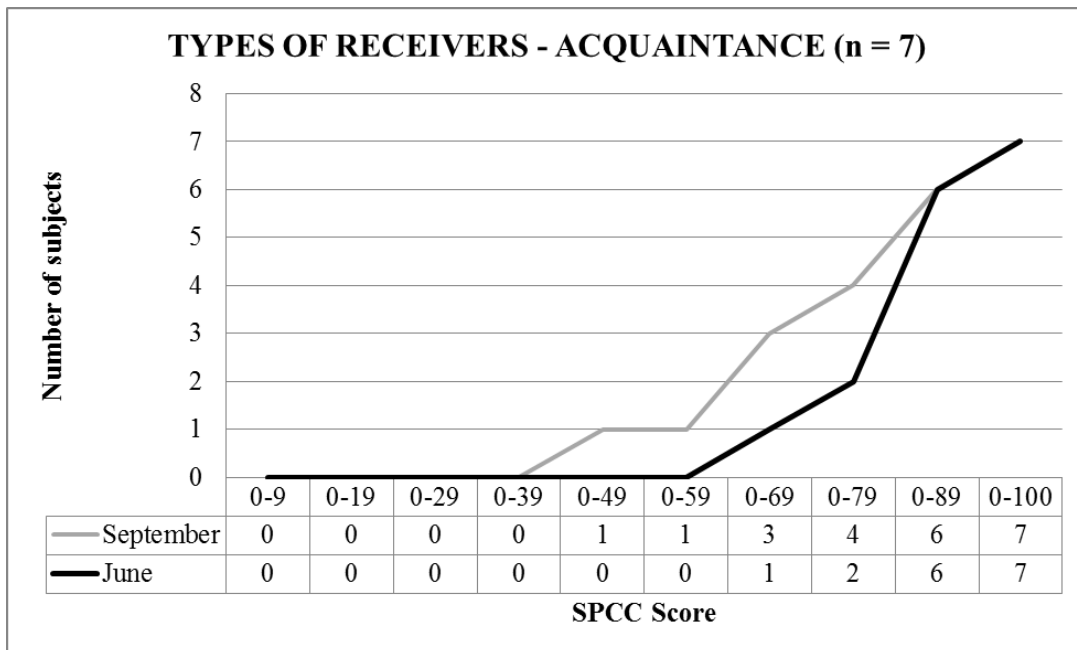
Graph 10 – SPCC – Stranger – incremental frequency – Group A

In the type of receiver – stranger, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 58 points, in the June collection, the median was 67. The improvement was by 9 points.

Type of receiver – Acquaintance



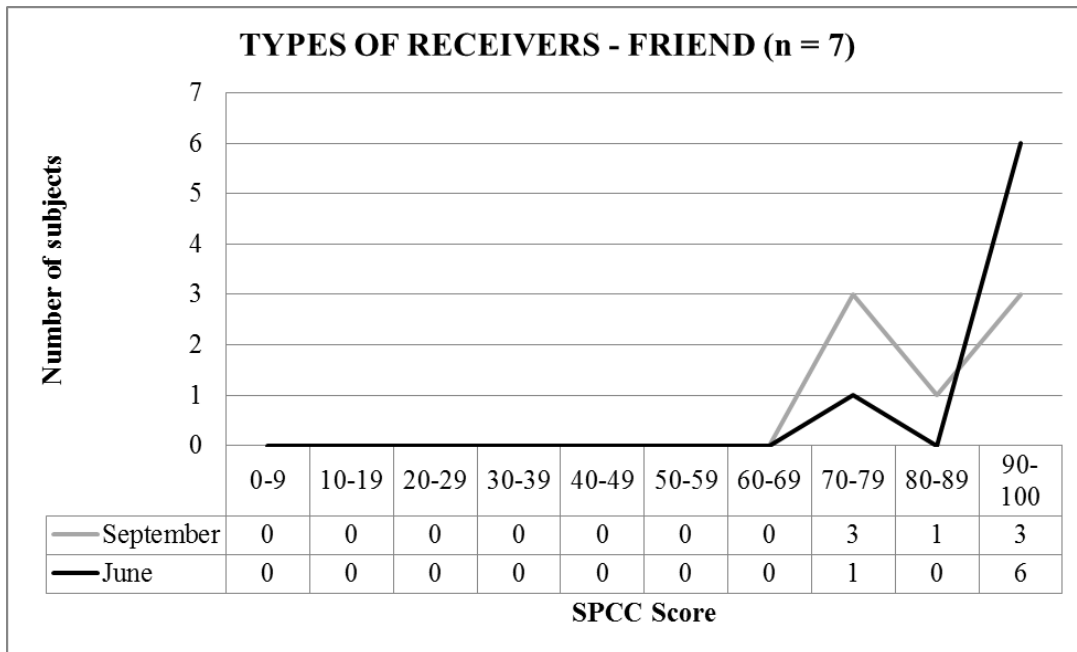
Graph 11 – SPCC – Acquaintance – absolute frequency – Group A



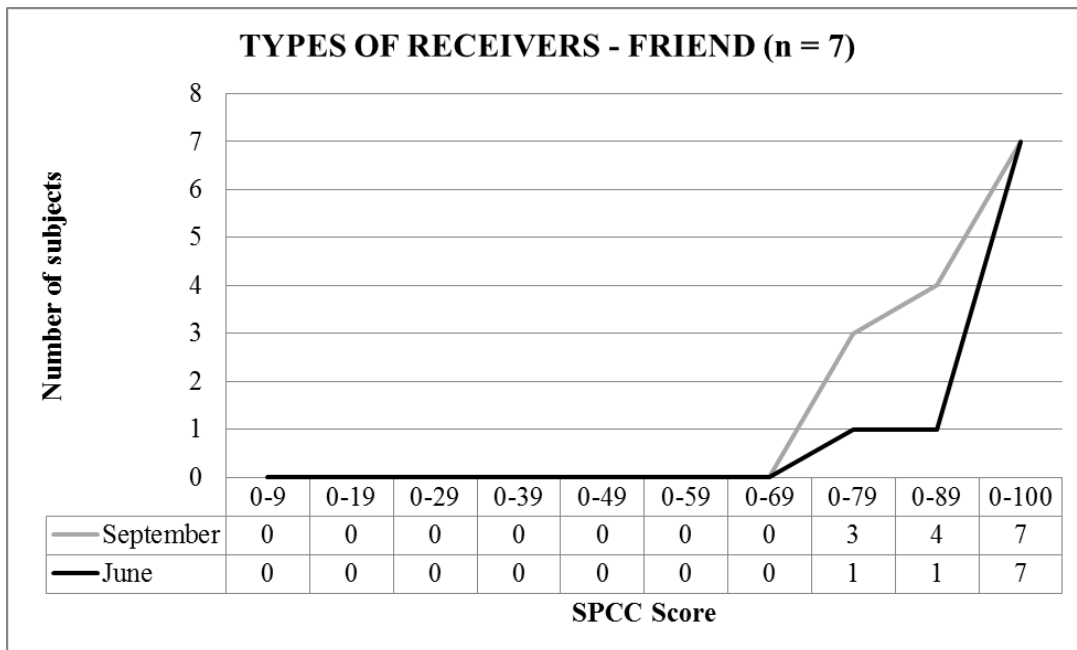
Graph 12 – SPCC – Acquaintance – incremental frequency – Group A

In the type of receiver – acquaintance, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 64 points, in the June collection, the median was 79. The improvement was by 15 points.

Type of receiver – Friend



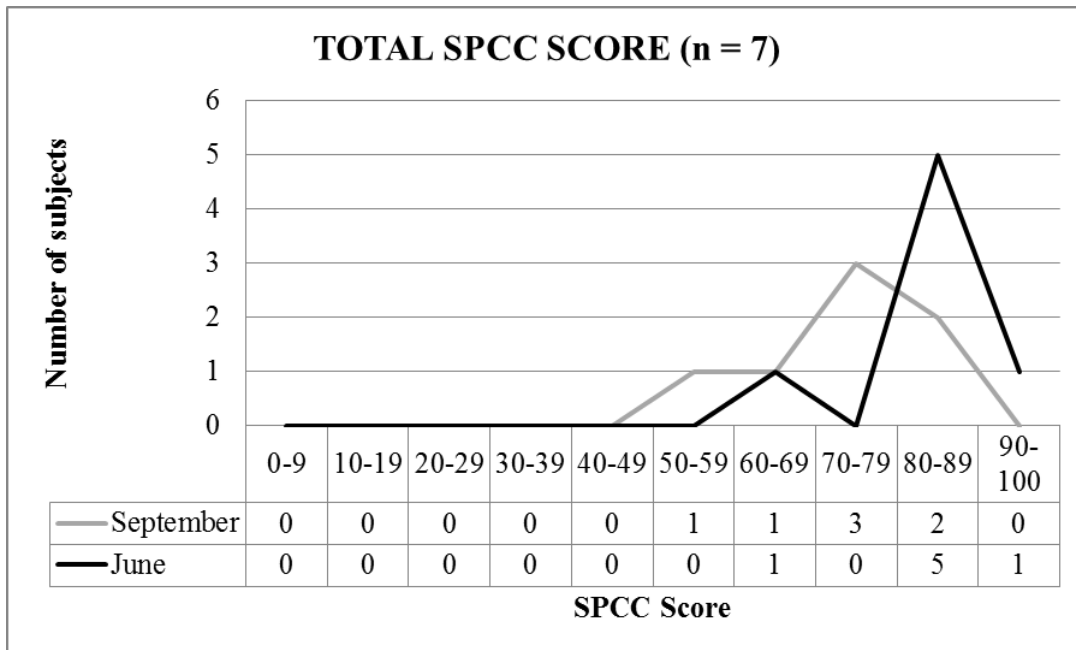
Graph 13 – SPCC – Friend – absolute frequency – Group A



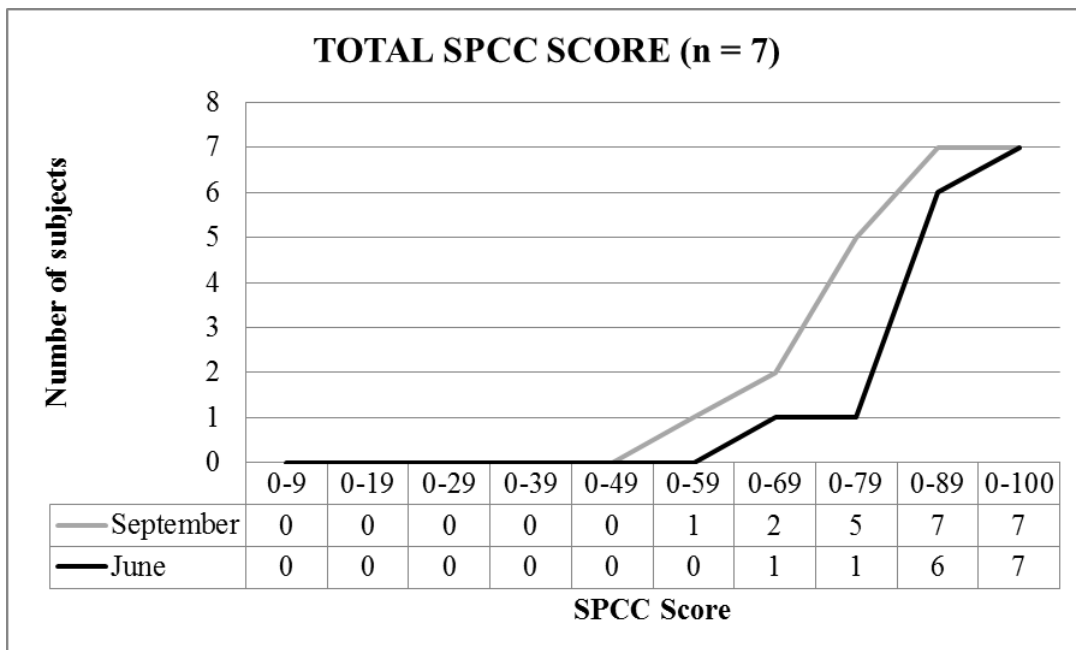
Graph 14 – SPCC – Friend – incremental frequency – Group A

In the type of receiver – friend, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 80 points, in the June collection, the median was 90. The improvement was by 10 points.

Total SPCC score



Graph 15 – SPCC – Total score – absolute frequency – Group A



Graph 16 – SPCC – Total score – incremental frequency – Group A

We can see improvement also in the total SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 69 points, in the June collection, the median was 81. The improvement was by 12 points.

8.2.1.4 Teacher reflection (phase 6)

During the course of the whole school year, the teacher made notes about the activities and techniques used in the course and their impact on the students. The most salient topics that came out were the following:

- **Providing feedback on individual performance** – in order to provide feedback on speaking performance or presentation, it is necessary to have a clear set of criteria that are adhered to when evaluating; it is best to include the students in providing the feedback to ensure their full attention
- **Gaining feedback on an activity**, be it one realised in class or on a MUN activity in the simulation proper stage – as some students are naturally more reluctant to voice their opinions, especially once another student said an opinion contradictory to theirs, what worked well was to ask the participants to first write their feedback down and only then share it orally, while sitting in a circle
- **Class dynamics** – it is necessary to establish rules for participation and behaviour prior to the beginning of activities, and to place them in a visible place so that they can be referred to whenever needed
- **Briefing stage of the simulation** – the activities have to be balanced; situation briefing, by some students perceived as tedious, must be followed by a practice activity

8.2.1.5 Evaluation and revision (phases 7 and 8)

The data collected during the first year of the main stage (cycle 2, research group A) were subjected to reflection and the overall teaching model, as well as the syllabus of the subject, were revised. Below is a summary of the main findings and aspects in which revision took place.

When discussing the motivation of students for participation in the seminar, it became clear that there was a discrepancy between the ‘objective’ level of communicative competence among the students (as indicated by levels of CEFR) and the ‘subjective’, self-perceived communication competence. Moreover, many students indicated that they had problems with speaking anxiety and felt as if they were incompetent when using the target language. That is why the research included the SPCC test, in order to trace any development in SPCC. Another type of motivation for participation was connected to the global simulation activity that interconnects debating on the one hand and global issues on the other. These findings were compared to the conclusions of the pilot study conducted in the introductory stage and showed that the motivation of the research groups were very similar.

The final feedback provided interesting data on the suitability of various activities and aspects of the global simulation method. The students felt that the seminar participation helped them to develop their speaking skills and reduce their speaking anxiety. This was confirmed by the

results of the SPCC test. Furthermore, the participants claimed they gained knowledge of global issues and international politics.

When listing activities they considered not very beneficial, they pointed out two aspects of the seminar – UN system presentations and country research. After careful consideration, we decided to keep the two activities as integral parts of the course, for several reasons. When it comes to the UN system presentations, a general UN knowledge is considered necessary for the understanding of how the organisation works, which is crucial for the organisation to be simulated. Next, the knowledge of the UN is in line with the requirements of the national curriculum. Finally, it is one of the first activities in which the students get a chance to individually present a topic they had previously researched in order to get feedback on their presentation skills.

Regarding country research, the unit was shortened down from two 90-min lessons to one lesson. In the revised syllabus, it is still conducted in class, with the help of PCs. As experience shows, students often need scaffolding when choosing the right sources of information, or when contacting an embassy. This is best done when the teacher is present during the self-study.

Some students noted that more preparation was needed. Indeed, during the first year, the seminar did not focus on parliamentary procedure and committee work specifically. Thus, even though the participants felt prepared in terms of their topics, they felt lost in the actual system of the debate. That is why two new units (currently unit 8 and 9) were developed and included in the syllabus.

Furthermore, based on the reflections made by the teacher during the lessons, the group rules activity was included in Unit 1 to help promote respect among group members. Furthermore, ideas for providing feedback and evaluation were added to the syllabus.

Finally, more interactive practice activities were included throughout the two subsequent years. To provide an example, the ‘mock trial’ activity, which is included as one of the optional interactive activities in the syllabus, was only included in the final year, but rendered positive feedback (see below).

8.2.2 Research cycle 3 – groups B, C, D, E, F

8.2.2.1 Set 1 – Motivation and expectations (phase 10)

Below is an overview of the different reasons for participation in the MUN seminar. The students answered an open-ended question as to why they are participating in the seminar.

As is clear from Table 12 below the prospect of improving English is by far the biggest motivation for participating in the MUN subject, with 75% of students mentioning this in their questionnaire. Other important reasons for taking part are the reduction of stress and anxiety when speaking, learning about global issues and politics, and meeting new people.

Reasons for taking part	Frequency (n = 71)	Ranking
English language learning	53	1 st
Learning about global issues, global politics, UN	28	2 nd
Reduction of stress	23	3 rd
Meeting new people	23	3 rd
Debating, discussions, expressing opinions	21	5 th
Enjoyment, fun	14	6 th
Preparation for conference	9	7 th
Trying out something new	6	8 th
Meeting foreigners	4	9 th
Preparation for job, CV	2	10 th
Travelling	1	11 th

Table 12 – Motivation for participation – Groups B, C, D, E, F

When asked specifically about English language skills, almost a half of research participants chose discussion skills as the most relevant area they would like to improve (see Table 13 below). The second most salient area was speaking confidence.

English skills – What is most important to you?	Frequency (n = 67)	Ranking
To improve my discussion skills	29	1 st
To improve my confidence when speaking with strangers	22	2 nd
To improve my presentation skills	8	3 rd
To broaden my vocabulary	5	4 th
To improve my listening and reading skills	3	5 th

Table 13 – Motivation – English skills – Groups B, C, D, E, F

8.2.2.2 Set 2 – Feedback (phase 10)

Beneficial aspects

In the feedback questionnaire, students were asked to express their opinions on a number of topics. The first open-ended question aimed to find out which activities the students consider most beneficial.

Beneficial aspects in the seminar	Frequency (n = 50)	Ranking
Debating, expressing opinion	43	1 st
English language learning	15	2 nd
Meeting new people, making friends	11	3 rd
Conference preparation	11	3 rd
Mock trial	11	3 rd
Meeting foreigners	11	3 rd
Broadening knowledge about global issues	9	7 th
Resolution / policy paper writing	7	8 th
Gaining new / interesting experience	3	9 th

Learning about current topics	2	10 th
Losing anxiety when speaking	2	10 th
Doing role play	2	10 th
Having fun	1	13 th
Videos about MUN	1	13 th

Table 14 – Beneficial aspects of the seminar – Groups B, C, D, E, F

The topics that emerged from the answers (Table 14) can be grouped as follows. The numbers found next to the major topics indicate their absolute frequency. Below them are listed minor topics.

- Debating, language learning, speaking anxiety – total 60
 - Debating, expressing opinion
 - English language learning
 - Losing anxiety when speaking
- Social aspect – total 23
 - Having fun
 - Meeting new people, making friends
 - Meeting foreigners
- Conference preparation – total 19
 - Conference preparation
 - Resolution / policy paper writing
 - Videos about MUN
- Practice activities – total 13
 - Doing role play
 - Mock trial
- Developing global knowledge – total 11
 - Learning about current topics
 - Broadening knowledge about global issues
- Other – 3
 - Gaining new / interesting experience

As can be seen from the overview, most participants found that the activities conducted in the seminar were useful in terms of general language development, debating skills, and losing public speaking anxiety:

- *Debates are the best way to learn to speak in front of people.*
- *I liked the debates on current topics. It's important to know what's happening in the world.*
- *When debating in groups, everybody has a chance to express their opinion.*
- *The debates helped me get rid of my anxiety of talking in front of strangers.*

Students also appreciated other innovative and interactive methods, namely mock trials:

- *Mock trial was something new. I think people liked preparing for it.*
- *Mock trials are wonderful! The best way to practice speaking in English as well as communicating in general.*

The social aspect of the participation proved to be quite important, too. On the other hand, knowledge of global issues did not seem very significant, with only 18% of students mentioning it.

Least beneficial or problematic activities

Students were also asked to express their opinion on which activities were least beneficial or problematic.

Least beneficial or problematic activities	Frequency (n = 50)	Ranking
quality of debates	6	1 st
presentations on the UN system	5	2 nd
worksheets not related to MUN problems	2	3 rd
mock trials	2	3 rd
resolution writing	1	4 th
completing questionnaires	1	4 th
group rules	1	4 th

Table 15 – Least beneficial or problematic activities – Groups B, C, D, E, F

The most prevalent problem was the quality of debates, mentioned by 12% of respondents. The complaints predominantly involved the fact that *when debating, we were sometimes running in circles*, or that there were participants who *disagreed with others ‘just to disagree’*. Another point of criticism were, as in the previous research cycle, presentations about UN organs. Nevertheless, it was not the topic as such, but rather the amount of information that was presented and its depth, which were found problematic, as demonstrated by the following quote: *As the topic is so complicated, I learnt little from the presentations. I would suggest finding a video (‘UN for dummies’) and watching it instead.*

Activities to be left out

Next, the students were asked about which activities they would leave out of the seminar.

Activities to be left out	Frequency (n = 50)	Ranking
Tests	3	1 st
role play	2	2 nd
arguing for position that is not mine	1	3 rd
presentations on the UN system	1	3 rd
videos – MUN	1	3 rd
mock trials – too many	1	3 rd
Homework	1	3 rd

Table 16 – Activities to be left out – Groups B, C, D, E, F

There were almost no activities that participants wanted to leave out – only three mentioned tests (for comments on testing, see section 8.2.2.5) and two mentioned role play activities.

Activities to be included

<u>Activities to be included</u>	Frequency (n = 50)	Ranking
more debates on serious topics	6	1 st
more conference preparation	3	2 nd
political situation – more on what's happening	3	2 nd
how to find information / research	3	2 nd
model of other UN bodies	2	3 rd
games practising vocabulary	1	4 th
more simulation games	1	4 th
discipline	1	4 th

Table 17 – Activities to be included – Groups B, C, D, E, F

Participants asked for more specialised debates on serious topics. They also asked for the debates to be *more moderated*. Furthermore, they believed the teacher’s task is to *assure that debates remain factual and arguments not opinionated, but factually based*.

Inclusion of the simulation method in regular classes

When asked about the inclusion of the simulation method in regular classes, 80% of the students said this would be beneficial, while 20% were of the contrary opinion. The reasons for inclusion included:

- *Students would learn to debate and know more about what is going on in the world.*
- *It makes you create your own opinion, not just dully copy something from a textbook.*
- *Nothing prepares us better for real-life situations than practising them.*
- *It’s always good for everyone to participate and for the class to be active.*

Some limitations pointed out by participants:

- *In regular classes, such activities should only be done by a teacher who would enjoy them.*
- *It would be too time-consuming and tiresome for the teacher.*
- *It is really demanding for the teacher.*
- *Such methods do not really fit into any of the current subjects.*
- *It’s only beneficial for those who are interested.*
- *It may be too demanding and not very effective with bigger classes.*

8.2.2.3 Set 1 and 2 – Self-perceived communication competence (phase 10)

As can be seen from the graphs below, there was a rise in the score of SPCC in all areas. In all aspects of SPCC, the data collected in June (black curve) demonstrate more subjects with a higher SPCC score than data collected in September (grey curve). Thus, we can assume that course participation had a positive effect on the SPCC score of research subjects.

The biggest positive change that took place within the ‘communication contexts’ area was in the ‘Public’ context, with the improvement in median SPCC score by 19 points, and the ‘Meeting’ context, with the improvement in median SPCC score by 20 points. In the ‘types of receivers’ area, the biggest positive change was in the ‘Stranger’ receiver, with the improvement in median SPCC score by 23 points. The total SPCC score also improved by 17 points

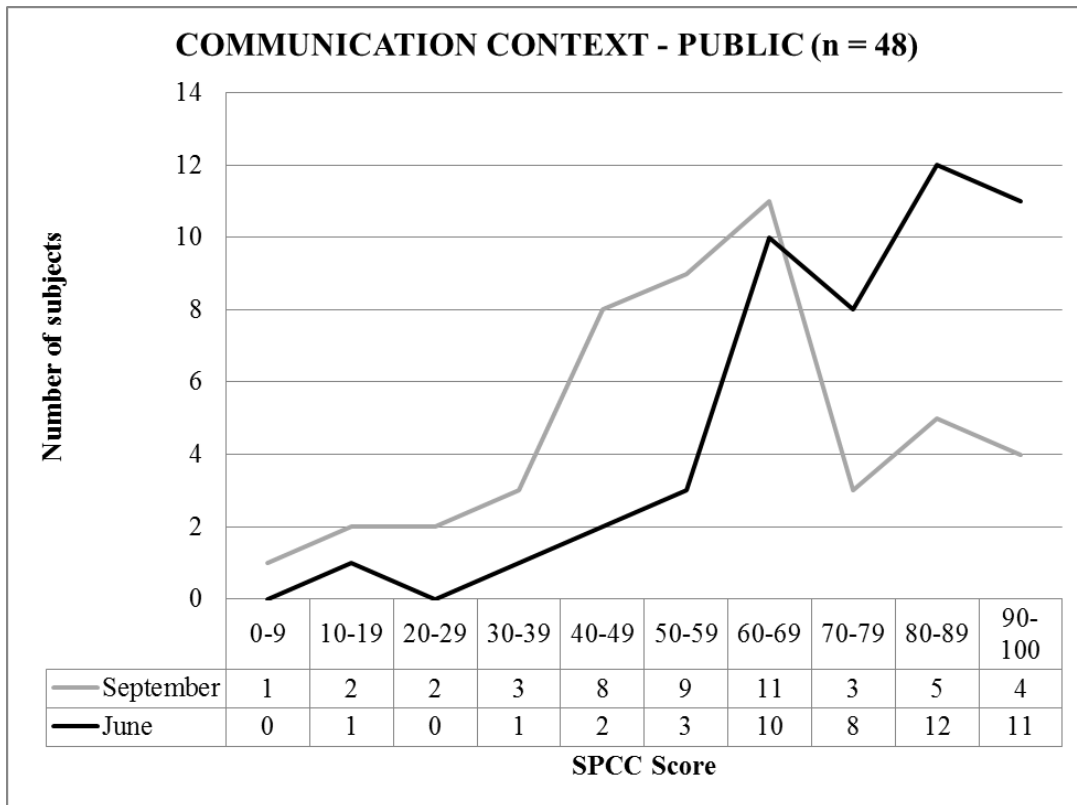
These data somewhat differ from those collected in research cycle 2. This can be explained by the low number of research subjects (7) in the second cycle which may have distorted the median. As there was a significantly higher number of subjects in cycle 3 (48), we base the conclusions on the findings from the third research cycle.

Looking at the differences in median scores (Table 18), it is clear that the biggest positive changes took place in areas which are connected with the public domain. The MUN global simulation imitates precisely this domain, as it is quite formal and students are expected to speak in public and in meetings, and to talk to strangers.

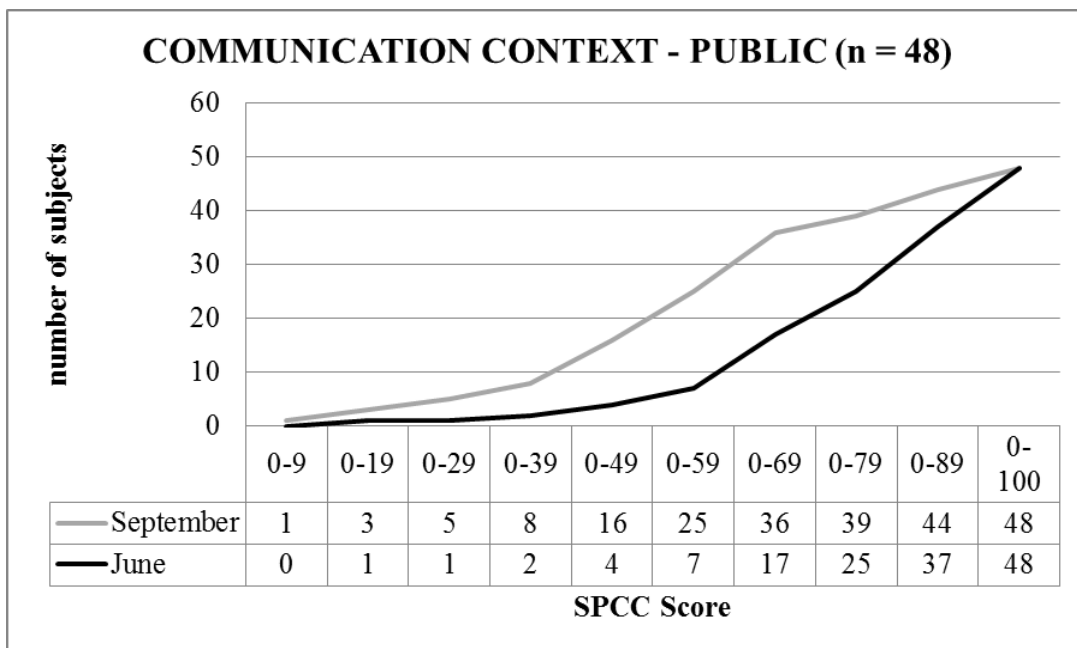
	Difference in median score between September and June data collection
Communication contexts	
Public	+19
Meeting	+20
Group	+13
Dyad	+9
Types of receivers	
Stranger	+23
Acquaintance	+12
Friend	+9
Total SPCC Score	+17

Table 18 – Differences in median scores – SPCC – Groups B, C, D, E, F

Communication context – Public



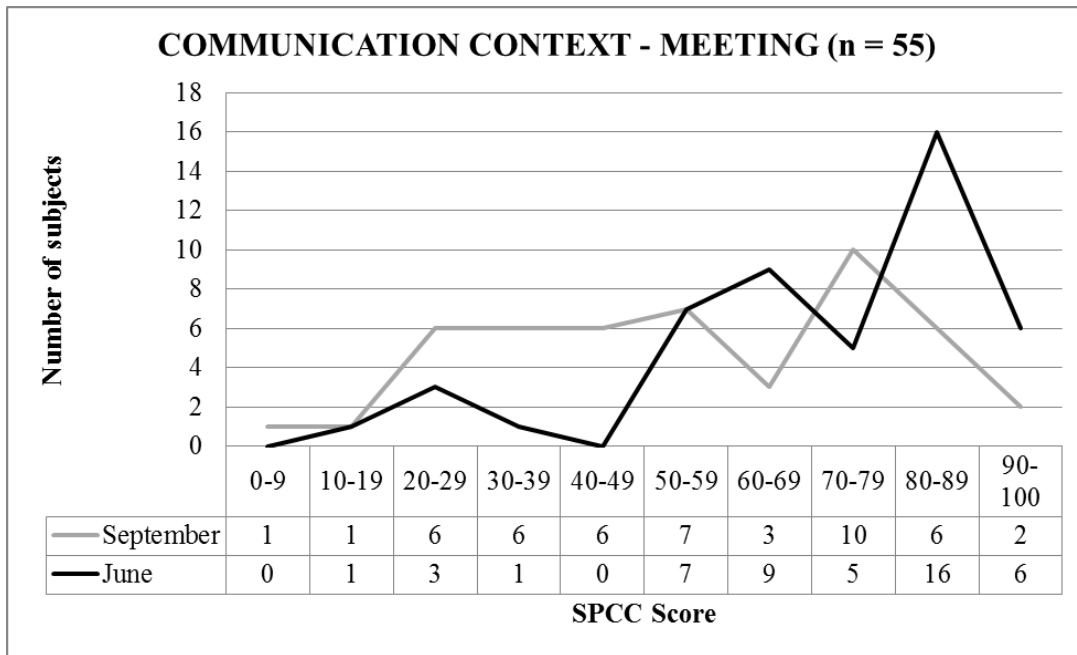
Graph 17 – SPCC – Public – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



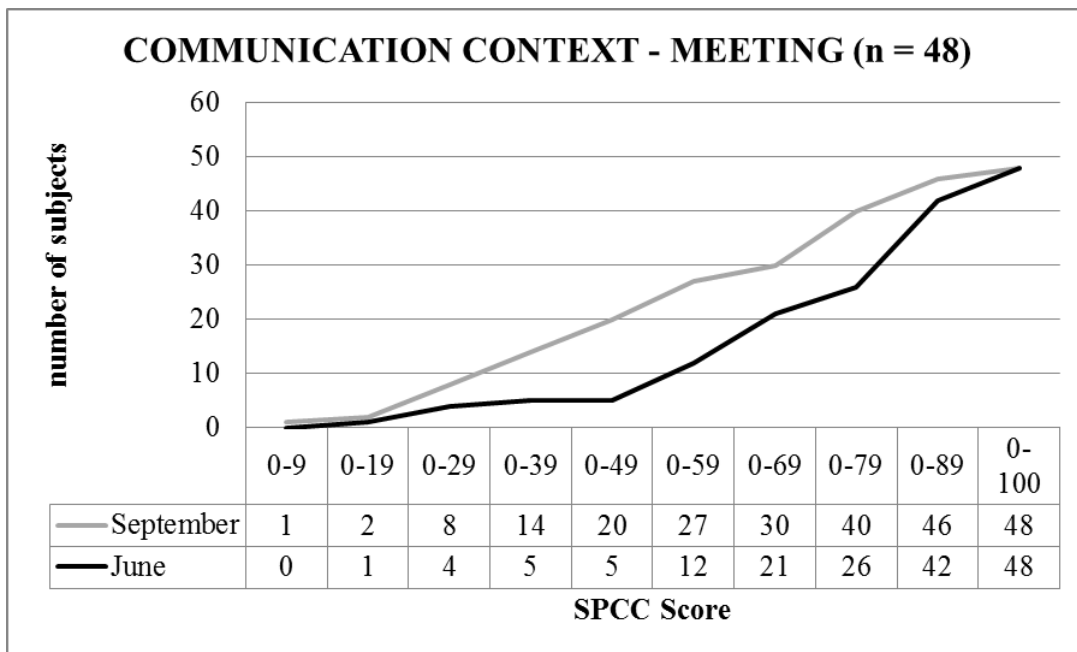
Graph 18 – SPCC – Public – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the communication context – public, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 59 points, in the June collection, the median was 78. The improvement was by 19 points.

Communication context – Meeting



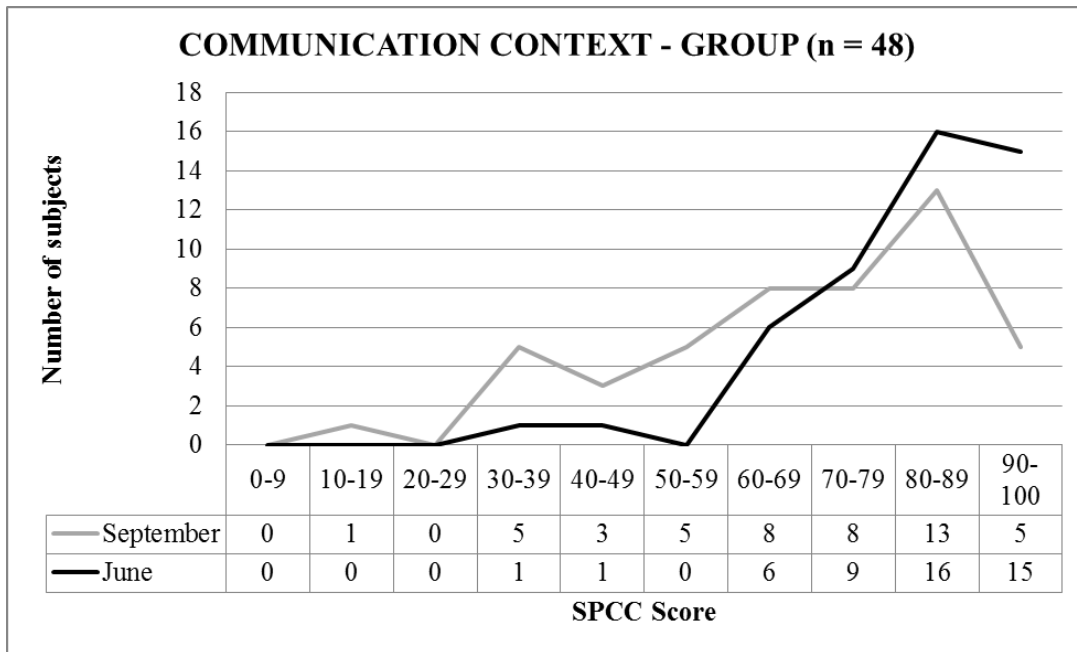
Graph 19 – SPCC – Meeting – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



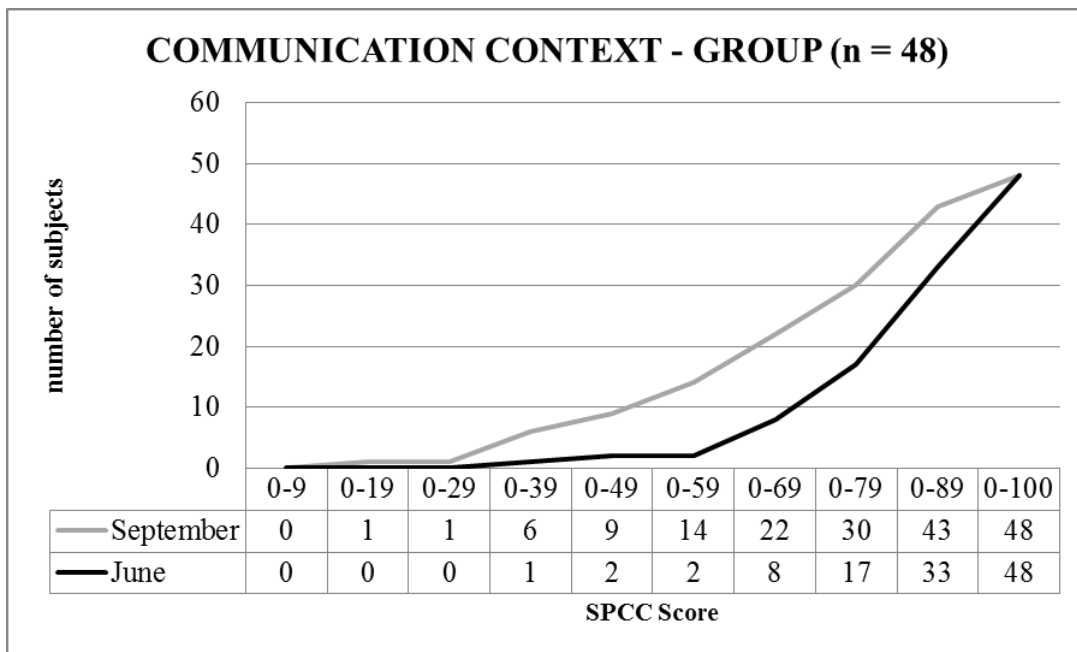
Graph 20 – SPCC – Meeting – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the communication context – meeting, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 55 points, in the June collection, the median was 75. The improvement was by 20 points.

Communication context – Group



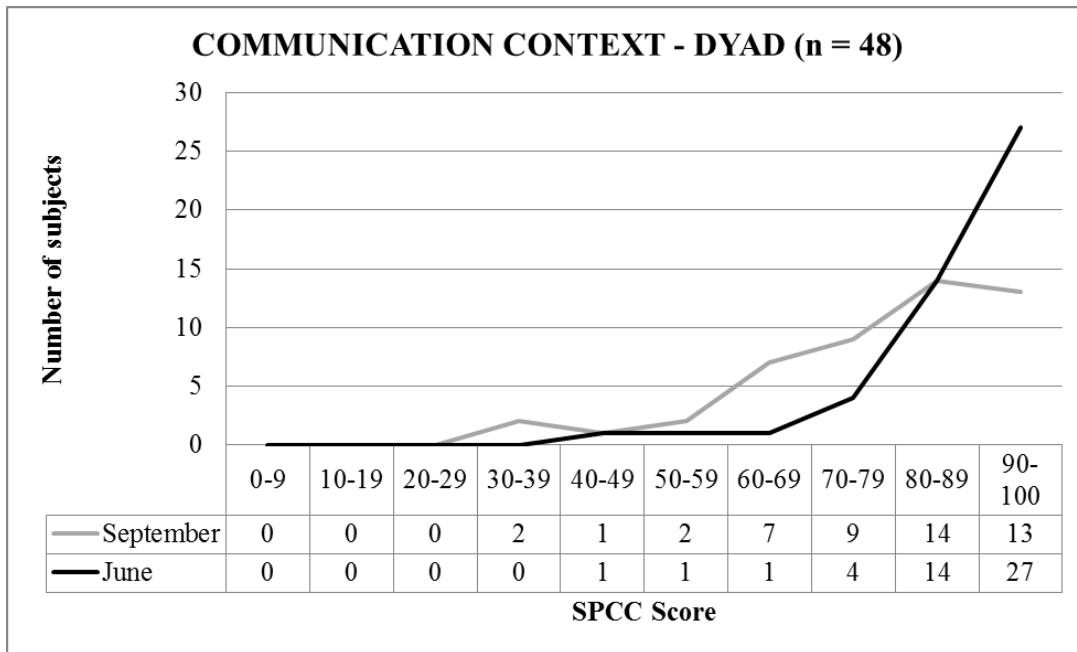
Graph 21 – SPCC – Group – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



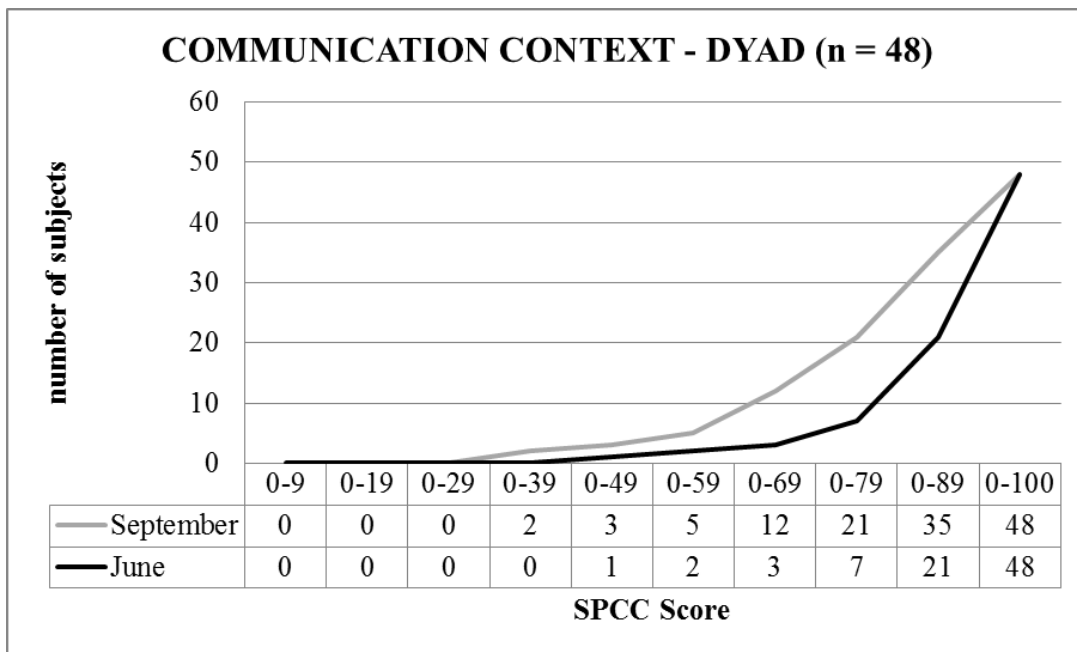
Graph 22 – SPCC – Group – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the communication context – group, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 73 points, in the June collection, the median was 86. The improvement was by 13 points.

Communication context – Dyad



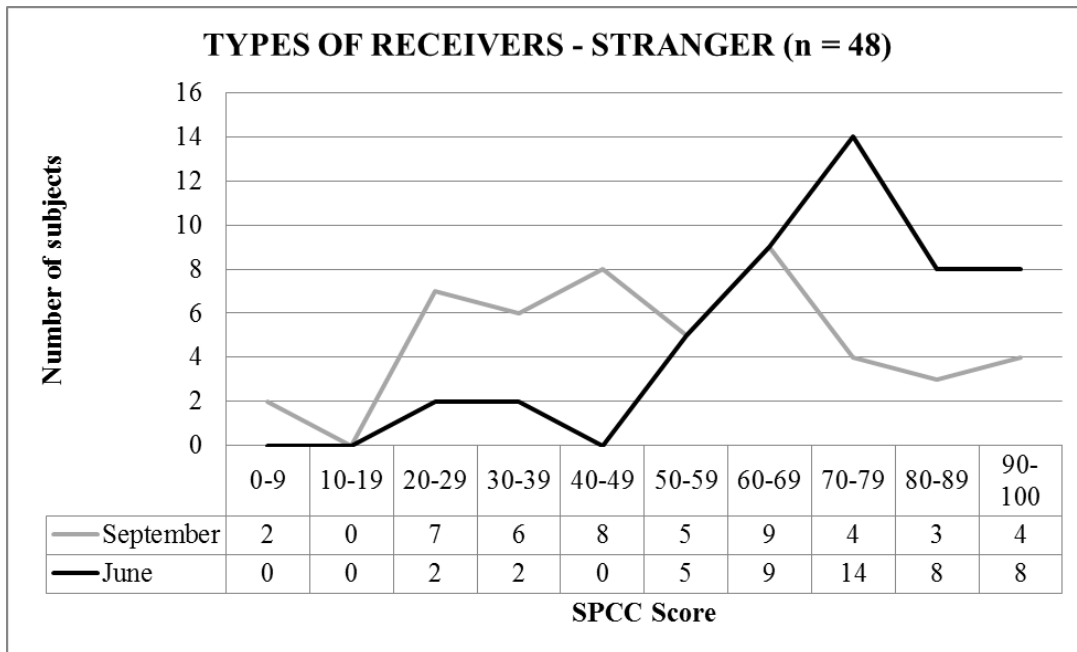
Graph 23 – SPCC – Dyad – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



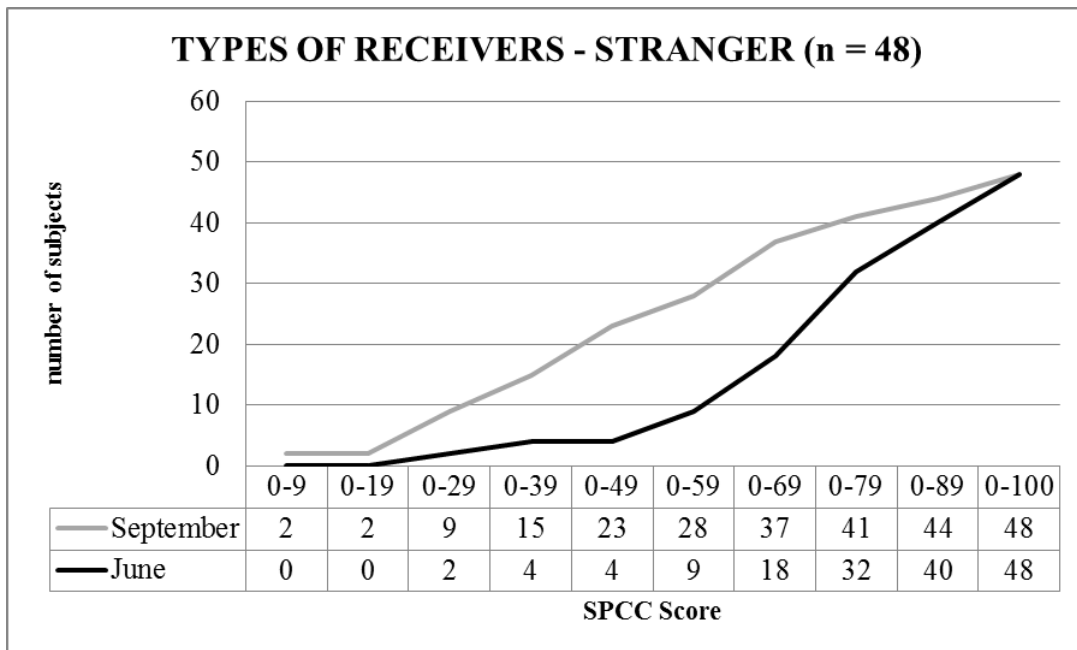
Graph 24 – SPCC – Dyad – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the communication context – dyad, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 81 points, in the June collection, the median was 90. The improvement was by 9 points.

Type of receiver – Stranger



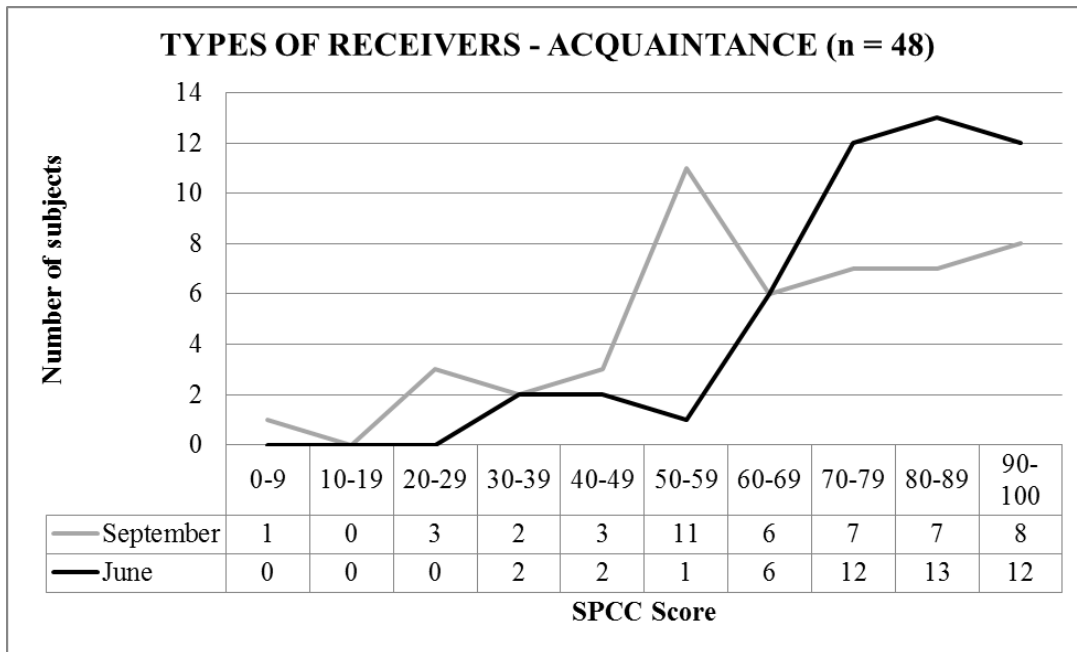
Graph 25 – SPCC – Stranger – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



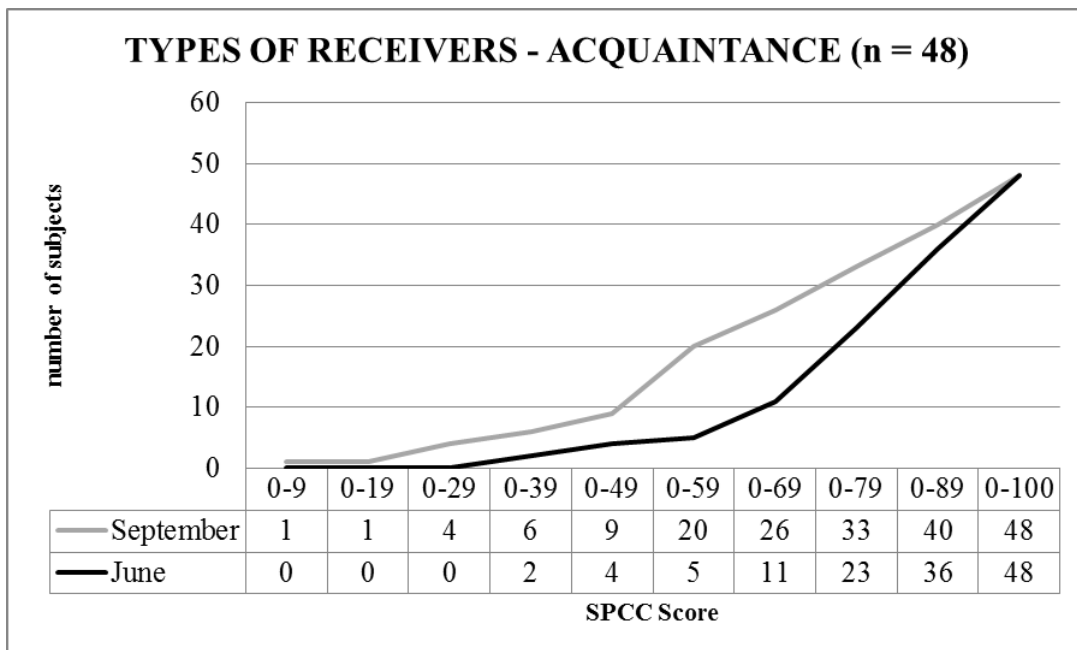
Graph 26 – SPCC – Stranger – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the type of receiver – stranger, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 52 points, in the June collection, the median was 74. The improvement was by 22 points.

Type of receiver – Acquaintance



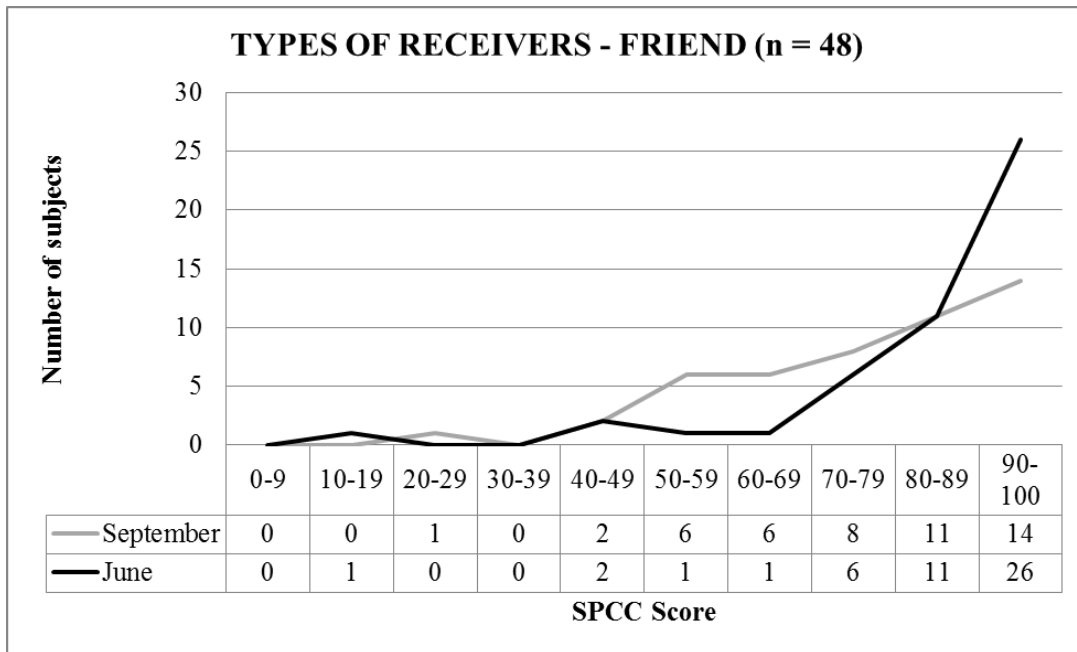
Graph 27 – SPCC – Acquaintance – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



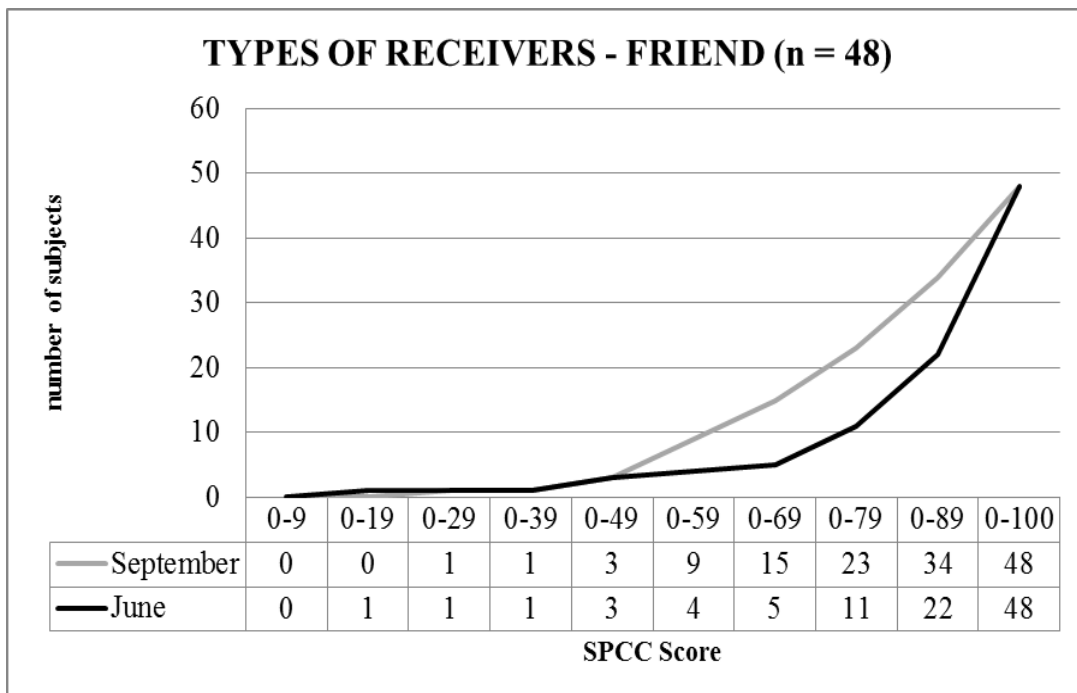
Graph 28 – SPCC – Acquaintance – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the type of receiver – acquaintance, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 68 points, in the June collection, the median was 80. The improvement was by 12 points.

Type of receiver – Friend



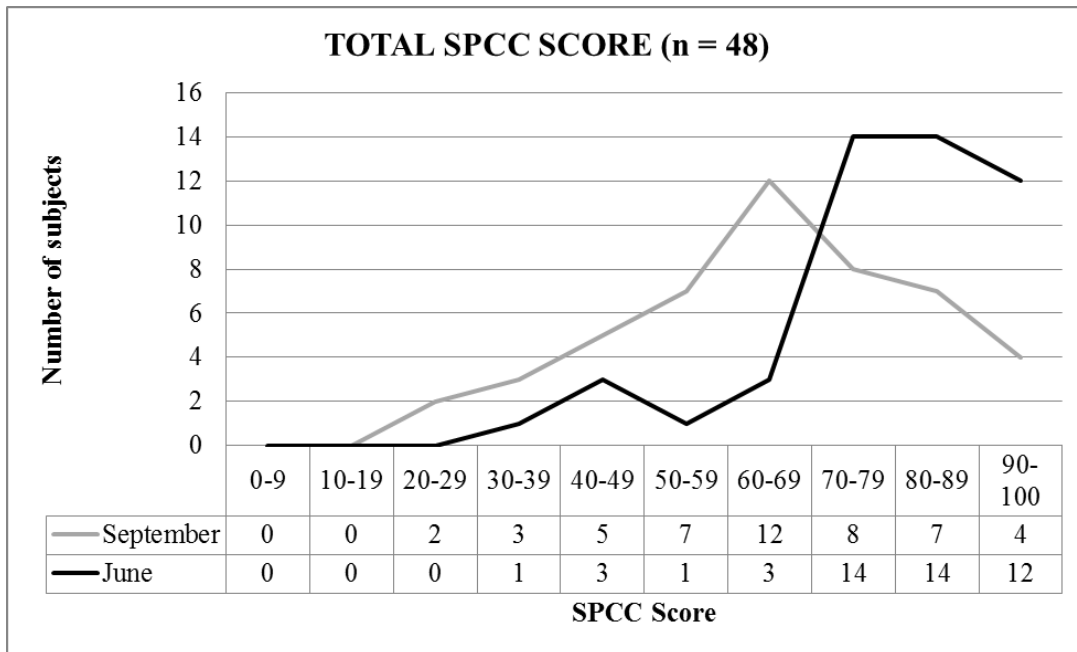
Graph 29 – SPCC – Friend – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



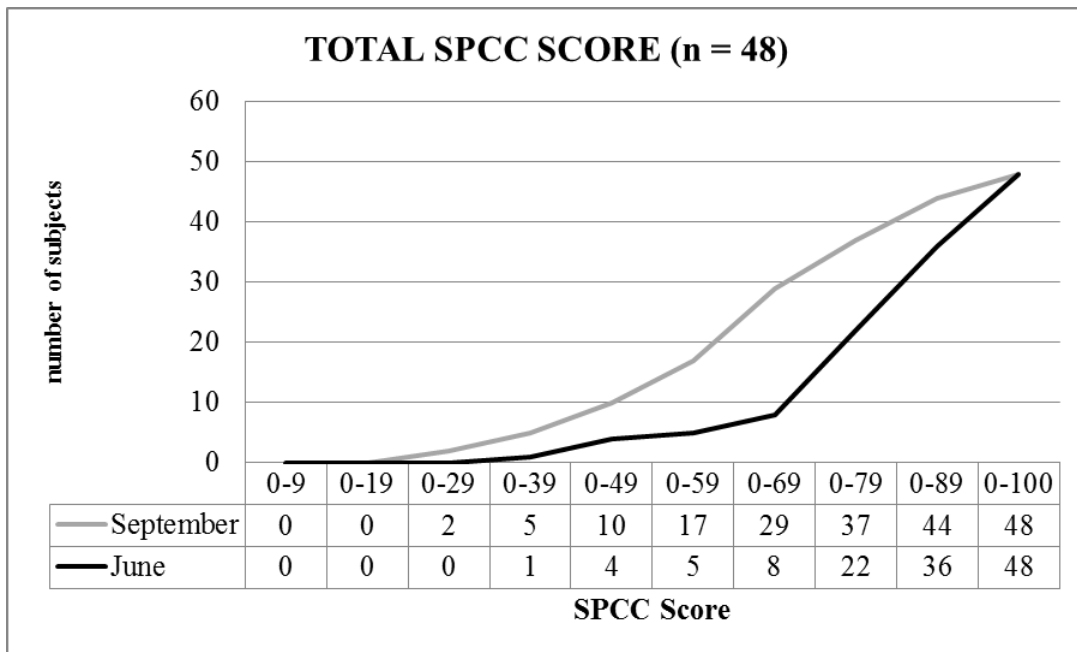
Graph 30 – SPCC – Friend – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

In the type of receiver – friend, we can see an improvement in SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 81 points, in the June collection, the median was 91. The improvement was by 10 points.

Total SPCC score



Graph 31 – SPCC – Total score – absolute frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F



Graph 32 – SPCC – Total score – incremental frequency – Groups B, C, D, E, F

We can see improvement also in the total SPCC scores. Whereas in the September collection, the median was 65 points, in the June collection, the median was 82. The improvement was by 17 points.

8.2.2.4 Teacher reflection (phases 10 and 11)

The teacher reflection during this research cycle first considered the **suitability** of the individual activities in the context of the whole course. In some cases, the order of activities in the individual lessons was changed or the timing adjusted in order to provide better learning conditions. The teacher also kept notes regarding difficult or key language and added this to the description of teaching units, alongside a constant search for new materials that could be useful for the course preparation.

Some activities were added and others removed in order to reflect the **individual learning needs** of the students. This involved e.g. the inclusion of the mock trial activity in the final year of the main stage. Furthermore, the variety of needs motivated the teacher-researcher to devise teaching units, rather than set lesson plans, to better reflect the classroom reality. The need for this became especially clear when three courses were taught at the same time during the final year – as shown in Table 20, each group decided to approach their learning in a different way and when offered a selection of activities, they opted for different approaches.

The **knowledge of topics** to be debated was somewhat concerning. Oftentimes the teacher had to conduct very thorough research for a topic, in order to be able to scaffold the students' learning process. Furthermore, the preparation involved not only research but also a development of learning materials resulting in an extremely time-consuming preparation.

When reflecting on the individual lessons, it turned out **class dynamics** is a powerful thing that can influence a lesson in a positive, as well as in a negative way. While in most cases, new groups were created by the simple fact that students from different classes participated in the seminars, with one group this was not the case. It was this particular group that seemed to be struggling most in class debates with showing mutual respect and following group rules that were established at the beginning of the course. The group seemed to have been bringing their classroom power struggles into the debates, which sometimes negatively influenced the whole debate. This issue was difficult to deal with in the course of a single seminar and required a consultation with the class teacher.

8.2.2.5 Evaluation and revision (phases 11 and 12)

When looking at the data gathered during research cycle 3, they are quite similar to those gained in the previous research cycle. Nevertheless, as the number of participants was higher, the feedback gathered was more detailed and a number of interesting points came up.

To begin with, we can see that there are often contradictory opinions as to the **usefulness** of the individual activities. While one student can consider an activity very beneficial (e.g. *I liked trying out resolution writing, as this is something we don't learn about, even though it is often discussed in media.*), another may find it next to useless (*You cannot make use of resolution writing outside of MUN.*). This makes it difficult to render generalisations about the usefulness of the activities. Having said that, such strong opinions were not found often.

When compared with the data collected during research cycle 2, students did not feel that they had insufficient knowledge of the procedures and the mechanics of the simulation. In this aspect, the inclusion of special units seems to have been successful.

The **quality of debates** and the **selection of topics** came up several times in the feedback. As one of the students pointed out, *it is crucial that each topic allows for two contradictory opinions. I really liked the lesson when we debated cyber crimes. Even though most of us shared the same opinion, we were trying to find a solution together and that created a good-quality debate. More topics like these!*

This issue also came up repeatedly in the teacher's notes. Especially as the school year progresses, it may become more difficult to choose suitable topics. We suggest the teacher pre-selects the topics and then allows the students to choose. The debates can be approached in different ways – while working with different groups, we tried different combinations. Either, a topic is discussed over the period of several lessons, or there can be a new topic every lesson (cf. Table 20). Another issue that came up for the teacher was the actual knowledge of the topic in question and the fact that the preparation was extremely time-consuming.

Students (especially in one research group) also asked for the debates to be *more moderated* and believed the teacher's task is to *assure that debates remain factual and arguments not opinionated, but factually based*. As became clear while working with the different research groups, this is very much connected to the dynamics of the particular group in question. In some groups, the teacher is not needed for the moderation, while in other groups, the debate may get ugly unless the teacher is in control.

The author believes that it is not the simulation activity as such that causes tension in the group. Rather, the activity allows for airing of tension that is present in the group as such and is probably not dealt with elsewhere. This interpretation may be confirmed by the fact that such feedback was found consistently and in high frequency in some groups, while in others, it was not present at all. In the given situation, it is recommended that the teacher does indeed moderate the debate. Furthermore, it is advisable to set aside some time to the discussion of the problem and repeating group rules. On top of that, the situation should be brought to the attention of the class teacher.

Other concerns involved activities that did not work well due to students being **absent** from the course. Some students e.g. commented negatively on the use of mock trial, but when reading their explanations, it is clear that it was not the activity as such, but rather practical problems involved with its realisation (*We couldn't finish it. Or There were too few people so we couldn't realise it.*). This problem is difficult to forestall as the teacher has no means of preventing the absence of the students.

The use of **testing** was criticised by several students. Testing was only used with research groups E and F (semi-compulsory courses) in order to test the knowledge gained. Even though the researcher agrees that *in a subject of this type, it seems nonsensical to test*

knowledge of facts which everybody can easily look up; the focus should be on development of various skills, the fact that this was not an optional course constituted the requirement for test inclusion. Furthermore, there was only one test written during the course of the whole school year and the students had a chance to re-sit it (identically worded) to improve their grade. It is thus quite interesting that they found the testing so distressing.

In summary, students believed that simulation activities were beneficial and should be included in regular subjects. In their statements, they confirmed the notions of deep learning, increased motivation, and reduction of anxiety. At the same time, they were aware of the fact that there are some curricular as well as time limitation, and that the implementation of the method greatly depends on the willingness of the teacher, as well as of the students.

The revision phase at this point mainly involved rewording of problematic phrasing in student handouts and finalising the methodology notes for teachers. No units were added or removed after the end of research cycle 3, as there was no evidence that any of the activities would be predominantly useless or altogether missing.

8.2.3 Conception of the “Model United Nations” Subject (phase 12)

In the given section, the subject “Model United Nations” (MUN course) is described. The first part introduces the subject through the format employed by the national curriculum (RVP G), i.e. in terms its aims, expected outcomes, and subject matter.

The second part provides a more thorough description of the subject in the form of a guide for teachers. It includes a course outline, sample syllabus, ideas for course assessment, and unit plans and activities. This part is supplemented by photocopyable worksheets which can be found in Appendices.

The curriculum of the subject is based on the principles outlined in the previous chapters of the text, and specifically on the methodologies described in chapters 5 and 6. The subject curriculum is built around the global simulation method and reflects the Education towards Thinking in European and Global Context CCS of the national curriculum for upper-secondary education (RVP G). It draws on the findings and recommendations for innovative approaches to MUN curricula proposed by various authors (e.g. Churchill, 1997; Haack, 2008; Karns, 1980; Obendorf & Randerson, 2012).

8.2.3.1 Characteristics of the Subject

Aims

The Model United Nations subject aims to provide students with a critical perspective on current and global issues by means of employing the methods of the Model United Nations global simulation. During regular weekly 90-minute classes, the introductory, briefing, and debriefing phases of the global simulation take place, while the simulation proper is organised as a separate, multiple-day event. The subject is an elective course, intended primarily for the 1st year of the upper-secondary level, even though other arrangements are possible.¹⁴¹

The subject aims for the attainment of dual goals¹⁴², namely to develop students' global knowledge and awareness while developing their English language skills. The subject is interdisciplinary in nature, building upon topics from a number of disciplines and as such reflects the global nature of today's world. In terms of the national curriculum, the subject is related in particular to the following educational areas: *Man and Society* (educational field Basics of Civics and Social Sciences – thematic areas International Relations, the Global World) and *Language and Language Communication* (educational field Foreign language, i.e. English language), and the cross-curricular subject *Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts*.

The learning and teaching processes in this subject are aimed at forming and developing **key competencies** as outlined in the RVP G (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, pp. 14, 69-71) by guiding the pupil towards:

- using the English language as a means of processing and conveying information, knowledge and experiences acquired from interaction with the world, and of expressing his/her own needs and presenting his/her opinions;
- critically working with different types of text and media, developing his/her media literacy;
- mastering the basic rules of interpersonal and intercultural communication in a given cultural environment and respecting them;
- learning respect and tolerance for the different opinions and different cultural values of various communities, becoming perceptive to cultural differences;
- understanding himself/herself and his/her role in a range of communication situations and contexts (formal and informal);
- shaping global values and attitudes of tolerance, justice and democracy and assuming responsibility for himself/herself and the world in which he/she lives.

Learning outcomes

The expected outcomes reflect the dual nature of the subject, i.e. the attainment of aims of both content and language areas, as outlined in the RVP G (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, pp. 16-17, 42).

¹⁴¹ The target group was selected based on the School Educational Programmes of the schools involved in the case study.

¹⁴² Cf. CLIL approach, section 5.2.2.

English language development

The student shall

- understand the main points and ideas of an authentic oral expression with a rather complex content on a current topic and express its main as well as complementary information;
- distinguish between individual speakers in a discourse, identify different styles, opinions and attitudes of the individual speakers;
- understand the main points and ideas when reading an authentic text or written expression with a rather complex content on a current topic;
- identify the structure of a text and distinguish between the main and complementary information;
- utilise various types of dictionaries, informative literature, encyclopaedias, and media;
- formulate his/her opinion in such a way that he/she is understood, spontaneously and coherently;
- present a coherent speech on an assigned topic;
- structure formal as well as informal written expressions logically and clearly, using different styles;
- use a broad general and specific vocabulary to develop argumentation without reducing the content of the communication;
- express and defend his/her ideas, opinions and attitudes using appropriate written as well as oral forms;
- react spontaneously in more complicated situations while using appropriate phrases and expressions;
- communicate fluently on abstract as well as specific topics in less common or specialised situations.

Global awareness development

The student shall

- use a specific example to describe and demonstrate the impact and consequences of the globalisation process;
- explain the nature and functions of the United Nations and provide examples of its activities, explain how these activities influence the operation of the global community;
- provide examples of current global problems, analyse their causes and speculate on their possible consequences and solutions;
- form his/her own opinion on the basis of the information obtained, express and defend it with arguments in discussions on political, economic and social problems.

Educational Content – Subject matter

The subject matter reflects the briefing and debriefing phases of the global simulation:

Situation and behaviour briefing

- United Nations – history, principal documents, structure and main organs, aims and agenda
- MUN agenda – topics and issues
- delegate roles – rules of procedures, modes of address
- country background

Language briefing

- useful language – specific vocabulary
- position paper and resolution writing – structure and phrasing, formal expressions

- presentation techniques

Practice activities

- interactive learning activities
- seminar-length simulations

Debriefing

- behaviour debriefing
- language debriefing and discourse analysis, further language input
- follow-up activities

8.2.3.2 Guide for Teachers

The given section provides a detailed course description of the individual steps to be taken in the Model United Nations course. It features a guide for teachers, including unit plans with instructions and course materials. The section is divided into four sub-sections to correspond to the four phases of simulation. These are further sub-divided into teaching units.

Course outline and sample syllabus

The “Model United Nations” is a course built around the MUN simulation. This means that the regular weekly 90-minute classes are used to deal with matters found in the introductory, briefing, and debriefing phases of the global simulation, while the simulation proper is organised as a separate, multiple-day event.

What happens in the course built around MUN is best described using a quote by Obendorf and Randerson (2013, pp. 355-357). Even though the course in question took place at the university level, its structure and content are identical to the one of the MUN seminar¹⁴³:

Students meet weekly in 2-hour faculty-led sessions, providing teaching staff with the opportunity to introduce needed materials. In the early stages of the module, this involves delivery of essential briefings on the history and structure of the UN, the functioning of the UN regional bloc system, instruction in resolution writing, rules of procedure and so on. Later in the module, the flexible nature of the 2-hour teaching block (timetabled for a large, open, teaching space) facilitates a greater level of interactivity among students and staff and allows students to work in small groups on allocated tasks or skills development. These encompass the areas of public speaking, caucusing, negotiation, using the rules of procedure and giving in-class presentations on their country/issues. Having familiarised themselves with their country and with UN structure and procedure, each student produces a proposed draft resolution on a topic of relevance to their country. Students then caucus among their fellow delegates in an attempt to reach a defined threshold of support for the inclusion of their resolution on the draft agenda. After this process is complete, a formatively assessed practice simulation of the General Committee of the General Assembly is held in which delegates debate and revise the ordering of resolutions on this draft agenda...

The culmination of the module, a formal conference simulation is held over an entire day (from 8am to 5pm) using the debating chamber of the local government authority. The use of a formal horseshoe styled debating chamber ... adds immeasurably to the student experience... Convening in such a venue contributes to the seriousness with which students approach the proceedings. Students are required to

¹⁴³ For examples of syllabi, see Endless, 2017 (10 weeks), Haack, 2008 (12 weeks), Kubik, 2000 (10 weeks), Stiles & Endless, 2017 (15 weeks), Zenuk-Nishide & Hurst Tatsuki, 2011 (15 weeks).

dress in formal business attire or in the formal national dress of their allocated country, adding to the sense of occasion. The purpose-built debating chamber, equipped with microphones and large-screen closed circuit video projection of delegates as they address the chamber facilitates discussion, negotiation and the efficient management of debate.

The syllabus for such a specific course has to be prepared based on a number of features. It has to reflect the particular school calendar, student participation in selected MUN conference/s, and their needs and interest. The following overview provides examples of topics that were covered throughout the same school year at three different schools taking part in the research.

Table 19 below introduces colour coding indicating the main focus of the teaching units, as used in Table 20.

Introduction	Briefing			Simulation proper	Debriefing
Introduction	Situation and behaviour briefing	Language briefing	Practice activities	Simulation proper	Debriefing

Table 19 – Colour coding: focus of teaching units

As is clear from Table 20 below, different groups had a different level of participation in conferences. Furthermore, each group preferred different types of activities. School no. 2 students enjoyed exploring various topics and chose a different topic each time, while school no. 3 students preferred working consistently on one topic over the course of several lessons. Please note that holidays and other days off are not shown in table, i.e. the overview lists only the lessons that took place.

	School 1	School 2	School 3
Week 0	Teacher preparation	Teacher preparation	Teacher preparation
Week 1	Introduction to Model United Nations	Introduction to Model United Nations	Introduction to Model United Nations
Week 2	UN Goals (MDG, SDG)	Education and Democracy debate (FORUM 2000)	UN Goals (MDG, SDG)
Week 3	MUN vocabulary	UN Goals (MDG, SDG)	MUN vocabulary
Week 4	History of the UN	MUN Vocabulary	History of the UN, GA, SC
Week 5	UN – secretariat, ECOSOC	UN - History, Charter	ICJ, ECOSOC, Financing the UN
Week 6	UN – UNICEF, WTO	ICJ, UN Secretariat	UNESCO, IMF, WB
Week 7	UN organs – revision	European Youth Parliament Day	Resolution writing
Week 8	European Youth Parliament Day	Resolution writing	Parliamentary Procedure, Committee Work
Week 9	Resolution writing	Position paper	Position paper
Week 10	Parliamentary Procedure, Committee Work	Mock debate – committee – deserts	Mock debate – committee – deserts
Week 11	Position paper	Mock debate – Security Council - terrorism	Mock debate – committee – human rights
Week 12	Developing country policy – MUN conference preparation	Mock debate – Security Council- terrorism	Mock debate – committee - human rights

Week 13	MUN Conference	Parliamentary procedure - revision	Mock debate – Security Council – terrorism
Week 14	MUN Conference debriefing	Mock debate – Security Council	Mock debate – Security Council – terrorism
Week 15	Parliamentary procedure - revision	Lobbying practice	Parliamentary procedure - revision
Week 16	Mock debate – Security Council - terrorism	Debate – radical groups	International Court of Justice
Week 17	Mock debate – Security Council - terrorism	International Court of Justice	Mock trial – case I.
Week 18	Mock debate – Security Council - terrorism	Mock trial – case I.	Mock trial – case II.
Week 19	Mock debate – LGBT rights	Mock trial – case II.	Mock trial – case II.
Week 20	International Court of Justice	Mock trial – case II.	MUN Conference
Week 21	Mock trial – case I.	MUN Conference	MUN Conference debriefing, Mock trial
Week 22	Developing country policy – MUN conference preparation	MUN Conference debriefing, Mock trial	Mock debate – Advisory panel on Kurdistan
Week 22	MUN Conference	Mock debate – Food waste	Mock debate – Advisory panel on Kurdistan
Week 24	MUN Conference debriefing, Mock trial preparation	Mock debate – Cyber security	Mock debate – Advisory panel on Kurdistan
Week 25	Mock trial – case II.	Mock debate – Cyber crime	Mock debate – Advisory panel on Kurdistan
Week 26	Mock trial – case II.	Mock debate – Tax avoidance	Course Feedback session
Week 27	Mock trial – case III.	Mock debate – Darfur crisis	
Week 28	Mock trial – case III.	Mock debate – Israeli-Palestinian Conflict	
Week 29	Course Feedback session	Mock debate – Israeli-Palestinian Conflict	
Week 30		Mock debate – Israeli-Palestinian Conflict	
Week 31		Course Feedback session	

Table 20 – Examples of syllabi (school year 2015/2016)

PHASE 1 – INTRODUCTION

For the teacher, the introduction phase of the simulation involves a lot of preparation prior to the first lesson. That is why the introduction begins with “Week 0” for teachers and with “Week 1” for students.

Unit 0 – Teacher preparation

Summary

During Week 0, the teacher should first get acquainted with the MUN simulation format, as well as with its aims and objectives, as outlined in section 6.5.1. Ideally, the teacher should attend a MUN conference to see the simulation proper as it is happening.¹⁴⁴ Although each MUN conference has its own specific rules of procedure that slightly differ from each other, the general format is almost identical.

The introductory stage of teacher preparation involves the collection of resources and development of materials, or – in the case of the given text – reading unit plans and materials and preparing (printing out) materials and worksheets for students. Furthermore, the teacher has to make decisions regarding coursework assessment, prepare specific timetable of the course, and select MUN conference(s) to be attended by the students.

Introduction to teaching units

The teaching units listed below form the basis of the course. Not all of them are, however, 90 minutes long; some are shorter and some are longer. It is up to the teacher, after s/he has conducted needs analysis to put together the actual syllabus of the particular MUN course and to decide which order the units will be conducted in. Nevertheless, some units serve as ‘prerequisites’ to others. If this is the case, it is indicated in the ‘Prior learning’ section of the respective unit.

In order to successfully participate in a MUN conference as a delegate in a regular committee of the UN General Assembly, students should at the very minimum have covered the following units: *Introduction to Model United Nations*; *Model United Nations Vocabulary*; *Developing country policy*; *Policy paper writing*; *Resolution writing*; *Committee work and structured debate*; *Parliamentary procedure – points and motions, modes of address*. Furthermore, they should have participated in at least one seminar-length simulation (mock debate).

¹⁴⁴ This sentence was inserted during the last revision phase (phase 15).

Description of the unit plan:

Unit	unit title	
Main focus	focus of the given teaching unit: introduction / situation and behaviour briefing / language briefing / practice activity / debriefing	
Summary	short summary of the lesson	
Time	total duration of the planned activities	
Aims	Language	language aims key language – new vocabulary necessary for a successful completion of the unit
	Content	content aims
Prior learning	prerequisites (e.g. a unit that must be covered prior to the given one)	
Materials and resources	a list of materials and resources – both photocopiable and technical (e.g. computer)	
Steps and activities	a description of individual steps	<i>timing</i> interaction pattern
Homework assignment	ideas for homework activities	
Notes	<u>Resources – activities</u> a list of resources for activities <u>Alternative procedures</u> ideas for doing the lesson differently <u>Further reading and ideas</u> links to further reading and ideas – not necessary for the completion of the unit	

Table 21 – Description of the unit plan (guide for teachers)

Materials and resources

Supplementary materials are provided in two forms. Either they are found in the Appendices as photocopiable worksheets or they can be downloaded from websites, as indicated in the Notes section of the unit description.

List of teaching units

Unit 0 – Teacher preparation	193
Unit 1 – Introduction to Model United Nations	198
Unit 2 – United Nations Goals: Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals	201
Unit 3 – Model United Nations Vocabulary	206
Unit 4 – United Nations: History, Charter, Main Organs	208
Unit 5 – Developing country policy	211
Unit 6 – Policy paper writing	214
Unit 7 – Resolution writing	218
Unit 8 – Committee work and structured debate	222
Unit 9 – Parliamentary procedure – points and motions, modes of address	226
Unit 10 – International Court of Justice	229
Unit 11 – For and against debate	232
Unit 12 – Debate on a draft resolution, type A (EYP style)	234
Unit 13 – Debate on a draft resolution, type B	236
Unit 14 – Committee mock debate	237
Unit 15 – Security Council mock debate – “Diplomacy in action”	239
Unit 16 – Security Council mock debate	241
Unit 17 – Mock trial	242

Conference selection

Experience shows that smaller and less competitive conferences are more suitable for beginning delegates because the smaller size promotes a higher likelihood of participation even for shier and inexperienced participants. Montgomery and Diehl (1983 in Brennan, 1996) also suggest that

- (1) programs that have fairly well-articulated educational goals are preferable to those that do not;
- (2) programs that develop and distribute detailed preparation materials are superior to those that do not;
- (3) Model UN programs that do not emphasize competition are generally more accurate and educational than those that do.

In the Czech Republic, students can attend the conferences listed in section 6.5.1.2. All of them involve both native and non-native (Czech and foreign) participants. The other option is attending a conference abroad. These can be found through MyMUN on <https://mymun.net/muns>.

Coursework evaluation

The assessment of the performance of students is fairly difficult, especially given the content of the subject matter, i.e. global education issues, and the development of values and attitudes. Pike and Selby (1994) recommend oral means as well as self-evaluation. What can be assessed quite clearly is structured oral and written production. Moreover, various authors

also evaluate participation in in-class discussions and in the simulation proper. Furthermore, attention is paid to a final reflection of the activity.

Several sets of ideas for doing evaluation are outlined below for the teacher to choose from. For specific ideas for the evaluation of public speaking, see Yamashiro and Johnson (1997).

Obendorf and Randerson (2013, p. 358) suggest the following products of student work:

- position paper (25% of the grade) – written work and research skills evaluation
- simulation participation (35% of the grade) – adherence to the rules of procedure, participation in formal debate and unmoderated caucusing¹⁴⁵, their delivery of a formal address, their roleplay and effective representation of their country and its foreign policy
- binder with research sources (25% of the grade) – sources and critical skills evaluation
- reflective essay (15% of the grade) – links the student’s experience to the theories and approaches studied

Endless (2017) provides very similar type of activities, even though he allocates a different amount of points to each of them:

- completed preparation binder / portfolio – 40%
- participation in class and at the Model UN Conference – 40%
- support for delegation – 10%
- reflection paper – 10%

Ezzedeen (2008, p. 232) employs a similar strategy:

- presentation and discussion of a news brief (5%)
- class participation (15%)
- two take-home examinations (assigned to encourage prior preparation of readings and each accounting for 20%)
- a research paper and presentation (40%)

Zenuk-Nishide and Hurst Tatsuki (2011, p. 102) list the following evaluation elements:

- in-class interactive participation
- portfolio
- committee agenda paper
- country paper
- speeches
- position paper to synthesize country position on the issues on the agenda
- working paper clauses
- country plan of action
- reflective essay on the MUN experience

¹⁴⁵ informal debate

Phillips and Muldoon (1996, p. 144) suggest an even more complex evaluation process:

- consider student's depth of understanding of the agenda issues as presented in position papers
- evaluate delegate's use of clear logic and persuasive argumentation during the debate
- evaluate delegate's skills at cooperating, compromising, and problem solving
- examine delegate's effectiveness in private caucus negotiations as demonstrated by the acceptability of resolution texts to a majority of the delegates
- consider student's demonstrated ability to function effectively within the MUN milieu
- evaluate student's demonstrated general sustained interest, enthusiasm, and involvement throughout the simulation
- determine the extent to which the resolutions passed contain practical, feasible solutions that would be acceptable to real-world governments

Stiles and Endless (2007) list the following items:

- fact sheet (due during week II) – 5%
- UN knowledge test (first administered during week I) – 5%
- attendance and participation – 25%
- international issue oral presentation – 10%
- assigned country position oral presentation – 10%
- MUN position paper (due during week V) – 10%
- document binder (due during week VIII) – 25%
- debriefing / thought paper (due during week XIV) – 10%

The author of the text opted for a combination of the following:

Type	What is evaluated
Presentation – United Nations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content, structure and layout, sources • Pronunciation and fluency, vocabulary and grammar • Eye contact, body language
Handout – United Nations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content, structure and layout, sources • Spelling and punctuation, vocabulary and grammar
Policy paper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal requirements and formatting • Content • Spelling and punctuation, vocabulary and grammar
Resolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal requirements and formatting • Content • Spelling and punctuation, vocabulary and grammar
Active participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation for lesson • In-class participation • Respect for others, willingness to cooperate and compromise
Test – United Nations system and history	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passing score 60%, with the possibility of resitting the test

Table 22 – Evaluation possibilities in the MUN subject

Unit 1 – Introduction to Model United Nations

Unit	Introduction to Model United Nations	
Main focus	Situation briefing	
Summary	During the introductory lesson, aims of the course are discussed with Ss, alongside their expectations, worries, and interests. This allows the teacher to assess Ss' needs and abilities, so that he or she can refer to them in the selection of supporting materials and interactive activities. This is especially important as the course is elective. Next, course requirements are introduced and presentations assigned, followed by an introduction to the concept of MUN. Finally, group rules are put together.	
Time	90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss' listening skills – extensive and intensive • to develop Ss' speaking and negotiation skills • Key language: amendment, courtesies, delegate, model, sovereignty, to allocate, to vote
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to acquaint Ss with basic notions of MUN • to investigate Ss' prior knowledge and expectations
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of student handout no. 1 (Course requirements) and no. 2 (What is MUN?) for every student • YouTube video – see Resources • flipchart for group rules • PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	1. <u>Student interests, worries and expectations</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Put Ss in pairs. Instruct them to introduce and interview each other regarding their interests, worries, expectations, and reasons for taking part in the seminar. • When Ss have finished, ask them to introduce their partner and report their findings back to the class. 	<i>15 mins</i> PW, plenary
	2. <u>Introduction to the course – content, requirements, assignments.</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the course content and requirements to Ss using handout no. 1. 	<i>20 mins</i> plenary

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage Ss to ask questions. 	
	<p>3. <u>Assignment – UN system presentation and handout</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the assessment criteria for presentations and handouts using the handout. • Encourage Ss to ask questions. • Ask Ss to sign up for their preferred topic or explain that you will get back to them in a subsequent lesson (see Homework assignment). 	<p>15 mins plenary</p>
	<p>4. <u>What is MUN? – video</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elicit knowledge of MUN – its topics, goals, structure etc. You can use handout no. 2 to do so. • Explain that Ss will watch a video explaining what MUN is. Pre-teach key language. • Having watched the video, allow students to answer the questions. • Ask Ss to check their answers in pairs. • Discuss the content of the video with Ss. Ask Ss about the MUN activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>In what ways is MUN similar to the UN?</i> (language, rules, courtesies, subjects, clothes of the UN) • <i>What happens during the conference?</i>(delegates discuss issues and try to convince delegates from other countries to agree with them, together they come up with solutions to the problem in the form of a resolution which is then debated and amendments are proposed, finally, there is a vote on the resolution) • <i>What do you do as a delegate?</i> (take on the role of a diplomat of a country, debate global issues from your country’s stance and come up with solutions to problems) • <i>What can you gain out of MUN?</i> (speaking and writing skills, knowledge of global issues, learning to negotiate, collaborate, debate and compromise + fun, friends, and food) – you can discuss other benefits not mentioned in the video 	<p>15 mins IW, PW, plenary</p>
	<p>5. <u>Group rules</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Ss to individually list rules that they think should be observed in order for everyone to be able to participate as best as they can. They should list a maximum of 10 rules. 	<p>20 mins IW, PW, GW, plenary</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the snowball technique (Ss first work individually, then in pairs, and then in groups of 4, i.e. 2 pairs together. Their task is to put together rules they all agree with, based on their original lists). Proceed, allocating 3 minutes for each of the stages of the snowball. • Finally, create a list of up to 10 rules that all agree on. Copy them onto a flipchart paper or poster. Ask Ss to sign the rules and to place them on a wall at a visible spot in the classroom. 	
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When applicable, students do research, prepare a presentation and a handout on a topic related to the UN. For instructions, see Unit 4. 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Video: An Introduction to Model United Nations and IGNIS MUN.</i> URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QtqZJK9XCHU&t=5s (Activity 4) • Group rules – Kasíková, 2010, p. 67; Snowball technique – Kasíková, 2010, p. 54. (Activity 5) <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fisher, R. (1997). <i>Učíme děti myslet a učit se. Praktický průvodce strategiemi vyučování.</i> Praha: Portál. • Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (Eds.) (1999). <i>Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000.</i> New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Chapters 1, 2. • Kasíková, H. (2010). <i>Kooperativní učení, kooperativní škola.</i> Praha: Portál. • Wheelan, S. A. (1999). <i>Creating Effective Teams: A Guide for Members and Leaders.</i> Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications. • Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations.</i> The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapters 1, 2, 3. • <i>About Model UN: Five Things You Should Know.</i> URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/global-classrooms-home/five-things-you-should-know-about-global-classrooms-model-un • <i>MUN Made Easy: How to Get Started with Model United Nations. BestDelegate.</i> URL: http://bestdelegate.com/mun-made-easy-how-to-get-started-with-model-united-nations/ • <i>Teaching and Training Model UN Resources.</i> AMUN. URL: https://www.amun.org/teach-mun/ 	

PHASE 2 – BRIEFING

The briefing stage includes a number of areas to be studied. In the case of the MUN course, the briefing section involves the following:

- **Situation and behaviour briefing**
 - United Nations – history, principal documents, structure and principal organs, aims and agenda
 - MUN agenda – topics and issues
 - delegate roles – rules of procedures, modes of address
 - country background
- **Language briefing**
 - useful language – specific vocabulary
 - position paper and resolution writing – structure and phrasing, formal expressions
 - presentation techniques
- **Practice activities**
 - interactive learning activities
 - seminar-length simulations

Even though the briefing phase is quite intense in terms of the amount of content to be covered, it is necessary in order for the delegate to successfully participate in committee debates.

Units focusing on situation, behaviour and language briefing

Unit 2 – United Nations Goals: Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals

Unit	United Nations Goals: Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals	
Main focus	Situation briefing	
Summary	The unit introduces two sets of goals put together by the UN. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) from 2000 were to be reached by 2015 and in 2016 were replaced by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), to be reached by 2030.	
Time	up to 180 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ listening skills – extensive and intensive • to develop Ss’ reading skills – intensive • to develop Ss’ speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills • to develop Ss’ vocabulary related to global issues • Key language: agenda, development, equality, gender, hunger, opportunity, poverty, sanitation, sustainable

		development, undernourishment
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to get acquainted with basics of the UN system • for Ss to get acquainted with MDGs and SDGs
Prior learning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basic knowledge of the UN (gained in Citizenship / Social Science classes)
Materials and resources		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of student handout no. 3 (What does the UN do?) for every student • YouTube video – see Resources • PC and data projector • PC lab or a set of laptops or iPADS
Steps and activities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Motivation</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss that the topic of the unit is the goals of the UN. Ask them to work in pairs and give each pair 8 post-it notes. Tell them to think of 8 goals that the UN may want to achieve; these concern the biggest problems of today’s world. They should write 1 problem on each post-it note. Allocate 5 mins for doing so. • After the time has expired, ask Ss to come to the board and take it in turns to stick the post-it notes there, forming groups of similar problems. Alternatively, you can elicit ideas from Ss and write them on the whiteboard yourself or in a mind map creator (see Notes) and project it on the screen. Encourage Ss to comment on what other pairs have suggested. • Ask Ss to individually choose a goal that they personally find most important and explain their choice to the class in a few sentences. Allow 2 minutes for preparation. 2. <u>United Nations</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elicit basic information about the UN. • Direct Ss to the short text “United Nations” in the handout – ask them to complete it to their best knowledge. • Tell Ss to compare their answers in pairs and then check as a class. (missing information: 1945, members, problems / issues, rights) 3. <u>Millennium Summit and MDGs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you are going to be looking at the real goals and compare them with those created in Activity 1. • Direct Ss to the short text “Millennium Summit” in the 	<p><i>25 mins</i> plenary, PW, IW</p> <p><i>10 mins</i> plenary, IW, PW</p> <p><i>20 mins</i> IW, plenary</p>

	<p>handout – ask them to complete it to their best knowledge.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check answers as a class. (missing information: 2000, 193) • Ask Ss to look at the pictograms and work out what goal each pictogram represents – allocate 5 mins. • Discuss answers with the whole class, provide the actual wording of the goals (check http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/). • Compare the MDGs with the goals on the board. Go through the list and ask Ss: <i>Is there any problem or set of problems that could be included in goal no. 1 (2...)?</i> Continue with the whole list. 	
	<p>4. <u>Post-2015 Agenda – text</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Now direct the students to the short text “Post-2015 Agenda” in the handout and ask them to read it. Check understanding by asking questions such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What is the content of Post-2015 Agenda?</i> • <i>Why was there a need for a new set of goals?</i> • Ask students for their ideas on which goals they think are found in the new set. Tell them that some of the MDGs were reached, while others were not. Ask them to guess and tell them they will learn whether they were right in the next activity. 	<p><i>10 mins</i> IW, PW, plenary</p>
	<p>5. <u>Sustainable Development Goals – overview</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check the words in the key language – consider pre-teaching any of them. • Explain that students will watch a video created by an 11-year-old student explaining what SDGs are and that they will watch the video twice. During the first watching, they should focus on the overall meaning. During the second watching, they should answer the questions in the handout. Allow a few minutes for students to read the questions before the first watching. • Ask students to compare their answers in pairs and then check with the whole group, referring to the following answers: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 7 2. 9 3. 50 million 4. 73 million 5. shared vision, framework for action, clearly defined 	<p><i>30 mins</i> IW, PW, plenary</p>

	<p>goals and targets</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. 4 have been reached – 1, 3, 6, 7 7. climate change, poverty, unemployment 8. ties together concern for the environment and social and economic challenges 9. good education 10. social / social, economic, and environmental 11. old MDG, social, environmental, partnership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss the content of the video with students. Ask them what surprised them and why. Compare the answers for question 5 with their guess from the previous task. • Clarify the concept of Sustainable development (SD). World Commission on Environment and Development (Brundtland Commission) defines SD as the "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." • Ask the students to look at the pictograms and match the pictogram with the individual goals – allocate 10 mins. Then discuss the solution with the whole group. (Possible solution – from top left corner: 1, 12, 3, 2, 14, 4, 5, 15, 13, 11, 6, 7, 10, 17, 8, 16, 9) 	
	<p>6. <u>Sustainable Development Goals – study</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divide Ss in pairs and tell them to choose one of the SDGs. Their task is to investigate the given goal and prepare a 3- to 5-min talk or presentation explaining the nature of the problem and why the issue is important. Encourage them to support the speech by facts found on the UN website. Distribute or allocate PCs or iPADS. • Direct Ss to start their research at the UN SDGs website http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/ that features “Facts and figures”, “Targets”, and “Links”. Furthermore, they can use http://worldmapper.org/atozindex.html to find more information on issues. 	<p>40 mins PW</p>
	<p>7. <u>Sustainable Development Goals – presentation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Ss to present their findings. Stress that they are not allowed to read the source texts aloud. • Encourage other Ss to ask follow-up questions. 	<p>30 mins plenary</p>
	<p>8. <u>Sustainable Development Goals – discussion</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After the end of the presentations, discuss the issue of 	<p>20 mins plenary</p>

	<p>SDGs. Ask questions such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Why do the individual goals have specific numbers and deadlines?</i> • <i>Why didn't the UN decide to eradicate the problems as soon as possible?</i> • <i>Why did the UN decide to set several goals in different areas, instead of focusing on separate issues one at a time?</i> • <i>Do you think that education influences development? If so, how?</i> • <i>Do you think that countries should cooperate in reaching the goals, or rather aim to achieve them independently and be responsible for them? Why?</i> • <i>What do you think is the biggest problem in achieving the goals? Why?</i> • <i>Do you think the goals are realistic? Do you think they will be reached on time?</i> 	
<p>Homework assignment</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 6 can be assigned as homework. 	
<p>Notes</p>	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thomas, J. (Ed.) (2008). <i>Global issues in the ELT Classroom</i>. Brno: Společnost pro Fair Trade. (Activity 3, 6, 7) • <i>Video: The World We Want – The U.N. Sustainable Development Goals</i>. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kR-YRC5D-QY (Activity 5) • Nádvorník, N., & Chára P. (2006). <i>Bohouš a Dáša proti chudobě</i>. Praha: Člověk v tísni. https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/153_bohous-a-da-s-a-proti-chudobe.pdf (Wording of questions in Activity 8) <p><u>Alternative procedure</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activity 6 can be assigned as homework. It can also be assigned to individuals, or small groups, depending on the language level of the students. • During Activity 7, it is possible to introduce some of the MUN vocabulary (e.g. <i>placard</i>, see “Unit 3 – Model United Nations Vocabulary and Appendices) and basic phrases from the parliamentary procedure (see ”Unit 9– Parliamentary procedure – points and motions”), namely: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Is the speaker open for questions (points of information)?</i> 	

2. *Are there any points on the floor?*
3. *Right to follow-up?*
4. *The delegate may yield the floor back to the chair. – The delegate yields the floor back to the chair.*

Further reading and ideas

- Geisz, M. (2010). *Champions for South Africa: Teaching material: Learn playfully – aged 13 to 18*. Bonn: Jean Paul Muller, Don Bosco Jugend Dritte Welt e.V. URL: http://www.join-the-game.org/dvd/content/learning/13-18/en/learning_en_13-18.pdf – Topic 3 – Millennium Development Goals
- Reynolds, E. (2016). *How to teach the UN's development goals, and why*. British Council. URL: <https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/why-teach-uns-development-goals-and-how>
- *Getting Critical about the post-2015 Global Goals*. Oxfam. URL: <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/education/resources/getting-critical>
- *The United Nations Matters: Teacher's Handbook*. UNA-UK. URL: <https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Teacher%27s%20Handbook.pdf>
- *The United Nations Matters: Teaching Pack*. UNA-UK. URL: <https://www.una.org.uk/get-involved/learn-and-teach/un-matters-teaching-pack>
- *MindMup: Free Online Mind Mapping*. URL: <https://www.mindmup.com/>

Unit 3 – Model United Nations Vocabulary

Unit	Model United Nations Vocabulary	
Main focus	Language briefing	
Summary	In order to effectively simulate the environment, students-delegates need to get acquainted with specific MUN vocabulary. The new items can be introduced through matching activities, crosswords, word searches etc.	
Time	45 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss' vocabulary related to MUN • Key language: amendment, badge, bloc, chairperson (chair), delegate, dais, gavel, placard, position paper, present and voting, quorum, resolution, roll call, secretariat, signatories, speakers list, sponsors, unmoderated caucus (lobbying), veto, to debate, to draft,

		to follow-up, to merge, to yield
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic knowledge of the MUN system – Unit 1 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a placard or a badge from a previous conference • a copy of handout no. 4 (MUN Vocabulary) for every student • dictionary 	
Steps and activities	<p>1. <u>Motivation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that in the context of MUN, specific words are used. Show Ss a placard or a badge and ask them if they know what the thing is called. Furthermore, ask Ss if they remember the types of texts they will have to produce in order to participate in a MUN (introduced in a video in Unit 1). Elicit any other words. 	5 mins plenary
	<p>2. <u>MUN Vocabulary – Word search</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct Ss to the handout and ask them to do the word search. Allow 7 mins for that. Then ask Ss if they know any of the words and elicit the meaning. Do not clarify the meaning yet. 	10 mins IW
	<p>3. <u>MUN Vocabulary – Definition matching</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct Ss to the handout and ask them to match the words from the word search with their definitions. They may consult a dictionary. Allow 10 mins for completing the task. • When ready, check the answers as a class (see Resources for answers). • Consider adding the following words: <i>amendment, badge, preamble, to draft, to follow-up, to merge</i> 	20 mins IW, plenary
	<p>4. <u>Definition game</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Ss to take turns in defining a word from the list. Others guess. 	10 mins plenary
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students revise the newly learnt vocabulary. 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Activity Guide – Model UN Vocabulary</i>. The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide, pp. 70-72. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide5_Model_UN_Vocabulary.pdf <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p>	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As this unit is rather short, it can be complemented e.g. by “Unit 11 – For and against debate”. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Model UN Glossary</i>. URL: www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/getting-started/model-un-glossary (see Appendices) Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (Eds.) (1999). <i>Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000</i>. New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Glossary of terms, acronyms, and abbreviations, pp. 183-199.
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Unit 4 – United Nations: History, Charter, Main Organs

Unit	United Nations: History, Charter, Main Organs	
Main focus	Situation briefing	
Summary	<p>Situation and behaviour briefing in a MUN course may start with an introduction to the United Nations system. The rationale behind this is that, in order to conduct their roles and duties in a truthful way, delegates must have a working knowledge of the organization and its functions (Brennan 1996).</p> <p>Topic areas dealing with the UN may include UN’s history, structure and principal organs (General Assembly, Security Council, International Court of Justice, Economic and Social Council, Secretariat, Trusteeship Council), regional bloc system, bloc tactics, principal documents (UN Charter, Universal Declaration of Human Rights), or goals. Preferably, this part of the briefing can serve as a practice in public speaking and individual research, by means of student presentations.</p>	
Time	15 mins to assign the presentation and acquaint students with assessment 10 mins for presentation + 10 mins for feedback per presentation	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to develop Ss’ speaking and presentation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to gain a general understanding of the different functions of the major UN organs
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Basic knowledge of the UN system – Unit 2 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> student handout no. 1 (Course requirements) – received in Unit 1 a copy of handout no. 5 (United Nations Major Organs) for every student 	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • overview of topics and dates – create your own list • feedback chart (see evaluation ideas in Unit 0 and the list in Activity 1) • a list of recommended websites – see Notes • PC and data projector • scissors and glues 	
Steps and activities	<p>0. <u>Topics selection</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Important: It is necessary to assign the topics at least 2 or 3 weeks in advance to allow Ss to research the topics, as well as for the teacher to have time to review and comment on student handouts. • Explain that Ss will individually research a topic of their own choice related to the UN system and present their findings to the rest of the class. • Explain evaluation criteria for presentation and handout, as well as assessment criteria and deadlines using Handout no. 1. Allow time for student questions. • Show Ss the list of topics and allow them to select a topic of their interest. Provide Ss with a list of recommended sources. 	<i>15 mins</i> plenary
	<p>1. <u>Presentation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the selected student to present their topic to the class using a Power-point presentation. • The audience is divided into several groups or pairs to subsequently evaluate the individual aspects of the performance, namely: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. structure and content of the presentation, layout 2. pronunciation and fluency, signposting language 3. grammar and vocabulary 4. body language and eye contact • During the presentation, make notes on the Feedback chart. • After the end of the presentation, allow time for follow-up questions. 	<i>10 mins</i> plenary
	<p>2. <u>Evaluation / feedback, stage 1</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Ss to sit in groups or pairs based on the aspect of the performance they were evaluating and to share their findings. Encourage them to discuss both positive and negative aspects and to agree on who will report back to the class. 	<i>3 mins</i> GW

	<p>3. <u>Evaluation / feedback, stage 2</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the group representatives to report back to the class. Ensure balance, encourage constructive feedback. Comment on what has been said, add your own points, and suggest ideas for improvement. • Allow time for the presenting student to react to the feedback s/he has received. 	<p>7 mins plenary</p>
<p>Repeat steps 1 to 3 as many times as there are topics.</p>		
	<p>4. <u>Revision – United Nations Organs Puzzle Activity</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribute both handouts and ask Ss to cut the puzzle pieces in handout B as shown. • Ask Ss to work individually or in pairs. Instruct them to place the puzzle pieces in the corresponding square in handout A. Allow 15 mins for this. • When the time has expired, check the correct answers and allow Ss to glue the puzzle pieces to handout A. (The correct order is as follows – from left to right in rows: 30, 13, 4, 16, 6, 15, 2, 19, 17, 24, 11, 12, 5, 7, 1, 8, 28, 25, 3, 26, 29, 10, 9, 18, 20, 27, 26, 14, 21, 23.) 	<p>20 mins IW / PW, plenary</p>
<p>Homework assignment</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ss revise the newly learnt information, which can possibly be tested in one of the subsequent lessons. 	
<p>Notes</p>	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Activity Guide – UN Major Organs</i>. The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide, pp. 55-56. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide1_UN_Major_Organs.pdf (Activity 4) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In time constraints, the topics can be presented in a regular, teacher-led way. In this case, try employing ICT and authentic texts, both written and audio-visual (e.g. using YouTube videos). • The presentations can also be prepared in pairs, e.g. in case of a weaker (less linguistically advanced class) or with students with high levels of anxiety associated with public speaking. • In order for the lessons not to become too heavy or tedious, it is possible to have 2 or 3 presentations per lesson and spend the second half of the lesson doing practice activities. • Step 4 – revision can be done in a subsequent lesson, possibly as a preparation for the test (see Homework assignment). <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p>	

- *Activity Guide – Model UN Scavenger Hunt*. The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide, pp. 57-59. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide2_Model_UN_Scavenger_Hunt.pdf
- *United Nations System Research Questions*. URL: <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/research/un-systemresearch>
- Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (eds.) (1999). *Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000*. New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Chapters 1 and 3.
- Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 1.
- Wolfe, A. (2001). *Learn about the United Nations*. URL: https://www.amun.org/uploads/resource/learn_un.pdf
- *What is the United Nations*. URL: <https://www.una.org.uk/get-involved/learn-and-teach/overview-united-nations>

Recommend websites for student research

- *About the UN*. URL: <http://www.un.org/en/about-un/index.html>
- *Main Organs*. URL: <http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/main-organs/>
- *United Nations Bodies*. URL: <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/for-educators/resources/resource-links/united-nations>

Unit 5 – Developing country policy

Unit	Developing country policy
Main focus	Situation briefing
Summary	Once the delegates have selected a country to represent, they need to become familiar with their country policy , i.e. its political, economic, social, and cultural situation and concerns. Typically, delegates can only represent UN Member countries. Nevertheless, at some bigger conferences, delegates may also represent non-member delegations. These fall into three categories: non-member states (i.e. the Holy Sea and Palestine, both having Observer status), UN agencies and international organizations (e.g. UNICEF ¹⁴⁶ , IMF ¹⁴⁷ , WHO ¹⁴⁸), and non-governmental organizations (e.g. Greenpeace, Amnesty International). All non-member delegations “will be

¹⁴⁶ United Nations Children’s Fund

¹⁴⁷ International Monetary Fund

¹⁴⁸ World Health Organization

	<p>granted speaking but not voting rights in the debate forums on the issues with which they are particularly concerned” (Williams & Stein, 2006, p. 47).</p> <p>In order to understand committee topics as well as committee agenda, delegates must study how the given committee approached similar topics in the past and how successful it was, or what the committee is presently preoccupied with; furthermore, in-depth knowledge of the topic in question is absolutely necessary.</p> <p>Country and topic research can be conducted in various ways, e.g. by means of internet research, library-based research, or by contacting diplomatic missions. Furthermore, students have been reported to have “interviewed diplomatic personnel, made use of non-governmental and intergovernmental organisations’ research findings” (Obendorf & Randerson, 2012, p. 6). This can be done both in class and during time allocated to home self-study.</p> <p>Moreover, many MUN conferences nowadays use internet forums, including various types of BBS (bulletin board system, cf. Adamson 2013), LMS (learning management system of the given schools or universities, cf. Obendorf and Randerson 2012), or social-networking sites, including Facebook groups, to enable the communication of delegates prior to the conference. Delegates are expected to start the discussion of the topics there, to upload position papers, or post questions to other delegates or chair; this process aims to facilitate cooperation. As McIntosh (2001, p. 273) aptly points out, “students quickly realize that informal negotiations are running parallel to the formal statements. Like any real multinational conference, much of the most important work happens ‘in the hallway’.” In this case, the informal negotiations start already prior to the conference, and allow delegates to establish partnerships and alliances.</p>	
Time	up to 180 minutes	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ reading skills – intensive • to develop Ss’ speaking and presentation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to find important information about the assigned countries through internet research
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic knowledge of the MUN system – Unit 1 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PC lab, or a set of laptops or iPADS (one for every student) • a copy of handout no. 6 (Getting to Know Your Country) for every student • a list of recommended websites – see Notes 	

Steps and activities	<p>1. <u>Motivation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Put Ss representing the same country together in groups. Ask them to brainstorm and write down what they know about their selected country. Furthermore, tell them to write down what they would like to know. After the time has expired, tell Ss that they will have the chance to search for the missing information and to check and possibly correct what they already know. Write these on a separate paper which you keep and make use of in the feedback activity. 	5-10 mins GW
	<p>2. <u>Instructions for research</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tell Ss to get back to their seats. Direct them to the Getting to Know Your Country handout. Ask them to read the instructions and underline words they don't understand. Explain the meaning of the unknown words. Explain that Ss will be working on their own to complete the information on the handout and to answer the questions. Provide Ss with a list of internet websites (see Notes) to start their research. Encourage them to also contact the embassies of their respective state to gain further information. 	10 mins plenary
	<p>3. <u>Research</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ss research their country individually using PCs or iPADs. Monitor their progress and be ready to help out in case Ss have problems finding information, etc. 	up to 140 mins IW
	<p>4. <u>Feedback</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tell Ss to sit back together in their country groups. Ask them to compare their findings. Tell them to check whether their questions from the brainstorming phase have been answered. Ask them to choose 5 most interesting pieces of information to share with their classmates. 	10 mins GW
	<p>5. <u>Wrap-up – country presentation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask each country group to share interesting findings with the class. 	10 mins plenary
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Possibly to finish off the research individually. 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Activity Guide – Getting to Know Your Country</i>. The 2006 UNA-USA 	

Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide, pp. 61-62. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide3_Getting_to_know_Your_Country.pdf (Activity 3)

Alternative procedures

- This activity can be completed outside the classroom, as homework assignment. The Ss can do step 5 – Country presentation at the beginning of the class dealing with position paper writing.
- You can allow Ss to use their smartphones to conduct their research.

Further reading and ideas

- Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 4.
- Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (eds.) (1999). *Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000*. New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Chapter 2, pp. 19-21.
- *AMUN Country Pronunciation Training*. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Jsq_rGuV6ws

Recommend websites for student research

- *BBC News Country Profiles*. URL: http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/country_profiles/default.stm
- *Country Reports: Cultural, Historical, Statistical, Country Information*. URL: <http://www.countryreports.org/>
- *Nations Online*. URL: <http://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/first.shtml>
- *The World Factbook*. URL: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/>
- *United Nations Member States*. URL: <http://www.un.org/en/index.html>
- *United Nations Geospatial Information Section*. URL: <http://www.un.org/Depts/Cartographic/english/htmain.htm>
- *United Nations National Government Information*. URL: <http://www.un.org/esa/national.htm>

Unit 6 – Policy paper writing

Unit	Policy paper writing
Main focus	Language briefing

Summary	<p>An activity that borders on situation and language briefing is the writing of policy papers and resolutions. These are official conference documents whose aim is to both ensure a solid preparation on the part of the delegate and also to enhance and smooth committee debate. Many conferences also require policy papers to be sent in about one month before the conference in order for the chairs to read them and get an idea of how well the delegates have prepared and to see which direction the debate may take.</p> <p>A policy paper (sometimes called position paper) is “an essay detailing your country's policies on the topics being discussed in your committee” (United Nations Association of USA, 2017a). A policy paper briefly introduces a country’s position on the given topics, key facts and statistics, suggestions for courses of action, “what your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution; and how the positions of other countries affect your country's position” (United Nations Association of USA, 2017a). Policy papers can also be used as opening speeches when addressing the committee at the beginning of a committee session.</p>	
Time	75 minutes	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ vocabulary – formal expressions • to develop Ss’ writing skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to understand what type of information should be included in each part of the position paper
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic knowledge of the MUN system – Unit 1 • Developing country policy – Unit 5 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of handout no. 7 (How to write a policy paper) for every student • PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	<p>1. <u>Introduction</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss that you are going to look into writing one of the two types of formal texts necessary for the participation in the MUN, called policy paper. Elicit ideas on what this could be. • Follow-up on the ideas from Ss. Explain what a policy paper is. Again, elicit what kind of information Ss think could be included in such a paper. Write these on the board and tell Ss you will check their ideas soon. 	10 mins plenary
	<p>2. <u>Content of a position paper</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hand out the handouts. Ask Ss to read the section “Components of a policy paper” and “A good policy paper 	10 mins IW, plenary

	<p>will include” and underline any unknown vocabulary. Allow 5 minutes for doing so.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify the meaning of the unknown phrases. • Ask Ss to compare the two lists with the one on the board to see how many things the lists share. Discuss any points that could be added from the list on the board to the list in the handout. 	
	<p>3. <u>Sample position paper – stage 1</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss to turn the handout over and study the text of a sample policy paper. Again, ask them to underline any unknown vocabulary. Allow 7 minutes for doing so. • Clarify the meaning of the unknown phrases. • Ask Ss to summarise the text and provide you with key information they gained from the text. 	<p><i>15 mins</i> IW, plenary</p>
	<p>4. <u>Sample position paper – stage 2</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Ss to read the text again. This time, they should highlight the passages corresponding to the individual components of the position paper, i.e. to find examples of the components in the text. Allow 5 minutes for doing so. • Check Ss’ answers and discuss them as a class. 	<p><i>10 mins</i> IW, plenary</p>
	<p>5. <u>Background guide</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain to Ss that MUN conference organisers usually put together background guides on each topic debated, including ideas for research and research questions. • Go to a MUN conference website with background guides (e.g. http://pramun.com/committees.html) and select a topic that Ss would like to research and discuss. 	<p><i>15 mins</i> IW</p>
	<p>6. <u>Opening speech</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain to Ss that the policy paper can also serve as the opening speech used at the beginning of the committee work. In this speech, the delegates present their country’s opinion so that the other delegates know which countries share their opinions. Allow time for questions. 	<p><i>5 mins</i> plenary</p>
	<p>7. <u>HW assignment</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assign the policy paper as homework. Remind Ss to make use of their notes from the previous unit – Developing country policy. In case Ss haven’t yet been assigned a country, do so too. • Tell Ss to be ready to present their opening speech (summary of the position paper) at the beginning of the next 	<p><i>10 mins</i> plenary</p>

	lesson.
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write a policy paper on a selected topic with the help of the background guide. • Summarise the country’s position in an opening speech.
Notes	<p><u>Sources of activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Policy Statement or Position Paper section, pp. 52, 54. Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. (Activities 2 and 3 – exact wording of the Components and of the Sample position paper) • <i>Position papers: A Good Position Paper Will Include</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/position-papers (Activity 2 - exact wording) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The introduction to the policy paper writing can be done using the “Hamburger graphic organiser” – see the Activity Guide in the Further reading section. • Check http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ for ideas on topics to be debated and for resources. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (eds.) (1999). <i>Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000</i>. New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Chapter 2, pp. 23-26, 29-31. • Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 4. • <i>Activity Guide – Writing the Position Paper</i>. The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide, pp. 63-64. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide4_Writing_The_Position_Paper.pdf • Activities from Model UN Conference Preparation Guide for Advisors – UNA-GB (2016). URL: https://rmunatunagb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Preparation+Guide+for+Advisors.pdf <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>How can we improve this?</i> • <i>Unpacking the problem</i> • <i>Position papers</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/position-papers

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Position paper rubric</i> In Global classroom student resources. URL: http://iesvegadeljaramaglobalclassrooms.weebly.com/uploads/6/1/2/7/61271577/global_classrooms_student_resources.pdf • <i>Sample position paper</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/position-papers/sample-position-paper
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Unit 7 – Resolution writing

Unit	Resolution writing	
Main focus	Language briefing	
Summary	<p>An activity that borders on situation and language briefing is the writing of policy papers and resolutions. These are official conference documents whose aim is to both ensure a solid preparation on the part of the delegate and also to enhance and smooth committee debate.</p> <p>While position papers predominantly deal with a country’s position, resolutions are “written suggestions for addressing a specific problem or issue” (United Nations Association of USA, 2017b). Before coming to the conference, delegates draft their resolutions; these are then merged with other countries’ draft resolutions, debated, and voted on. Whereas a draft resolution is any that has not yet been voted on, a resolution that has passed the voting procedure can be considered “the final results of discussion, writing and negotiation” (United Nations Association of USA, 2017b).</p> <p>Each resolution has three main parts, the heading, the preambulatory section, and the operative section. The heading contains information on the committee, subject, and proposing / sponsoring countries. The preambulatory section explains the reasons for introducing the topic of the resolution and provides an overview of the key facts, documents, and actions related to the topic in question. The most important part of a resolution is the operative section, which includes the recommended course of action to be taken. A resolution has specific formatting (punctuation, underlining) and both preambulatory and operative sections consist of a number of clauses introduced by specific phrases; these phrases are given. (United Nations Association of Greater Boston, 2016; United Nations Association of Rochester, 2016)</p>	
Time	90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ vocabulary – formal expressions • to develop Ss’ writing skills • to revise Ss’ knowledge of MUN vocabulary • Key language: comma, consensus, full stop, hard copy,

		lobbying, operative and preambulatory clauses (see the list in the handout), punctuation, semicolon, signatory, submitter, to draft, to merge, to negotiate
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to understand what type of information should be included in each part of the resolution
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is recommended that this lesson be conducted only after a seminar-length simulation in which a ready-made resolution is debated. Ss then have an idea regarding what a resolution is and what it can be used for. See Unit 12. 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a copy of handout no. 8 (How to write a resolution) for every student DVD Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations dictionaries 	
Steps and activities	<p>1. <u>Introduction</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If Ss have already used a resolution during a practice activity (see Prior learning), ask them what a resolution is and what it is good for. If this lesson is their first encounter with a resolution, explain the concept. Explain that during the lesson, you will be learning how to write a resolution. 	5-10 mins plenary
	<p>2. <u>Sample resolution</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distribute the handouts. Tell Ss to look at the sample resolution and to decide how many parts it has. Ask them for justification. Establish that there are 3 parts of a resolution and clarify which ones they are and how they are called (Resolution heading, Preambulatory clauses, Operative clauses). Ask Ss to read the resolution and find out in what ways the individual parts differ from each other. Draw their attention also to the punctuation and ask them to study the rules of use. (NB: You may need to pre-teach: <i>comma, semicolon, full stop.</i>) Allow 15 mins for this. When Ss are ready, elicit their findings and write them on the board. Read together the description of a resolution on the second page of the handout and compare it to the notes on the board. 	25 mins Plenary, IW
	<p>3. <u>Preambulatory and operative phrases</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain that you will now work with the underlined words 	30 mins PW, plenary

	<p>in the resolution, i.e. phrases, and what they are used for.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw Ss' attention to the list of phrases on the third page of the handout. Divide Ss in pairs and assign a certain number of phrases to each pair. Their task is to look up the translations of their assigned phrases in the dictionary. Allow at least 10 mins for doing so. • Check the meaning of the phrases as a class. Instruct Ss to write the translations next to the phrases. Point out that this is just a selection of phrases and that they may come across other phrases in resolutions or in MUN delegate booklets. 	
	<p>4. <u>The creation and use of resolutions</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revise the use of resolutions (i.e. a document stating actions to be taken to solve a specific problem, suggested by the submitters and signatories). • Ask Ss the following questions: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Who writes a resolution?</i> (every delegate) 2. <i>Is every resolution debated in the committee?</i> (no) 3. <i>How can you get your resolution debated?</i> (have as many signatories as possible) 4. <i>Are the resolutions that are debated in the committee the same ones as those the delegates brought on the first day?</i> (no, the draft resolutions are merged and re-written) 5. <i>How do you know which delegate to merge the resolution with?</i> (pay attention to the opening speeches in which countries clarify their positions on the given subject – talk to them during the lobbying session) 	<p><i>10 mins</i> plenary</p>
	<p>5. <u>Video</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you will now watch a video about resolution writing. Tell Ss they will see the video twice. • During the first watching, Ss focus on the overall meaning. When finished, ask Ss for comments and discuss how much they understood. • Before the second watching, draw Ss' attention to the questions in the handout. Ask them to answer them while watching the video. • Check answers as a class. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. informal; negotiating, compromising, consensus 	<p><i>15 mins</i> IW</p>

	<p>building</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. it is specific; contains all possible aspects of the problem; encourages dialogue and negotiation 3. there is a lot of talking about ideas, merging, requires team work 4. they merge and mostly created a new resolution; brought a digital copy as well as a hard copy 	
	<p>6. <u>HW assignment</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assign the production of a resolution as homework (see Homework assignment). 	<p>5 mins IW</p>
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write a resolution on the selected topic with the help of the position paper. The resolution should have at least 3 preambulatory and 3 operative clauses. Ss should use the same topic as they have for the policy papers and make use of their policy papers. • Read the DOs and DON'Ts section in the handout. 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Sample resolution</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/sample-resolution (Activity 2) • <i>Guide to Position Papers & Resolution Writing</i>. University of Wyoming. URL: http://www.uwyo.edu/intstudy/_files/model%20un/guides.pdf (Activity 2) • <i>Preambulatory and operative clauses</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/preambulatory-and-operative-clauses (Activity 3) • <i>Contra Costa County Office of Education: Delegate Preparation Guide</i>. URL: http://www.ccooe.k12.ca.us/supe/events/unforms/MUNDelegateGuide.pdf (DOs and DON'Ts section) • <i>DVD Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>, footage 0:25:25 – 0:29:26 (end of chapter 1 – The delegate: Preparation and practice) (Activity 5) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consider working also with the annotated resolution. See Further reading section. • Check http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ for ideas on topics to be debated and for resources. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p>	

- *Annotated resolution. GenHandbook Model UN UNAR*, p. 9. URL: <http://www.orgs.miamioh.edu/modelun/Archive/Site2010/MUMUNC/GenHandbook%20Model%20UN%20UNAR.pdf>
- *Annotated resolution. Malaysian Model United Nations*. URL: <http://www.mymunmkis.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/01/MYMUN-Sample-Resolution.pdf>
- *How to MUN – Lesson 13: Resolution Writing* [YouTube video]. URL: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9zmL0CQGdKE>
- *Resolutions*. URL: <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions>
- *Friendly and unfriendly amendments*. URL: <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/friendly-and-unfriendly-amendments>
- *Activities from Model UN Conference Preparation Guide for Advisors – UNA-GB (2016)*. URL: <https://rmunatunagb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Preparation+Guide+for+Advisors.pdf>
 - *Resolution Fill-in-the-Blank*
 - *Resolution Mix-up*
 - *Resolution Form*
 - *What is wrong with this resolution?*
- Julian G. B., & Gagain, J. R. (eds.) (1999). *Model United Nations: A Guide to Delegate Preparation 1999-2000*. New York: The United Nations Association of the United States of America. Chapter 2, pp. 24-27.
- Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 4.

Unit 8 – Committee work and structured debate

Unit	Committee work and structured debate
Main focus	Behaviour briefing
Summary	In order to be able to successfully participate in the debate, the delegates have to know what the individual steps of the debate are. The knowledge of this procedure is complemented by the parliamentary procedure, i.e. the rules of the debate (see Unit 9 – Parliamentary procedure – points and motions).

Time	Up to 180 minutes	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss' speaking and negotiation skills • to develop Ss' listening skills – extensive and intensive • Key language: amendment, draft, lobbying, merge, point, placard
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to understand what happens in a committee
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unit 3 – MUN Vocabulary • Unit 7 – Resolution writing 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of handout no. 9 (Committee work) for every student • DVD Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations • draft resolutions prepared as homework from previous unit • PC lab, or a set of laptops or iPADS (one for every student) • PC and data projector • A4 papers for placards 	
Steps and activities	1. <u>Introduction</u>	<i>5 mins</i> plenary
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that in today's lesson, you will be talking about what happens in a committee and what the MUN debate looks like. Revise knowledge of MUN vocabulary from Unit 3. 	
	2. <u>Video</u>	<i>15 mins</i> IW, plenary
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you will now watch a video about committee work. Tell Ss they will see the video twice. • During the first watching, Ss focus on the overall meaning. • Before the second watching, draw Ss' attention to the tasks and questions in the handout. Ask them to answer them while watching the video. • Check answers as a class. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. main submitter... – chair sets... – speech in defence... – points... – speech against... – voting procedure 2. not merged properly, lack of support, looked like pre-prepared work 3. for – against – abstain; you raise your placard 	
	3. <u>Committee work I. – lobbying</u>	<i>30 mins</i> IW, GW
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw Ss' attention to the structured debate handout. Tell them to read the section "Lobbying session – Committees". Allow a few minutes for reading and then check 	

	<p>understanding.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss that you will now practise lobbying. Ask them to take the draft resolutions they prepared as homework and to start lobbying. Check that Ss know what to do (merge resolutions and / or find signatories). Monitor progress and help out. Allow 15 minutes for the activity and let Ss know 3 minutes before the end of the time limit. • Get short feedback on the activity. • Allow 5 minutes to word-process the merged resolutions. 	
	<p>4. <u>Committee work II. – starting the debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss to read the section “Structured debate – Starting the debate”. Allow a few minutes for reading and then check understanding. Tell Ss that you will now practise the introductory part of the debate. • Choose a merged draft resolution to be debated. Ask the main submitter to introduce the resolution. • After the resolution has been presented, introduce (or revise) the following points: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Is the speaker open for questions (points of information)?</i> - <i>Are there any points on the floor?</i> - <i>Right to follow-up?</i> - <i>The delegate may yield the floor back to the chair. – The delegate yields the floor back to the chair.</i> 	<p><i>15 mins</i></p> <p>IW, GW, plenary</p>
	<p>5. <u>Committee work III. – Open debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss to read the section “Structured debate – open debate”. Allow a few minutes for reading and then check understanding. Draw Ss’ attention to the diagram on the opposite side of the handout. Check understanding. • Tell Ss that you will now practise the open debate and explain that you will be chairing the debate yourself. (In future units, a stronger student may be chairing.) • The length of this stage depends on the Ss’ readiness to participate in the debate. 	<p><i>? mins</i></p> <p>IW, plenary</p>
	<p>6. <u>Committee work IV. – Closed debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you will now move to the closed debate. • Tell Ss to read the section “Structured debate – closed debate”. Allow a few minutes for reading and then check understanding. 	<p><i>25 mins</i></p> <p>IW, plenary</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tell Ss that you will now practise the closed debate. Allow 10 mins for and 10 mins against the resolution. Then conduct the voting procedure.
Homework Assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revise the procedure.
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>DVD Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>, footage 0:29:20 – 0:33:26 (beginning of chapter 2 – Debate) and 0:51:58-0:52:45 (end of chapter 2 – Debate). (Activity 2) Crha, M., Maixner, V., & Kaftan, P. (2014). <i>PORG Model United Nations 2014 Delegate’s handbook</i>. Praha: Nový PORG, pp. 10-13. (Activities 3-6 – exact wording and diagram) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To conduct the whole unit in one lesson, shorten down step 5 – open debate section to 20 mins and step 6 – closed debate to 10 mins and / or omit step 2 – video altogether. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 5. <i>Simulation resources</i>. UNAGB-MUN. URL: http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ <i>Mock Model United Nations – The Movie</i>. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aBh_RaX0gvs <i>MUN Do's and Don'ts</i>. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i9Rwhw-L2iU <i>Model United Nations Overview</i>. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=268ROcmJjLU <i>WIMUN Guide to Acing a Debate</i>. BestDelegate. URL: http://bestdelegate.com/wimun-guide-to-acing-a-debate/ <p><u>Security Council order of debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The order of debate in the Security Council, as well as e.g. voting procedure, somewhat differs from that of a regular committee. This is first because resolutions are not drafted beforehand by delegates but written on the spot, and secondly, because permanent members execute specific rights and privileges, including the veto right. Furthermore, Security Council members are often faced with a crisis situation that they have to deal during the session.

Unit 9 – Parliamentary procedure – points and motions, modes of address

Unit	Parliamentary procedure – points and motions, modes of address	
Main focus	Behaviour briefing	
Summary	<p>In order to be able to take part in the debate, delegates need to get acquainted with parliamentary procedure. These are the rules that help maintain order in committees and enhance a committee’s debate. The rules typically cover the powers of the secretariat and of the presiding officers (chairs, president), agenda, conduct of business (speeches, yielding), points and motions, resolutions and amendments, voting procedure (United Nations Association of Greater Boston, 2016), and modes of address. Very broadly speaking, they “establish when a delegate may speak and what he or she may address” (United Nations Association of USA, 2017c). Rules of procedure differ conference to conference, even though the general procedures are the same.</p> <p>In the given unit, we will study modes of address and points and motions. Modes of address are used to ensure order, respect, and etiquette. One of the most important rules regarding modes of address is that delegates are not allowed to use first person singular pronouns.</p> <p>A point is something a delegate raises when it concerns something s/he would personally like to address. A motion is raised by the delegate when they would like to suggest an action for the committee as a whole.</p> <p>Studying and understanding rules of procedure can be quite challenging, even for a novice teacher-facilitator, so it is worth reminding Ss that</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">Most rules are more readily understood in committee than on paper. If this is your first conference, the rules do represent a certain level of anxiety. However, the best way to learn is by experience. Every committee has both its novice and veteran delegates. Watch them and learn from them, and in the process, get to know some of them. (United Nations Association of Rochester, 2016, p. 13)</p>	
Time	45 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ speaking and presentation skills • to develop formal vocabulary – modes of address
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to introduce parliamentary procedure
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Order of debate – Unit 8 – Committee work and structured debate 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of handout no. 10 (Parliamentary procedure) for every student 	
Steps and	1. <u>Introduction</u>	<i>10 mins</i>

activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that in today’s lesson, Ss will learn some more rules regarding committee debate. • First, revise the procedure of the order of debate from previous unit. You may ask the following questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>What happens during a lobbying session? What is it good for?</i> - <i>What happens at the beginning of the structured / formal debate?</i> - <i>What happens in the open debate?</i> - <i>How can you demonstrate your intention to speak during the structured / formal debate?</i> • Check the understanding of the following points: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Is the speaker open for questions (points of information)?</i> - <i>Are there any points on the floor?</i> - <i>Right to follow-up? – Granted. / Denied.</i> - <i>The delegate may yield the floor back to the chair. – The delegate yields the floor back to the chair.</i> 	IW
	2. <u>Modes of address and phrases used by delegates</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that there are specific words we have to use when addressing the chair or another delegate to show that we respect them, even though they may have a different opinion. Elicit examples of what Ss think could be such phrases. • Draw Ss’ attention to the first section in the handout – Modes of Address. Tell them to read the section. Allow a few minutes for reading and then check understanding. • Ask Ss in what situations the individual phrases may be used. Elicit examples. 	10 mins plenary, IW
	3. <u>Phrases used by the chair</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw Ss’ attention to the third section in the handout – Phrases used by the chair. Tell them to read the section. Allow a few minutes for reading and then check understanding. 	10 mins IW
	4. <u>Points and motions</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the difference between a point and a motion and what they are good for (see Summary). • Draw Ss’ attention to the second section in the handout – Points and motions. Tell them to read the section. Allow a few minutes for reading. Then check understanding and allow 	15 mins IW, plenary

	for further questions.
Homework Assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revise the procedure.
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>CancunMUN 2008 Parliamentary procedure</i>. URL: https://startthewave.files.wordpress.com/2008/11/parliamentary-procedure.pdf (Activity 3) • <i>Guide to parliamentary procedure</i>. URL: https://sites.google.com/site/hismun/guide-to-parliamentary-procedure (Activity 3) • Phrases used by the chair. Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support, p. 94. (Activity 4) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This unit should be supplemented by a practice activity to try out the modes of address as well as points and motions. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activity Guide – Points and Motions – What do you say? <i>The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide</i>, pp. 73-76. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide6_Points_and_Motions.pdf • Activity Guide – Model UN Procedures. <i>The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide</i>, pp. 77-79. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide7_Rules_of_Procedure.pdf • Activity Guide – Rules of Procedure Quiz. <i>The 2006 UNA-USA Model United Nations Conference Advisors Guide</i>, pp. 80-82. URL: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide8_Rules_of_Procedure_Quiz.pdf • <i>Rules of procedure</i>. URL: http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/rules-of-procedure • Activities from <i>Model UN Conference Preparation Guide for Advisors – UNA-GB (2016)</i>. URL: https://rmunatunagb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Preparation+Guide+for+Advisors.pdf <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Rules of procedure quiz</i> • <i>True or false game</i> • <i>Model UN procedures crossword</i>

- Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 5.

Unit 10 – International Court of Justice

Unit	International Court of Justice	
Main focus	Situation briefing	
Summary	<p>A separate model within the MUN is the model International Court of Justice (ICJ). The ICJ’s “function is to consider and make rulings in disputes between member states which have been submitted to it by the states concerned” (Williams & Stein, 2006, p. 103). In the model ICJ, the court typically examines two cases selected from those currently pending at the real ICJ (ibid.). Unlike regular committee work, in model ICJ, there are two parties to a dispute, the applicant, i.e. the party bringing the case to the court, and the respondent. These parties are represented by advocates. The roles taken at the model ICJ are advocates for each party and a judge.</p> <p>In the given unit, students learn about the ICJ and about its model.</p>	
Time	45 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ listening skills – intensive • Key vocabulary: counsel, evidence, pending, stipulation, testimony, to conduct, to cross-examine, to deliberate, to file, to prep, to question
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to gain insight into the work of the International Court of Justice
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic knowledge of the United Nations system – Unit 4 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of handout no. 11 (International Court of Justice) for every student • DVD <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i> • PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	1. <u>Introduction</u>	<i>10 mins</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you will be learning about the International Court of Justice (ICJ) and its model. Elicit information about the ICJ (refer to UN presentations from Unit 4). 	plenary
	2. <u>Vocabulary pre-teaching</u>	<i>10 mins</i>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribute the handouts. Ask Ss to read the words on the top of the page and their definitions. Check understanding. 	IW
	<p>3. <u>Video</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruct Ss to read the questions in the handout. Allow 5 mins for that. • Tell Ss to answer the questions while watching the video. Play the video. One watching should be enough for answering the questions. • Check answers to the questions and discuss them. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. judges and advocates are not members of delegations 2. examine a case pending before the real ICJ 3. A) communication with advocates; assures the advocates have resources they need to conduct and research the case properly; make sure the judges have all the information; B) overseas the procedural issues and the conducting of the court 4. stipulation; memorandum; witness lists; preparation of witnesses for testimony 5. A) Maritime Delimitation in the Black Sea; B) Romania and Ukraine; C) to fix a line of maritime delimitation – Serpent Island 6. A) advocates for both sides; judges; B) cross-examination is conducted by opposing counsel 7. description of content, authors, sources, dates 8. judges deliberate on the case before coming to the final judgment; the president of model ICJ reads the judgment of the court to the General Assembly 9. 2 advocates for each side; 19 judges including 3 officers (President, Deputy-President, Registrar who handles the evidence) 10. A) documents, treaties, books, law review articles; B) they have to be in role in the MUN (e.g. ambassadors of a particular country); the evidence has to be admitted as such 11. ambassadors of Romania, Ukraine, the Russian Federation 12. after they have heard all the evidence, they set the issues on a flipchart and tape them to the wall; all sessions are open to the public except deliberations 	<p>25 mins</p> <p>IW</p>

Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>DVD Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>, footage 1:07:05 – 1:20:46 (Chapter 4 – The International Court of Justice). (Activity 3) <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This unit can be complemented by preparation for mock trial (Unit 17). <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 8.

Units focusing on practice – interactive learning activities

Various **interactive learning activities**, role plays, and very short to seminar-length simulations (Usherwood, 2016) can be used during which to-be-delegates get the opportunity to rehearse their newly-gained knowledge and skills. The level and difficulty of practice activities depends (greatly) on the needs of the students, in particular their language level, debating skills, and willingness to communicate. Interactive learning activities may include various types of role plays, which are gradually complemented and replaced by seminar-length simulations, including mock trials, and, finally, simulations of regular committee work and of the Security Council.

For FLT students, the goal is to provide them with enough opportunities to practice their **language, presentation, and debating skills** (see section 6.3.2). This way, they can boost their self-confidence as speakers of L2 and see themselves as capable of conducting negotiations in a language which is not their mother tongue. This can be done through various debating activities, working with statements and expressing opinions on them.

Unit 11 – For and against debate

Unit	For and against debate	
Main focus	Practice activity	
Summary	<p>The given debate is a very easy one in terms of format and does not need any preparation on the part of the participants. It can thus serve as the first introduction to debating and as an initial practice for standing up, speaking in front of others, and answering questions. It also gives Ss the chance to experience the search for arguments, e.g. in support of a statement they personally disagree with.</p> <p>This unit can be repeated a number of times, with different topics gradually gaining in difficulty, both in terms of sophistication and preparation.</p>	
Time	Up to 90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss' speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to practice the order of debate • for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments • for Ss to experience representing a side of argument they possibly disagree with
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Order of debate (Committee work and structured debate) – Unit 8 	
Materials and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For and against placards – print one set per the whole group (see Appendices) 	

resources		
Steps and activities	<p>1. <u>Introduction</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you are going to practice debating. Revise the phrases used in formal debate (Prior learning). • Introduce the statement to be discussed (see Appendices for ideas). • Divide Ss into two groups. Explain that Group A should prepare arguments supporting the statement (“for”), while Group B should prepare arguments disproving the statement (“against”). <p>2. <u>Preparation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss to sit together in groups and start listing the arguments. • Encourage all Ss to write the arguments of their own group down. • Allow 10 mins for preparation. <p>3. <u>Debate “For”</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set the time for the “for” debate. • Ask the first speaker to take the floor and present one argument – encourage the group members to use their group placard to demonstrate their intention to speak. Stress the fact that only one argument per speaker is allowed. • At the end of the speech, the speaker may take a max. 2 points / questions from the audience. Encourage audience to ask questions. Again, they should use their group placard to demonstrate their intention to speak and use the phrases they have learned in previous units. • When the set time for the debate is up, ask one of the speakers to make a short concluding statement. <p>4. <u>Debate “Against”</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repeat the procedure, allowing the same time as for the “For” debate. <p>5. <u>Voting</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After the time for both “for” and “against” side has expired, put the statement to vote (for / against / abstain). Ss now vote disregarding their group allocation. 	<p><i>10 mins</i> plenary</p> <p><i>10 mins</i> GW</p> <p><i>? mins</i> plenary</p> <p><i>? mins</i> plenary</p> <p><i>5 mins</i> plenary</p>
Homework Assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none 	

Notes	<p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You can choose 2 or 3 statements and allow Ss to select (vote on) the one they are most interested in. When a more sophisticated topic is debated, group division should be conducted prior to the lesson, allowing Ss to do some research and prepare arguments. Still, it is advisable that Step 2 not be skipped, in order for Ss to compare their arguments and support each other. The first time the debate is done, it is not necessary to use formal modes of address. However, as Ss gain more experience with debating, it is advisable that you require Ss to employ them, in particular to train the impersonal reference to themselves. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> For a list of debating statements, see Appendices. Williams, D., & Stein, I. (2006). <i>Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations</i>. The Hague: INTYS – International Youth Support. Chapter 7.
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Unit 12 – Debate on a draft resolution, type A (EYP style)

Unit	Debate on a draft resolution, type A (EYP style)	
Main focus	Practice activity	
Summary	In this type of debate, Ss discuss a ready-made draft resolution. This format differs from the MUN style but serves as a good practice in argumentation and debating.	
Time	90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to develop Ss' speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to practise the order of debate for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Committee work and structured debate – Unit 8 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A copy of a draft resolution for every S For and against placards – print one set per the whole group PC and data projector 	
Steps and	1. <u>Introduction</u>	<i>5 mins</i>

activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain that you are going to practise debating a resolution. Introduce the topic. 	plenary
	<p>2. <u>Reading clauses</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Project the resolution on the data projector or distribute the copies of the resolution among Ss. Ask a S to read the clauses aloud. Check understanding. 	10 mins plenary
	<p>3. <u>Preparation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Divide Ss into two groups. Explain that Group A should prepare arguments supporting the resolution (“for”), while Group B should prepare arguments disproving the resolution (“against”). Moreover, ask a S from Group A to prepare a short speech on why they believe the draft resolution is a good one and should be passed (“defence speech”). Furthermore, ask a S from Group B to prepare a short speech on why they believe the draft resolution is a bad one and should not be passed (“attack speech”). 	15 mins GW
	<p>4. <u>Debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask the selected Ss to present their speeches, starting with the defence speech, moving on to the attack speech. Announce the beginning of the debate. Here, Group B (“against”) asks questions of the proposing Group A regarding the resolution. Group B members take turns to answer the questions. Continue until there are no more questions. 	? mins plenary
	<p>5. <u>Sum up speech and voting</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask a S from the proposing Group A to sum the discussion up and encourage delegates to vote in favour of the resolution. Conduct the voting procedure. Ss now vote disregarding their group allocation. 	5 mins plenary
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> none 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You can start with the light-hearted resolution on Deserts by the Motion for a resolution by the Committee on Nonsense and Mischief (European Youth Parliament, see Appendices) and continue with more serious ones. 	

	<p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When doing this activity for the second time, add another step to the discussion – amendments. In this step, Ss are given extra time to study the resolution and suggest amendments. They should introduce the wording of the amendment and explain why it should be incorporated in the resolution.
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Unit 13 – Debate on a draft resolution, type B

Unit	Debate on a draft resolution, type B	
Main focus	Practice activity	
Summary	In this type of debate, Ss discuss a ready-made draft resolution.	
Time	Up to 90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to practice the order of debate • for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Committee work and structured debate – Unit 8 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a copy of a resolution for every S – see Notes for ideas • blank A4 papers for placards • PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	1. <u>Introduction</u>	<i>5 mins</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that you are going to practise debating a resolution. • Revise the phrases used in formal debate (Prior learning) and the order of the structured debate. 	plenary
	2. <u>Reading clauses</u>	<i>10 mins</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project the resolution on the data projector or distribute the copies of the resolution among Ss. • Ask a S to read the clauses aloud. Check understanding. 	plenary	
3. <u>Preparation</u>	<i>15 mins</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell Ss to choose a country each (at least a few should be from among the submitters) and prepare a country placard. • Ask Ss to study the resolution and prepare any points. 	IW	

	<p>4. <u>Debate</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the main submitter to introduce the resolution. • Allow for points of information to the speaker. • Move to open debate, encouraging delegates to submit amendments. • N.B. You can refer to Handout no. 9 (Unit 8). 	? mins plenary
	<p>5. <u>Voting</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct the voting procedure. 	5 mins plenary
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none 	
Notes	<p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When doing the practice debate for a second time with a more sophisticated topic, countries should be allocated prior to the lesson, allowing Ss to study the resolution, do some research and prepare arguments. In that case, Step 2 should be omitted. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sample resolutions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/sample-resolution • http://bestdelegate.com/model-un-made-easy-how-to-write-a-resolution/screen-shot-2011-10-26-at-2-16-47-am/ • http://www.unic.org.in/items/Sample_Draft_Resolutions.pdf • <i>Simulation resources</i>. UNAGB-MUN. URL: http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ • <i>Model United Nations Climate Conference resources</i>. FN Forbundet. URL: http://www.fnforbundet.dk/skoletjenesten/for-gymnasier,-hf,-hoejskoler-olign--/mini-mun-climate-conference/download-spillet • <i>Model United Nations Israeli-Palestinian Conflict resources</i>. FN Forbundet. URL: http://www.fnforbundet.dk/skoletjenesten/for-gymnasier,-hf,-hoejskoler-olign--/mini-mun-israel-palaestina/download-spillet 	

Unit 14 – Committee mock debate

Unit	Committee mock debate
Main focus	Practice activity

Summary	In this type of debate, Ss discuss a draft resolution of their known making.	
Time	Up to 180 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to develop Ss' speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to practice the order of debate for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing country policy – Unit 5 Resolution writing – Unit 7 Committee work and structured debate – Unit 8 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unit 5 and 7 homework blank A4 papers for placards PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	0. <u>Unit 5 and 7 homework</u>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This unit should be conducted after Unit 5 – Developing country policy and Unit 7 – Resolution writing, as it is necessary for Ss to bring their own drafted resolutions and policy statements. 	
	1. <u>Revision of procedure</u>	<i>10 mins</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revise the phrases used in formal debate and the order of the structured debate (Prior learning). 	plenary
	2. <u>Roll call</u>	<i>5 mins</i>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Do the roll call. 	plenary
3. <u>Policy statements</u>	<i>15 mins</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask each delegate to present their policy statement. 	plenary	
4. <u>Lobbying</u>	<i>15 mins</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tell students they will now be lobbying, i.e. introducing their resolution to others and merging them. Encourage them to get up from their desks and start mingling, discussing, and merging. 	GW	
5. <u>Debate</u>	<i>? mins</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When the time has expired, ask students if they have produced a merged resolution. Allow a break during which you word process the merged resolution and display it on the screen using data projector. Ask the main submitter to introduce the resolution. 	plenary	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow for points of information to the speaker. • Move to open debate, encouraging delegates to submit amendments. • N.B. You can refer to Handout no. 9 (Unit 8). 	
	6. <u>Voting</u>	5 mins
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct the voting procedure. 	plenary
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none 	
Notes	<p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sample resolutions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/sample-resolution • http://bestdelegate.com/model-un-made-easy-how-to-write-a-resolution/screen-shot-2011-10-26-at-2-16-47-am/ • http://www.unic.org.in/items/Sample_Draft_Resolutions.pdf • <i>Simulation resources</i>. UNAGB-MUN. URL: http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ • <i>Model United Nations Climate Conference resources</i>. FN Forbundet. URL: http://www.fnforbundet.dk/skoletjenesten/for-gymnasier,-hf,-hoejskoler-olign--/mini-mun-climate-conference/download-spillet • <i>Model United Nations Israeli-Palestinian Conflict resources</i>. FN Forbundet. URL: http://www.fnforbundet.dk/skoletjenesten/for-gymnasier,-hf,-hoejskoler-olign--/mini-mun-israel-palaestina/download-spillet • <i>Global Issues Overview</i>. UN. URL: http://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/global-issues-overview/ 	

Unit 15 – Security Council mock debate – “Diplomacy in action”

Unit	Mock debate – “Diplomacy in action”	
Main focus	Practice activity	
Summary	In this debate, Ss represent a country in the Security Council. They create a resolution on how to make the ideals of the Olympic Truce a reality.	
Time	60 mins or 120 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to develop Ss’ speaking, presentation, and negotiation

		skills
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key language: aid, ambassador, ceasefire, negotiation, Olympic Truce, peacekeeping
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for Ss to understand how symbolic concepts like the Olympic Truce can be used to further international peace
Prior learning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Nations System – Unit 4 • Committee work and structured debate – Unit 8
Materials and resources		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student handouts – see Resources • Country profiles – see Resources • Country placards – see Resources
Steps and activities		Follow the instructions given in the UNA-UK lesson plan – see Resources.
Homework assignment		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none
Notes		<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <p><i>The United Nations Matters: Teaching pack:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesson plan. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Lesson%20plans.pdf • Student worksheet 1. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Student%20Worksheet%205.1.pdf • Student worksheet 2. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Student%20Worksheet%205.2.pdf • Student worksheet 3. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Student%20Worksheet%205.3.pdf • Student preparation tips. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/Student%20preparation%20tips.pdf • Country profiles. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/15%20country%20profiles.pdf • Country placards. URL: https://www.una.org.uk/sites/default/files/15%20country%20placards.pdf

Unit 16 – Security Council mock debate

Unit	Security Council mock debate	
Main focus	Practice activity	
Summary	Security Council debate is different from that of the regular committee in that the delegates do not bring their drafted resolutions but instead the resolution is drafted together in the committee. Furthermore, the voting procedure is different, as the P5 members can execute the veto right.	
Time	Up to 180 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to develop Ss' speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to practice the order of debate in the Security Council for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Committee work and structured debate – Unit 8 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Security Council Report (see Further reading for ideas) PC lab, or a set of laptops or iPADS (one for every student) PC and data projector 	
Steps and activities	1. <u>Introduction</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain that you are going to practice debating and resolution writing in the style of Security Council. Revise the phrases used in formal debate (Prior learning). Introduce the procedure of debate in the Security Council (see notes). Check that Ss understand that in the Security Council, the resolution is written together by the delegates, one clause at a time. 	<i>10 mins</i> Plenary
	2. <u>Report</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distribute the report and allow time for reading. Check understanding. 	<i>10 mins</i> IW
	3. <u>Preparation</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assign P5 countries and any other countries that are relevant to the topic. 	<i>20 mins</i> IW

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow 15 mins for individual research. 	
	<p>4. <u>Debate and resolution writing</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open the floor for points and for submitting clauses. • Choose a clause and start the open debate (including amendment submission). • When there are no more points, move to the closed debate. • Finally, move to voting on the clause. Voting in the Security Council differs from the regular (committee) one, as here it is not possible to abstain and the P5 members execute the veto right. 	<p>? mins IW</p>
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • none 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guidelines for Security Council. THIMUN. URL: https://cfmunesco.it/static/media/uploads/the_security_council_guidelines_may_2014.pdf • Security Council Guide. MEDI.MUN. URL: http://www.medimun.net/guides/SC%20Guide.pdf <p><u>Alternative procedures</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This debate may be used even with students not joining the Security Council, as it provides practice in clauses writing. • You can allow Ss to use their smartphones to conduct their research. <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/ for a suitable Security Council report. Alternatively, you can put together your own short report. • <i>Global Issues Overview</i>. UN. URL: http://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/global-issues-overview/ • <i>Simulation resources</i>. UNAGB-MUN. URL: http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/ • <i>Teacher's Toolkit</i>. UNHCR. URL: http://www.unhcr.org/teachers-toolkit.html 	

Unit 17 – Mock trial

Unit	Mock trial
Main focus	Practice activity
Summary	Mock trials can be used for general speaking practice. Even though the

	<p>debate looks differently, there are still rules to follow. Furthermore, argumentation plays a key role.</p> <p>The Mock trial described in the given Unit is the one prepared by Learning Law and Democracy Foundation.</p>	
Time	90 mins	
Aims	Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to develop Ss' speaking, presentation, and negotiation skills
	Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for Ss to practice the order of debate for Ss to investigate, discuss, and phrase arguments
Prior learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> none 	
Materials and resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> for teacher – a copy of the Mini-Mock Trial Manual for students – Student Handout: Mock Trial Procedure; Student Handout: Juror Biography; Selected Mini-Mock Trial Case 	
Steps and activities	Follow the instructions in the Mini-Mock Trial Manual, pp. 1-4 (Teacher Instructions).	
Homework assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In case of advanced mock trials, prepare for your role beforehand. 	
Notes	<p><u>Resources – activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bloom, J. et al. (2014). <i>Mini-Mock Trial Manual</i>. St. Paul: Learning Law and Democracy Foundation. URL: http://teachingcivics.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/Mini-Mock-Trial-Manual-Instructions-2014.pdf <p><u>Further reading and ideas</u></p> <p>Basic mock trials:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Mini-Mock Trial State v. Anderson</i> (2014). St. Paul: Learning Law and Democracy Foundation. URL: http://teachingcivics.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/Mini-Mock-Trial-State-v.-Anderson-2016.pdf <i>Mini-Mock Trial State of Minnesota v. Max Paulson</i> (2013). St. Paul: Learning Law and Democracy Foundation. URL: http://teachingcivics.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/State-v.-Max-Paulson-Mock-Trial.pdf <p>Advanced mock trials:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Mock trial Brooks v. Lawrence & the Metro City Police Department</i> (2006). Street Law, Inc. URL: streetlaw.org/Documents/Document/Document/168 	

- *Mock trial U.S. v. Dominique Stephens* (2010). Street Law, Inc. URL: streetlaw.org/document/942

PHASE 3 – SIMULATION PROPER

The simulation proper is the MUN Conference, i.e. a multi-day simulation, organised as an event separate from the MUN course. The simulation proper has been described in chapter 6.2.3 and will thus not be further elaborated on here.

PHASE 4 – DEBRIEFING

The debriefing part takes place after every MUN conference, but can also take place after each of the interactive practice activities and seminar-length simulations. Debriefing in MUN does not differ from other simulations, and includes behaviour debriefing, language debriefing and discourse analysis, further language input, and follow-up activities.

The given section lists a few ideas for conducting MUN conference debriefing but does not provide a detailed step-by-step description. The actual lesson plan should be devised by the teacher him/herself, in order to correspond to the aims set in the beginning of the course, as well as to the particular MUN conference.

Behaviour debriefing can be used for feedback on the use of MUN parliamentary procedures and on successful tactics, or on the involvement of students-delegates. Smith and Boyer (1996, p. 693) list the following suggestion for debriefing questions (examples):

1. **Open-ended questions that identify processes, goals, motivations, constraints and resources**
 1. What happened?
 2. Why was no consensus achieved?
 3. If we did not create the best policy, why not?
 4. What angered you about this simulation? Why?
 5. What were the substantive issues? Were they the same for all [delegates]?
2. **Interview of the major [actors] about their goals, motivations and frustrations**
 6. Mr. President, what exactly were you trying to accomplish and what prevented you from doing so?
3. **Questions on communication**
 7. To whom did you talk? Why?
 8. To whom did you NOT talk? Why?
 9. What impact did incomplete information have on your strategy?
 10. Whom did you trust? Why?
4. **Questions about the reality of the [simulation]**
 11. In what ways did the simulation diverge from reality?
 12. In what ways was it similar to the real world?

McIntosh 2001 (p. 279) lists the following questions:

1. What were your personal goals as a participant in this simulation?
2. What were the goals of your team?
3. What did you do in order to reach your ~personal and team! goals?
4. How did the other players act?
5. What was the outcome of the negotiations?
6. Why do you think this outcome occurred?
7. Do you believe this was an accurate simulation of international negotiations? Why or why not?
8. How would you change the simulation to improve it?

An alternative approach to start situation debriefing involves the use of post-it notes. Students get post-it notes of three different colours to write opinions and experience(s) from the

following areas: What went well... / What didn't go so well... / What surprised me. Once finished, these are placed on the whiteboard in sections – students can present their experience to others and discuss them.

During **language debriefing**, language use is discussed, particularly in relation to the functioning during the debates. As a FLT simulation focuses on fluency, rather than accuracy, the correct (grammatical) use is not of primary concern in the first part of the language briefing. Rather, it is advisable to start the discussion by asking students: “Was there anything you wanted to say during the simulation which you didn't say because you didn't know how to?” (Bullard, 1990). This can lead to further language input. In the second stage, language analysis can take place, during which the students are provided transcribed samples of their actual language production (see section 6.3.4.2).

As has been noted, **follow-up activities** involve “looking at the real thing” (e.g. visiting a press office) or “doing something” (starting a school newspaper) (Jones, 1982). A follow-up activity to MUN conference participation may involve e.g. a visit to the United Nations Information Centre¹⁴⁹ or a debate with a guest speaker on an issue relating to the topics debated during the conference. If possible, attending an actual meeting of the simulated body can be extremely rewarding. A teacher chaperoning MUN delegates to THIMUN reported in an interview (Williams & Stein, 2006) taking his students participating in Mock International Court of Justice (ICJ) to see a meeting of the real ICJ. The students described the proceedings by saying: “They are doing it the same way we are!” This could be a great starting point for the discussion of the reality of the simulation (see section 6.3.4.1).

¹⁴⁹ For information on the Information Centre Prague, visit <http://www.osn.cz/icentrum/pro-skoly/>.

8.3 Follow-up Stage – Research Cycle 4

In the given section, the last research stage is introduced. This included the presentation phase in which the teaching model was subjected to review from two teaching professionals.

8.3.1 Presentation and discussion (phase 13)

Two in-depth interviews with teachers preparing students for MUN participation were conducted. The interviews provide an insight into the perception of teaching professionals regarding the value of the MUN activity, as well as its drawbacks. Furthermore, they offer a reflection of the MUN subject proposal. For a detailed list of questions serving as a starting point for the interview, as well as the transcripts of the interviews, see Appendices.

The interviews were divided into three sections. Under each section heading, a list of main topics is included. They are then described using minor topics with the help of quotes from the interviews (see section 7.5).

- Characteristics of the MUN global simulation method
 - Complex nature
 - Active learning
 - Cooperative learning
 - Social aspect
 - Global and international topics and issues
 - Language learning context
 - Problems of the global simulation method
- Impact of MUN participation
 - Personality development
 - Development of general communication skills
 - Development of values and attitudes
 - Communicative competence in English
- Subject proposal
 - advantages
 - suggestions for improvement

Starting with the characteristics of the MUN global simulation, a number of main topics have been detected. First, the interviewees talked about the **complex nature** (I1.1)¹⁵⁰ of the simulation method. They believe that MUN is a *combination of methods* (I2.18) or *a set of many different approaches and methods* (I2.22) that aim at teaching a set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (I2.1).

¹⁵⁰ The numbers in brackets indicate the interview and question number.

The method is believed to support **active learning** of students, as they *learn through doing something* (I1.1) and *have to put their knowledge into practice* (I1.1). In MUNs, there is a *strong focus on the active participation of the students* (I1.4) thanks to which *they have their preparation under control* (I1.4). This way, students *gain responsibility for their individual learning* (I2.5).

MUNs are also characterised by the implementation of **cooperative learning**. MUN is *a team activity, in the seminar you discuss the issues with the other students, so you get enriched by how the others see the same issue* (I1.11). During the seminars **peer learning** takes place, as *the more advanced are already responsible, co-coaching the younger ones* (I1.19) and thus *serve as models and helpers to the younger ones* (I2.25).

Connected to cooperative learning is the **social aspect** (I1.1) of the activity. Some students may be motivated to participate because *they like the other people in the seminar and they stay because of them* (I1.7). MUN is also a *great opportunity to meet people from outside the country* (I1.7) and *great fun* (I1.7).

Moving on to the content of the simulation, MUN deals with **international and global issues**, and as such *is about politics and heavy stuff* (I1.7). *Students have to get acquainted with important issues* (I1.4) and by doing so, the *simulated UN model gets them more interested in international affairs* (I2.6) and encourages them *to look into the past to connect previous issues or current state with the future so it helps them see a historical perspective* (I2.6). As such, MUN is understood to be *a means to show the students a broader perspective of the international politics and the conflicts they live in* (I2.1) and *bridge a gap* between the complexities of international issues and the fact that the *standard curriculum that schools traditionally have do not deal with them is such a detail* (I2.5). Thanks to this, it may happen that even students originally not interested in international relations *decide they like politics after all* (I1.7).

In terms of foreign language learning, MUN is characterised by the fact that it encourages students to *use a language in natural circumstances* (I2.2) and provides **natural practice** of the language where *there arise many authentic opportunities to use the language* (I2.5). Thanks to the nature of the simulation, *it's very natural for them to enjoy learning vocabulary or grammar related to the topics, because they read and talk about the issues they are interested in* (I1.12).

The section on characteristics of MUN is concluded by listing various **problems** seen by interviewees. The **heavier topics** (I1.6) mentioned in the beginning can pose a big problem to some students. Also *there is a big threat that students won't really understand the consequences of what they are talking about* (I2.7), given the complex nature of the topics. Due to the content orientation, MUN can only work as a *selective course ... more suited for smaller groups ... of those who are really into that and not a general social science class* (I2.7). **Finding enough time** (I1.6) **for preparation** is a challenge, both on the part of the teacher and students. As interviewee 1 puts it, *especially before the conference it would be great if we could meet twice a week, but that's just not realistic* (I1.22). MUN seminar *requires a lot of preparation on the part of the teacher, and understanding, patience, and discipline on the part of the students* (I2.22). The demands on the teacher's competence are extremely high, so high that *you basically need superteachers for that* (I2.27), as *the teacher*

has to do quite a lot of research just to make sure he or she can actually guide the students (I1.23). It's very difficult to prepare classes that are well-prepared, challenging, well-resourced, both from the language perspective, i.e. methods used, and from the content point of view (I2.26).

Some other problems listed included the fact that MUN *can easily become a form that lacks content (I2.8) and that it supports the **diplomatic way** of dealing with others but not necessarily respect (I2.12).* This may also be associated with the *competitiveness of MUNs (I2.12), especially the American ones.*

The impact of MUN participation can be seen in multiple areas. MUN is believed to provide *great opportunities to grow as a **personality** (I1.8) and broadens the mind in general (I1.11).* In terms of communication, students *learn to listen quietly to the opponent ..., and wait patiently till the opponent finishes their speech, which is a good skill ... and then respond in a polite, but convincing way (I1.8).* Students learn that *if you have a problem with someone, you try to solve it in a non-violent, polite way (I1.10).* Students gain ***social skills** that can be useful throughout your whole life (I1.8)*

The interviewees identified two areas in which they saw development of **values and attitudes**, namely tolerance and understanding, and responsibility and leadership. Thanks to the MUN participation, students *maybe become even more **tolerant** as getting enough knowledge is a prerequisite ... for being tolerant towards the country or other countries (I1.8).* Through simulating the roles of delegates of various countries, *they are learning the art of actually being somehow **understanding** (I1.8) and important skills that include learning to understand each other, to know as much as you can about each other, and how to accept each other (I1.10).* The MUN simulation is also believed to provide students with ***responsibility**, it gives them the right to act (I2.5), which is connected to the value of **leadership**, of being the one who decides to take the lead, to take the action (I2.11). By learning about various topics and problems of the world, and by being forced to think about them ... you change your behaviour ... you understand that you can help (I2.11).*

In terms of foreign language learning, thanks to MUN participation students *considerably **extend their vocabulary**, use formal phrases and language and some structures that are relevant for the way they need to express themselves in that kind of communication environment (I1.4).* They also improve **speaker confidence**. *Very often the students who do the MUN end up being quite confident speakers who really are heard (I1.12).* The simulated nature supports the development of communicative competence, as *many students need a certain role to **overcome shyness** (I2.5) – if you want to do your job right in the MUN context, you have to speak (I2.13).* To sum up, *the framework of a game, where it's not that serious after all and where you're not as 'you' but as a representative of a country ..., helps you to overcome ... shame or **the tendency to be perfect and not to speak**... it really opens the people up and makes them communicate because they have to (I2.13)*

The last section focuses on the **seminar proposal**. Starting with its **advantages**, it is believed to be *very comprehensive, very thorough, (I1.14), very detailed (I2.15), and very useful*

(I1.14) and *practical* (I1.14). It is seen as a *detailed guidebook with references, with video excerpts, with concrete tips, with an example syllabus; I believe that is the way to make people be able to absorb the method and use it efficiently* (I2.20). **Flexibility** (I1.14) is seen as a big advantage of the proposal. *The fact that it's divided into units, rather than compulsory lessons in a given order ... the teacher is more than average motivated to carry out this method of teaching and such a teacher will probably be happier to have blocks he or she can use rather than a road map he or she has to follow from Day 1 or Kilometre 1 till the very end* (I2.15). *I like the chart that gives examples of how the units were used and in what order they were used* (I2.16). Some other advantages listed included the use of *self-evaluation* (I2.15) and *references to international accessible literature* (I2.15).

Interviewee 1 summarised her opinion by saying: *I can say this would probably be my ideal lesson* (I1.15). She did not provide any **suggestions for improvement**; these were, nevertheless, found in the second interview and include the following. First, teachers should be encouraged *to see it working before actually introducing it* (I2.18). Next, as *in the MUN context, people tend to use a lot of abbreviations and words that are not a part of general language knowledge* (I2.19), dealing with this issue may be helpful. Finally, the interviewee thought it could be beneficial if the text was *less academic* (I2.20), reducing referencing or possibilities of evaluation (I2.21).

8.3.2 Reflection and revision (phases 14 and 15)

The teachers participating in the interviews provided their personal view on what the MUN global simulation method is, what its benefits and drawbacks are, what impact they see on the participants, and commented on the seminar proposal. The data collected from the interviews complement those collected during the other phases.

The teachers confirmed the fact that MUN is a particularly challenging teaching method, especially in terms of time, preparation, and expertise, on the part of both students and teachers; this is due to its complex nature. This notion occurred repeatedly in all stages of the research.

From the participating teachers' experience, many of the benefits claimed by the proponents of the method seem to be valid, be it the active and cooperative learning that takes place or the notion of a deeper understanding of the international processes and of global issues thanks to deep learning.

MUN is also seen as a means of personality and social development, at minimum in a few listed areas (responsibility, leadership, active listening, understanding). The teachers disagree about whether respect is developed by MUN, or not. Teacher 2 believes that the activity sometimes puts too much stress on the form, and thus what can on the surface seem as respect is just a "diplomatic way" of dealing with a situation, without the attached value to it.

The notion of form without content was re-iterated several times by Teacher 2, not only in relation to values, but also with respect to the development of goal knowledge and skills. Teacher 2 was hesitant to confirm the proponents' claim as to a positive global skills influence. He believes that if done properly, MUN has the capacity to make the participants consider global issues much more seriously and thoroughly than can ever be achieved in

regular classes but maintains that the global skills development may sometimes be missed out on, especially with younger students.

Both teachers agreed that they see significant improvement in terms of communicative language competence, vocabulary extension, and in speaker confidence in particular. They attribute this to the simulated nature of the activity, the inclusion of roles, and the necessity to speak in order to “do the job”. Teacher 2 sees this in contrast with the traditional way of teaching he knows to still be used in Czech schools. Both teachers recommend the inclusion of some elements of the global simulation method into foreign language classrooms.

The seminar proposal has, on the whole, been positively evaluated. What the teachers appreciated the most was the proposal’s comprehensiveness, combined with flexibility which allows users to adapt the teaching units to their own purposes.

A few ideas for improvement of the proposal originated from the interviews, as listed in the previous section. Out of these, the idea of including a MUN glossary was put into practice and a list was added to the supplementary materials found in the Appendices. The incentive for encouraging the teacher to see the MUN conference before starting his or her teaching was also reflected and the following sentence was inserted in the summary of Unit 0: “Ideally, the teacher should attend a MUN conference to see the simulation proper as it is happening.” The final reflection concerns the fact that the text is seen as a bit too academic for the purposes of a teacher’s guide. Should the text be published, then the amount of referencing would most probably be reduced.

8.4 Discussion of Research Findings

The goals of the research part included

- the examination of the suitability of the global simulation method for the purposes of attaining the dual goals of global education and ELT;
- the development of a teaching model based on the global simulation method meeting the dual goals of global education and ELT, with respect to the goals of the Czech national curriculum;
- the subjecting of the proposed teaching model to repeated examination in class and to review from teaching professionals.

The research was designed as action research, with three research stages that were each subdivided into several phases, according to the model introduced in section 7.1.2. The introductory phase included the study of academic literature and research, followed by a pilot study conducted at a MUN conference. This led to the development of a teaching model based on the global simulation method. The main stage included two research cycles during which the proposed model was tested and research data collected, analysed, and interpreted. The analysis and interpretation led to modifications of the model which was again tried out in the subsequent phases of the action research. The final (follow-up) stage included a presentation of the model to teaching professionals and a discussion of the model through semi-structured interviews.

In the given section, we aim to provide answers to the research questions that were stated in the beginning of the research part of the thesis.

1) What is a suitable method for the integration of the ETEGC CCS into upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes with respect to the nature of the subject as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?

The answer to this question was sought in the introductory stage of the action research. As the study of academic literature pointed out to the global simulation as a possible method for reaching the dual goals of ELT and global education, a pilot study was conducted to confirm this preliminary notion. In the theoretical part (section 6.5), the global simulation method was defined as a *language teaching method incorporating features of the project-based approach and world-focused pedagogy, characterised as a complex, structured, long-term event, which is student-centred, multi-disciplinary, and has research and debating about global issues at its core, and in which participants have functional roles which they carry out according to specific rules of conduct.*

The pilot study investigated the MUN (Model United Nations) version of the global simulation method. The results of the pilot study provided some interesting findings (see section 8.1.3) that imply the suitability of the MUN global simulation for the given subject integration.

First, both students-participants and teachers preparing students for MUN participation agreed that MUN has the ability to develop students' global knowledge and attitudes and that it

draws their attention to global issues. A MUN conference is also seen as a place to develop internal motivation, support personal growth, and explore new ideas.

Furthermore, in terms of foreign language development, MUN seems to have the capacity to develop communicative competence in a foreign language. The non-native participants reported improvement of their linguistic skills, in particular discussion skills. They could also see an improvement in their self-perceived communication competence and confidence in English.

Last but not least, MUN seems to spark motivation for the study of foreign languages and for studying abroad among Czech students. Therefore, it seems to be a suitable method for the Czech educational context, and as such was further investigated. Based on the study of foreign academic literature, research studies, and the national curriculum (RVP G), and on the results of the pilot research, a conception of the “Model United Nations” subject was put together, as presented in section 8.2.3.

After the introductory stage, the research question was reworded:

2a) How should the global simulation method be effectively integrated in the upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes, while meeting the characteristics of the ETEGC CCS as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?

After phase 6, another question was added:

2b) How does the proposed teaching model of the MUN subject facilitate the development of communicative competence in English as a Foreign Language in upper-secondary school students?

Below we provide answers to the two research questions:

2a) How should the global simulation method be effectively integrated in the upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language classes, while meeting the characteristics of the ETEGC CCS as defined by the national curriculum (RVP G)?

In the proposed teaching model, we integrated the MUN global simulation and created a separate subject built around this type of simulation. The subject put into practice the theoretical findings introduced in section 6 and linked them to the characteristics of upper-secondary education as outlined in the national curriculum (RVP G, section 4.2).

In the subject, the lessons are used for the introductory, briefing, and debriefing phases of the simulation, while the simulation proper is realised as a separate, multi-day event. The teaching model presented in section 8.2.3 includes the aims of the subject, expected outcomes, educational content, and course outline with a detailed description of teaching units (focus, summary, timing, language and content aims, prior learning, materials and resources, description of individual steps, homework). Furthermore, many of the teaching units are accompanied by supplementary materials. The teaching model was subjected to repeated trial

and evaluation from students and teacher-researcher. Furthermore, it was discussed with teaching professionals during semi-structured interviews.

The feedback collected from students suggests that the MUN subject is found to be beneficial, and to be having an impact especially on the development of communicative competence in English as a Foreign Language, speaker confidence, and debating skills. This impact was observed by both teachers and students, and was also confirmed by data collected through the SPCC test (see below). Most students also reported that the simulation method facilitates the development of skills that are practical and of use in their lives and that it supports critical thinking and activity of students. The feedback collected from the teacher-researcher's observation, as well as from semi-structured interviews, confirms the listed benefits, and suggests a positive impact on a wide range of skills (soft skills, social and cooperative skills, research skills, communicative skills).

While there is a clear impact on skills relating to foreign language learning, the impact on the development of global awareness (in relation to the goals of ETEGC CCS) of students is uncertain, and the promising data collected during the pilot study could not be confirmed by the results from the main stage of the research. While in the pilot study, the students agreed that they were made to think more about global issues, in the feedback from the main stage, only about a fifth of students (alongside all teachers in all research stages) mentioned global issues as being an important aspect of the MUN subject participation.

There may be several reasons for this. Firstly, the two questionnaires were worded differently. In the pilot study, the questionnaire included questions relating specifically to global issues and global awareness, as it aimed at identifying areas in which the MUN simulation could be promising for the research. However, in the main stage, the questionnaire mostly included open-ended questions, with the intention of allowing the students to express their opinions freely. We were interested in finding out how they perceived the simulation as a whole, without being directed into thinking about certain categories.

Next, we believe that the results highlight the importance of the debriefing phase of the simulation, in which both types of goals (language and content) are examined. The results suggest that the global simulation is treated by students primarily as an FLT activity, with the global aspects being only secondary. We conclude that the debriefing stage may not have been thorough enough or may not have had a long-lasting effect on the students, at least in terms of them actively connecting the simulation with global issues. This, nevertheless, does not mean that no development in global awareness has taken place. The results purely demonstrate that while the students consciously feel they have developed their language skills, they do not reflect on possible gains in other areas of their learning and personality, which may have actually taken place and which they do perceive when hinted at, as we could see in the case of the pilot study.

During the interviews, both teachers claimed that the proposal is an ideal one for the integration of the method into upper-secondary ELT. They found the model to be practical, ready-to-use, and to provide all the support needed for a teacher, whether s/he is a seasoned facilitator or just beginning.

As to the challenges of the proposed model, students, teachers, and the teacher-researcher agree that the preparation for MUN classes is very challenging and time-consuming. Due to its complexity, MUN global simulation method cannot be used as a mainstream method for FLT. While some of the aspects or activities are transferable to other subjects, the feedback from both teachers and students clearly demonstrated that MUN is perceived as a selective activity. The MUN subject should thus be treated as an optional or selective course, rather than a compulsory one. This finding, nevertheless, does not contradict the characteristic of ETEGC CCS as found in RVP G, which calls for the employment of “extracurricular forms of learning and extracurricular activities” (Výzkumný ústav pedagogický, 2007, p. 70). The subject should be optional not only for students, but also for the teacher. As research findings show, the preparation is extremely demanding, both in terms of time and knowledge and it is very unlikely that an unmotivated teacher unwilling to teach the subject would make a good MUN teacher.

To sum up, we believe the proposed teaching model of the MUN subject is well suited for the given subject integration, when organised as an optional subject, complementing other means of FLT and global education. Using the outlined teaching model, it seems that the ideal – and most feasible – organisation for the MUN subject is an optional subject taking place once a week in 90-minute sessions over the course of the whole school year. As the method supports cooperative learning, the subject may be open to students from more study years, creating mixed-age groups. When these prerequisites are met, both teachers and students agree that the MUN subject in the proposed format is well-suited, beneficial, and practical, in that it develops many types of skills and competences that are often lacking in mainstream teaching.

2b) How does the proposed teaching model of the MUN subject facilitate the development of communicative competence in English as a Foreign Language in upper-secondary school students?

Most students listed English language learning (71% in cycle 2; 75% in cycle 3) or speaking anxiety and speaker confidence (57% in cycle 2; 32% in cycle 3) as their primary motivation for participation in MUN seminar, suggesting that their self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) was lower than the objective competence, as defined by CEF. Due to this finding, the SPCC test was used for determining any changes in SPCC.

Judging from the results of the tests, there is a clear development in SPCC over the course of the school year. In cycle 3, the median score in all communication contexts and types of receivers improved, with the total SPCC median score having improved by 17 points. As can be seen in Table 18, the most significant improvement is found in the “Public” and “Meeting” contexts, and in the “Stranger” type of receiver.

We can thus conclude that the proposed teaching model supports the development of SPCC, in particular in areas of formal oral communication. This development is believed to be facilitated firstly by the fact that much of the oral interaction during the MUN global simulation is conducted in a formal setting of groups of strangers (especially during simulation proper) or acquaintances (during other phases). Secondly, the simulation focuses

predominantly on the development of communication skills in the area of fluency, rather than accuracy. This may play an important role in the reduction of speaking anxiety, as the students concentrate on the message, rather than on the form. Third, the role-play element of the simulation may be a motivating factor, allowing the students to somehow detach from their real-life personalities and experience themselves as capable users of the target language.

The teaching model also supports the development of communicative competence by means of structured briefing and by the implementation of practice activities. The fact that the students can practise their skills before the actual simulation proper and to learn the necessary vocabulary and phrases reduces the perceived amount of stress during the latter stages of the simulation. Last but not least, the finding that students can discuss quite sophisticated topics (supported by language debriefing), greatly encourages them to 'go out there' and test their English in the 'real world' of the simulated environment.

9 Conclusion

The dissertation was interested in finding possible ways of linking foreign language learning and teaching with global education that aims at educating a cosmopolitan, a citizen of the world. The starting point was the belief that the FLT classroom, with its focus on communication and the use of interactive and innovative methods, is a good place to develop students' global knowledge, skills, and attitudes, alongside their communicative and intercultural competence.

As was demonstrated in the theoretical framework, the concept of FLT has in the past decades been extended to include not only strictly linguistic features, such as the development of linguistic competence or target-language communicative competence, but also culture-general, i.e. intercultural, competence and knowledge. We have presented the notion of culture and language learning and the concept of the intercultural speaker that prove this change in the FLT paradigm.

Having introduced current CLT and related innovative approaches, we outlined how some language teaching methods can be used to reach dual goals, i.e. to integrate FLT and a content area, here global education. We devoted special attention to the simulation method and eventually presented the global simulation, which we defined in section 6.5 as a *language teaching method incorporating features of the project-based approach and world-focused pedagogy, characterised as a complex, structured, long-term event, which is student-centred, multi-disciplinary, and has research and debating about global issues at its core, and in which participants have functional roles which they carry out according to specific rules of conduct.*

Judging from the body of research investigating the global simulation method, and its Model United Nations (MUN) variety in particular, we concluded that this method could be a suitable one for the integration of global issues and English as a Foreign Language at the upper-secondary level of general education, within the specific context of the Czech educational system. Following-up on a pilot study conducted at an MUN conference, a conception of an integrated subject "Model United Nations" for upper-secondary English as a Foreign Language students was developed, covering the introductory, briefing, and debriefing stages of the simulation. Its suitability for the development of communicative competence English as a Foreign Language, as well as for the integration of global issues, was investigated in the research part.

The research part employed the action research design which was selected due to its cyclical, reflective nature, and due to the fact that it is well-suited for the investigation of practical classroom reality. Furthermore, in action research, it is typically the teacher who conducts the research, which was the case in this particular project. The research took place over the course of six years, from 2012 to 2017, and involved altogether 307 research subjects in three research stages.

The research findings confirmed the fact that the MUN global simulation is a method that has the capacity of reaching the dual goals of FLT and global education. Nevertheless, while the development of self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) was confirmed both by

student feedback and by the SPCC test, the gains in the area of global education are not so evident. Moreover, there are some limitations to the implementation of the proposal, namely its demandingness in terms of time and preparation, both on the part of the students and the teacher. Furthermore, the MUN subject implementing global simulation only seems to be suited to those who opt to join the subject and is recommended not to be used as a compulsory part of upper-secondary schooling.

The proposed teaching model thus cannot be treated as a fixed one. On the contrary, it invites the teacher to experiment, to choose units that they find beneficial and build on them, using their expertise in their own teaching contexts, while aiming at addressing individual learning needs of their students. Having said that, we believe the model can serve as a handbook of ideas for subject integration of global education and ELT, as well as an example of good practice for subject integration in general.

There is a number of areas in which the research could be built upon:

- the development of instruments for measuring the impact of the global simulation method on the development of specific areas of global education (i.e. knowledge, skills, and attitudes)
- the execution of a longitudinal study investigating the impact of MUN participation on students' future life, in terms of their university studies and / or profession, their civic and / or political engagement, and their global awareness and behaviour
- finding ways of modifying the proposal so that it can be used as compulsory (not optional) class

We believe that the global simulation method has great potential in preparing students for their future life, be it personal or professional, and that it deserves more attention than it has so far received. The implementation of this method, within the communicative language teaching paradigm, has the capacity to develop key competencies and skills that will surely prove valuable in the future world. Even though we can only speculate about the exact nature of that world, it is clear that the capacity to listen, to present one's opinion in a comprehensible and polite manner, and to interact successfully with individuals from other socio-cultural backgrounds will always be found useful, and will contribute to a more peaceful world.

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Appendices

Two types of materials are to be found in the Appendices section.

The first set includes materials connected to the research part of the paper. This set contains data collection instruments (wording of questionnaires and questions for interviews) and transcripts of interviews.

The second set includes materials to complement the Guide for Teachers (section 8.2.3). A list of discussion topics, MUN Glossary, a list of recommended resources, and photocopiable worksheets are to be found here.

Set 1 – Data collection instruments and transcripts of interviews

Appendix 1: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – PRAMUN 2012 Questionnaire – Delegates

Appendix 2: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – PRAMUN 2012 Questionnaire – Teachers-MUN directors

Appendix 3: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – MUN Subject – Motivation and expectations

Appendix 4: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – MUN Subject – Feedback

Appendix 5: Data collection instruments – Self-perceived communication competence scale

Appendix 6: Data collection instruments – Questions for semi-structured interviews

Appendix 7: Interview 1 transcript

Appendix 8: Interview 2 transcript

Appendix 1: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – PRAMUN 2012 Questionnaire – Delegates

Dear PRAMUN delegates,

What you're holding in your hands is a questionnaire whose aim is to find out what your motivation for taking part in the MUN is (MUN here refers to both the preparation and the actual conference). Another goal is to learn more about what impact the MUN participation has had on you. Please spend a few minutes reading through the statements and deciding how true they are for you (please answer all questions by circling the most appropriate answer). The questionnaire is anonymous; the data will be used for the purposes of my PhD thesis.

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Jana Němečková, Omská MUN Director

About you ...

- What is your age? _____
- What is your gender? *girl – boy*
- Is English your mother tongue? *yes – no*
- What is your nationality? _____
- Is this your first time at an MUN conference? *yes – no*
 - If not, how many times have you taken part before? _____ times
- What committee are you on?

Social, Cultural & Humanitarian – Economic and Financial – Human Rights – Disarmament – Environment – Security Council

I took part in the MUN ...

- ♣ to gain valuable skills for my career.
strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because I genuinely want to help others.
strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because I want to explore new ideas.
strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ to enhance my job prospects.
strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ to get the certificate of participation.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because I want to contribute to society.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because I want to challenge myself.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because I want to help solve society's problems.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ for my personal growth and development.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because it's a fun place to be.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ so I can get a better job.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ because it's a great place to meet new people and develop friendships.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

Taking part in the MUN ...

- ♣ has made me think more about global problems and issues.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has provided me with extended knowledge and better understanding of foreign countries and cultures.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has helped me see the world as others see it.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has motivated me to get engaged in community and / or volunteer work.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has motivated me to get engaged in politics in the future.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has helped me improve my own learning.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has motivated me to study foreign languages.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree
- ♣ has motivated me to study abroad.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ will have an effect on my choice of studies and / or job in the future.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ has made me more at tentative to news about politics and government.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

Do you have any comments?

Thank you once again for completing the questionnaire!

Please continue with the following statements only if English is NOT your mother tongue:

Taking part in the MUN ...

- ♣ has improved my individual speaking / presentation skills in English.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ has improved my discussion / communication skills in English.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ has improved my comprehension (reading and listening) skills in English.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ has helped me broaden my vocabulary in English.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

- ♣ has helped me improve my general self-confidence in English.

strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree

About your school ... (please circle the most appropriate answer)

- **Type of school**
 - General Secondary School
 - Vocational or technical Secondary School
 - Primary School
 - other (please specify)
- **Legal Status**
 - public
 - private
- **Size (staff)**
 - staff 1 – 20
 - staff 21 – 50
 - staff 51 – 250
 - staff over 251
- **Size (students)**
 - students 0 - 100
 - students 101 - 250
 - students 251 - 500
 - students over 501

MUN preparation

Can you describe how you prepared for the conference? Can you specifically describe:

a) what type of course delegates attended, if any? (is the MUN course compulsory / extracurricular...)

a1) how often and for how long do you meet?

b) what materials do you use for the preparation?

c) do you cooperate with other teachers and / or institutions?

d) can you estimate how big a percentage of students of your school attend the MUN seminar and / or MUN conferences?

Appendix 3: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – MUN Subject – Motivation and expectations

NB: Students had a choice of answering the questionnaire either in Czech, or in English.

What are your expectations of the seminar?

Why are you taking the seminar?

Regarding your English skills, what is important for you? Please order the following from the **most important (1)** to the **least important (5)**.

- ♣ to improve my presentation skills
- ♣ to broaden my vocabulary
- ♣ to improve my discussion skills
- ♣ to improve my confidence when speaking with strangers
- ♣ to improve my listening skills

Appendix 4: Data collection instruments – Non-standardised questionnaires – MUN Subject – Feedback

NB: Students had a choice of answering the questionnaire either in Czech, or in English. English translation follows below.

DOTAZNÍK – ZPĚTNÁ VAZBA MUN SEMINÁŘ

Škola: **Ročník:** kvarta / kvinta / sexta / septima / G1 / G2 / G3

Aktivity v semináři – v každé odpovědi prosím zdůvodněte.

- Jaké aktivity v semináři považujete za nejpřínosnější?

- Jaké aktivity v semináři považujete za nejméně přínosné nebo problematické?

- Jaké aktivity v semináři chybí a měly by být jeho součástí?

- Jaké aktivity byste z programu semináře vypustil/a?

Měly by se podle Vás zařazovat podobné simulační a debatní aktivity i do běžných hodin? Svou odpověď prosím zdůvodněte. Pokud ano, v jakých předmětech by to bylo nejvhodnější?

FEEDBACK FORM – MUN SEMINAR

School: **Year:** kvarta / kvinta / sexta / septima / G1 / G2 / G3

Seminar activities – please explain your answers.

- Which activities do you find most beneficial?

- Which activities do you find least beneficial or problematic?

- Which activities are missing and should be included?

- Which activities would you omit?

Do you think that simulations and debates should be used also in regular lessons? Please explain. If you think they should, which subjects are most suitable, in your opinion?

Appendix 5: Data collection instruments – Self-perceived communication competence scale

Code: _____

Self-Perceived Communication Competence Scale (SPCC)

Directions: Below are twelve situations in which you might need to communicate. People's abilities to communicate effectively vary a lot, and sometimes the same person is more competent to communicate in one situation than in another. Please indicate how competent you believe you are to communicate in each of the situations described below. Indicate in the space provided at the left of each item your estimate of your competence.

Note: The following statements refer to situations in which you're using English.

0 = completely incompetent and 100 = competent.

- _____ 1. Present a talk to a group of strangers.
- _____ 2. Talk with an acquaintance.
- _____ 3. Talk in a large meeting of friends.
- _____ 4. Talk in a small group of strangers.
- _____ 5. Talk with a friend.
- _____ 6. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.
- _____ 7. Talk with a stranger.
- _____ 8. Present a talk to a group of friends.
- _____ 9. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.
- _____ 10. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.
- _____ 11. Talk in a small group of friends.
- _____ 12. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

Source document: McCroskey, J. C., & McCroskey, L. L. (2013). Self-Perceived Communication Competence Scale (SPCC). Retrieved from <http://www.midss.org/sites/default/files/spccs.pdf>

Appendix 6: Data collection instruments – Questions for semi-structured interviews

The interviews were structured around three topic areas:

1) About MUN in general

1. How would you describe the MUN activity in your own words?
2. How are you currently involved in MUN?
3. What, in your opinion, are the main advantages of the FLT global simulation method?
4. What, in your opinion, are the main drawbacks of the FLT global simulation method?

2) Impact of MUN participation on students

5. What impact does the use of the FLT global simulation have on the development on upper-secondary school students' global and civic knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes? What factors facilitate the development of these, if any?
6. What impact does the use of the FLT global simulation have on the development on upper-secondary school students' communicative competence? What factors facilitate the development of these, if any?

3) MUN seminar proposal

7. What are the main advantages of the FLT global simulation method when employed in the proposed seminar design at the upper-secondary school level?
8. What are the main drawbacks of the FLT global simulation method when employed in the proposed seminar design at the upper-secondary school level?
9. What are ideal conditions for implementation of the FLT global simulation method in the proposed seminar design at the upper-secondary school level? Think of the following: study year, age, number of students in the class, repeated participation in the seminar, competences of the teacher.

Appendix 7: Interview 1 transcript

N.B. The code in the brackets annotates the interview number (before dot) and question number (after dot).

The first set of questions explores the MUN activity as an example of the global simulation method. How would you describe the MUN activity in your own words? (I1.1)

I think MUN is a great project through which students learn through doing something, through actively participating. What I really like about it is the complex nature of it, that they have to do some research and they have to put their knowledge into practice by communicating about what they have learned and what they have thought about. The social aspect is very valuable for me. Even during the seminar sessions, they somehow create relations with the other students. During the conference there is also this informal aspect of it which is very valuable for me.

How are you personally involved in MUN? (I1.2)

I am currently an MUN director in our school.

What does this involve? (I1.3)

There is an organisational aspect of it, which means that I am in charge of the coordination of the preparatory activities before the conference. I am also in charge of setting up the seminar at the beginning of the school year. Our MUN seminars are an extra-curricular activity which involves coordinating and dividing students that sign up into groups according their time preferences. Then I teach MUN which means doing activities that focus on debating according to the rules of the parliamentary debate, writing resolutions and policy papers, country position papers, and simulating the actual conference debate that takes place during committee sessions.

What, in your opinion, are the main advantages of the global simulation method, as used in foreign language teaching? (I1.4)

I believe that during global simulation activities the students have to get acquainted with very important issues, such as political, cultural, or social issues, which they should know about. Through researching the topic and getting ready to debate the topic, students have to considerably extend their vocabulary, use formal phrases and language and some structures that are relevant for the way they need to express themselves in that kind of communication environment. They have to be very active throughout the preparation. At the same time, they have their preparation under control because they can be sure that if they research well, they will have more to talk about and thus will have a chance to be more active in the debate. What I find important is the strong focus on the active participation of the students. The students

have to get somehow personally involved in the debate, because without being personally involved, they can't enjoy himself or herself.

Is it important for the students to have a chance to influence the topic they are working on? (I1.5)

Well, it depends on the focus of the sessions. I definitely would support for the students to have the opportunity to choose the topics of discussions and debates of the seminar sessions but then when they are getting ready for the conference, I don't think they have much chance to actually influence the topic because the topics are firmly set, as they are based on the MUN agenda. In the period which is not immediately prior to the conference, I would definitely advise the coach or the MUN teacher to let the students participate in choosing the topic, because it's very important for them to speak about something they feel strongly about. It doesn't necessarily have to be political, it can be something that concerns school issues, e.g. whether we should change shoes at school or not, and similar, before they actually proceed to the heavier, global topics.

What, in your opinion, are the main drawbacks of the global simulation method? (I1.6)

If the MUN is done as an extracurricular subject or seminar, the problem is that, obviously, there are lots of other extracurricular activities that the students are involved in; and those that are really interested might not simply find enough time for that. Another thing is that because it focuses on political and cultural-political issues, some students will not choose it, because although they are great speakers and are interested in discussions and would like to improve their speaking skills, they simply don't feel like discussing political issues because they are interested in some other fields. To sum up, the problems are finding enough time and then the actual nature of MUN, the heavier topics.

What motivates students to participate? (I1.7)

Sometimes, it's the experience shared by the older students – that MUN is alright, that it is about politics and heavy stuff, but it's also great fun. As you have it as an extracurricular seminar, you have students from different classes and sometimes you make friends with other people, and this might be quite enjoyable. Obviously, taking part in the conference is quite a motivation because there are students from other schools. At our school, we have an international conference so it is a great opportunity to meet people from outside the country, including native speakers of English, so there is this motivation. And some people simply come and promise they would stay for a week or two in the seminar, and then they decide they like politics after all, and they don't mind. Or maybe they like the other people in the seminar and they stay because of them.

Now, we are going to discuss the impact of MUN participation on the students. In your opinion, what impact does the use of the global simulation method have on the development on upper-secondary school students' global and civic knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes? (I1.8)

I believe MUN and related activities are great opportunities to grow as a personality, for several reasons. The young people have to learn, get a lot of knowledge about the topic and the country's policy, and knowing obviously means that they maybe become even more tolerant. Usually, if you don't know much about a country, about a group, you criticise them or feel hostile towards them, so getting enough knowledge is a prerequisite for actually being able to solve the problems of the country, of being tolerant towards the country or other countries. Also, during the debates, they have to learn to listen quietly to the opponent or the fellow delegate, and wait patiently till the opponent finishes their speech, which is a good skill, I believe, and then respond in a polite, but convincing way. So they are learning the art of actually being somehow understanding, of trying to understand the point of view of someone else, while at the same time trying to be able to persuade the others that your point of view should be considered. I think these are great social skills that can be useful throughout your whole life.

There is a quote “MUN helps you to see the world as others see it”. Do you agree with it? (I1.9)

Yes, I absolutely agree with that.

You've mentioned that these skills can be used in the students' future lives. How? (I1.10)

Absolutely, I do believe they can use them. If we slightly simplify it, these skills include learning to understand each other, to know as much as you can about each other, and how to accept each other. If you have a problem with someone, you try to solve it in a non-violent, polite way. So this is very general, but I believe this is something that would make life much easier if we all were able to abide by it.

Do you think that global simulation develops knowledge of global issues? (I1.11)

Yes, I do believe so. Again, that's a prerequisite, because before you get ready for the conference, you have to study. If you want to enjoy the conference you need to study a lot, you need to learn a lot, and you need to have a lot of information. Even in the seminar sessions, which do not focus on the actual conference activities, I'm sure you can learn a lot, because other students or the teacher choose the topic that is somehow relevant, so you get more informed. And it's a team activity, in the seminar sessions you discuss the issues with the other students, so you get enriched by how the others see the same issue, whether it's a heavy issue, or something just for fun. It definitely broadens the mind in general.

What impact does the use of the FLT global simulation have on the development on upper-secondary school students' communicative competence in general, and in English in particular? (I1.12)

Most of the students who come to the MUN seminars and sessions are interested in the topic, so it's very natural for them to enjoy learning vocabulary or grammar related to the topics, because they read and talk about the issues they are interested in. Also, speaking skills,

obviously, are developed in a great way because you have to speak clearly. Your speech has to be structured, so one of the main focuses is not to be all over the place but speak to the point.

How do you help your students to develop this skill, to talk to the point? Is there a specific way? (I1.13)

I tell them that to make their point clear, they have to be aware of the main idea they would like to get across, and that they should start presenting their argument in a very brief introduction to it. Then they should try to give some convincing arguments, and then conclude. Basically, this means: introduce your argument, use convincing support and evidence, and then conclude to give the audience or the others something to remember from your speech. They also need to express themselves clearly. Last, but not least, use the non-verbal and para-verbal means, i.e. modulate the voice, stress, pauses, speaking up. These are also very important because very often the students who do the MUN end up being quite confident speakers who really are heard, compared to the others.

Now we're getting to the next part of the interview which concerns the MUN seminar proposal that you've studied. There are a few questions I would like to ask. The first one being: What are the main advantages of the FLT global simulation method when employed in the proposed seminar design at the upper-secondary school level? What advantages can you see if you imagine yourself working with the seminar as outlined? (I1.14)

I find the seminar proposal very comprehensive, very thorough, and at the same time quite flexible. A teacher who may be a beginner MUN director may get a very good orientation and a guideline here. Those who are already more experienced and would like to maybe add something to the proposal, they still find the very structure of it very useful and very practical. I think it's simply ideal for a teacher who is a language teacher and would like the MUN to be not only a seminar that somehow develops the social skills or the personality of the students, their moral values and so forth, but also to develop the language through it, because in each unit, there is always a focus on the vocabulary or the language that is relevant, and there the focus is quite specific. I've seen some of the proposed handouts which are very much about comprehension, the language development as well as skills. I find it – linguistically – very enriching, if I may say so.

Thank you. Can you see any drawbacks or disadvantages of the proposal? (I1.15)

I'm afraid I can't, really. Having had some experience of MUN teaching, I've done a lot of similar activities, and when I see each of the units and the way they are structured, I can say this would probably be my ideal lesson. I would definitely use it as a textbook or manual. Sorry, I can't see any drawbacks, I would appreciate it as it is, if it was offered to me.

Can you imagine using some of the activities in your regular English lessons, or is it more suitable for the extracurricular use? (I1.16)

I would definitely welcome the opportunity to use some of them in the regular lesson, especially when we do some of the issues such as environment, human rights, or similar topics. I would use it either with the younger students that follow the textbook where some of these issues are presented, so I would definitely use it as an additional material, or with the senior students that are getting ready for their maturita presentations and might find it really useful to learn relevant vocabulary related to the topic and then discuss it according to some particular instructions or following the steps. That could be very useful and I would definitely use it in the lesson.

You've mentioned that you have an extra-curricular subject at your school. Could you tell me how it is structured, how many lessons per week you have, and how the students are selected? (I1.17)

The students are not the same age group; there are students from the age of 15 till 19. We have two groups and they meet once a week for 90 minutes.

Does it happen that the students repeat the seminar, or do they usually participate just once? (I1.18)

Right now, there are a lot of students who will be doing the seminar for even three years, there are a lot of newcomers this year. To answer your question, it happens quite often, 50% or maybe even more than that stay.

Is it beneficial, or is it problematic? Or is it something in between? (I1.19)

It's mostly beneficial, there are a few, very few, who sometimes find it a bit trying, the fact that although being advanced, they are in the same session as young students who are only learning the basics. This is quite exceptional because we try to do it in such a way that the more advanced are already responsible, co-coaching the younger ones.

So you employ peer-learning here. (I1.20)

Yes, exactly. And the young ones are usually very happy to have the advanced ones, and are not really intimidated or discouraged. Before they come, the younger ones may feel that they will be intimidated or scared to speak in front of those advanced ones, but once they stay for a seminar or two, they relax.

What are the ideal conditions for the seminar? You've just described how the seminar works here; would you change anything if you could influence it? (I1.21)

It would be great if MUN was compulsory. One practical consequence would be that it would be taught also in the mornings, not late in the afternoons.

We are talking about compulsory in the sense of semi-compulsory, i.e. the students would choose this seminar from a selection of other semi-compulsory subjects, right? (I1.22)

Yes, the students could choose either this seminar, or the English literature, or Rhetoric, or something else. It would be great because it would become a fixed part of the timetable, not waiting till some gap in the timetable somewhere very late in the afternoon when all the classes participating happen to be free. So it would be great if it could be one of the mandatory seminars for the same age group. Which, according to what I said previously, might be a disadvantage, because the aspect of peer learning would be missing, obviously. But for the continuity, for the comfort of the teacher, and for securing maximum possibility of attendance, it would be great, because very often some other activities happen in the afternoon and some people just can't make it to the MUN seminar and then they have to catch up. Also, maybe meeting more than once a week would definitely help but that's so ideal that it's not realistic; especially before the conference it would be great if we could meet twice a week, but that's just not realistic. The number of students in the group that we have, which is around 15, sometimes a bit more or bit less, is quite convenient and quite good for an active working atmosphere.

The last point I would like to address are the competences of the MUN teacher. What kind of teacher should teach MUN? (I1.23)

The ideal teacher would be one with the qualification in teaching languages as well as in social science, possibly history. Very often it's taught by English teachers whose only qualification is English; which is fine, but then obviously the teacher has to do quite a lot of research just to make sure he or she can actually guide the students, so ideally, someone who is really trained in history or social studies.

Is there anything else you would like to say or ask about? (I1.23)

I do hope the proposal be successful and as many schools as possible will use it.

Thank you for the interview.

Appendix 8: Interview 2 transcript

We are going to start with the first set of questions which are about the MUN activity as a global simulation method. How would you describe the MUN activity in your own words? (I2.1)

The MUN activity, in my view, is a type of integrated activity. It is a set of methods that aim at teaching a set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and they do that through simulating committees of the General Assembly of the United Nations. They do that as a means to show the students a broader perspective of the international politics and the conflicts they live in and so to introduce them to topics that UN, the international community generally faces.

You have mentioned MUN in relation to knowledge, skills, and attitudes, but we are also talking about MUN as used in foreign language teaching. How does MUN as used in language teaching differ from a general MUN? (I2.2)

I suppose that the main difference is in what language you teach and have your MUN in. I can easily imagine having MUN sessions, seminars, or even conferences in your own language, and then it's probably not that much about language teaching. Or you may deliberately have it a foreign language, especially in English, and then, on the top of all I've mentioned previously, you add this language dimension. And of course you imitate a situation in which students are made or encouraged to use a language in natural circumstances where they need to communicate with each other or with their partners, either from the same school speaking the same language, or from different countries, in which case English is a necessity.

Can you tell me how you are involved in MUN? (I2.3)

I am not involved in MUN anymore, but I used to train our school delegation. I trained them for about three years. And we organised one of the MUN conferences which hosted over 200 delegates, I believe, and our team was also participating in other conferences abroad. The team could have about 15 members on average, I guess.

What exactly was your role in the preparation? (I2.4)

My task was to prepare the students, that means to discuss various issues with them and teach them the technique of debating and the way MUN conferences work. And then when we were preparing our own conference, then I was of course participating in the organisation.

Now we are going to talk about advantages and disadvantages of the method as such. What, in your opinion, are the main advantages of the FLT global simulation method? (I2.5)

I guess that the simulation, the fact that the students get roles and they have to play them, this fact motivates them, gives them responsibility, it gives them the right to act as a representative of a certain state. In my experience, many students need a certain role to overcome shyness

and gain responsibility for their individual learning or task they have to do. So this simulated aspect of it I think is very beneficial.

Then of course there is the international dimension, because international issues tend to be very complex, difficult, time-consuming, above the standard curriculum that schools traditionally have, so this seminar bridges that gap and offers, at least to those who want to participate in that seminar, a chance to concentrate on these topics.

And then, when we are talking about using a foreign language for MUN, of course it's a very good and natural practice of the language where there arise many authentic opportunities to use the language. You then learn certain phrases or vocabulary of MUN that is necessary for a successful participation in conferences and debates.

Can the skills that the students gain be used outside of the MUN activity? (I2.6)

Sure. Debating, learning to structure your arguments, to present, to listen and react, even very quickly, these are useful skills. They also practise their language, apart from some words that are restricted to the MUN context. The simulated UN model gets them more interested in international affairs, so they learn something they can then follow in their future studies of international relations or they have to look into the past to connect previous issues or current state with the future so it helps them see a historical perspective. So yes, of course, the skills are usable outside of the MUN reality.

Can you see any drawbacks of the method? (I2.7)

One drawback is that it tends to be more of a selective course. I believe that it is more suited for smaller groups and it is more suited for groups of those who are really into that and not a general social science class. So that could be taken as a drawback.

Another drawback is in fact the other side of the coin of one of the advantages, and that is the international perspective. Especially when we are talking about students of 14 or 15 years of age, they, in my view, have only a very rough understanding of the international context, but at the same time, they have also a very vague understanding of the national context, or even community context. I believe they should start with this communal and national context before moving to the international one, because there is a big threat that they will, more or less, learn to juggle with the words but won't really understand the consequences of what they are talking about, which is difficult even for adults or mature politicians. When we are talking about high school kids, there's a threat that they learn to speak but they don't really understand the policies they are offering or suggesting.

So that means it's more about the form, rather than the content? (I2.8)

Exactly, that's an easy way to put it.

Actually, that was my third drawback, the first was the selectiveness, the second was the international dimension, and the third was that it can easily become a form that lacks content, that teaches students something which we associate with politicians or with lawyers in a negative use of the term. They are able to reply to anything, they give you an answer that tells

you something that at the same time omits something else. They don't give you a truthful answer. Of course, in terms of language, it's good to be ready for a future stressful situations, it's good to be able to react on the spot. But when we said at the beginning that the MUN or these activities have also a value then here you're missing out on these values. You teach students to react and to get away with something without digging into these values, without standing up for the values that they should support.

Is this something that can be dealt with in a smaller group, maybe during the seminars, when you can challenge the students and their conduct? (I2.9)

Sure, the smaller and the more personal the classroom environment and the discussion is, the better. I also believe that my second and third drawbacks are connected with this issue. The more local and closer to the students the topic is, the easier it is to see the real consequences, and the less possible and less easy it is to get away with a lie, basically.

Was one of these drawbacks a reason why you decided not to continue with the project? (I2.10)

The second and third drawbacks were actually a part of my decision not to continue.

Now we are going to have a look at the second set of questions that deal with the impact of MUN participation. You have already mentioned the impact on the development of skills and knowledge, e.g. that of the UN, debating skills, and presentation of opinions. Do you think that MUN has any impact on values? That is what some of the proponents of the method claim. (I2.11)

I certainly believe that the value of responsibility is a strong one. By learning about various topics and problems of the world, and by being forced to think about them, or even by defending them in a simulated discussion, you hopefully realise that these issues should also be dealt with in your real world. And you, in a way, change your behaviour, you understand that if famine, or war, or earthquake is happening somewhere outside Europe it doesn't mean that Europe doesn't have to deal with it, doesn't have to react to it. You understand that you can help by writing to the people, by organising donation, by giving yourself to charities, by supporting environmental changes even in your country that support stable environment and not an unstable one that leads to floods and draught, etc. So responsibility is a strong value that MUNs aim at, in my opinion.

The value of leadership, of being the one who decides to take the lead, to take the action, who is trained, because not just decisions but also skills, to start something, to overcome the uncertainty, the lack of knowledge at the beginning; you organise an NGO, a petition, a meeting with the politicians. So this responsiveness and leadership could be another value.

What I have read is that MUNs develop democratic values and tolerance. What do you think about that? (I2.12)

I can see where this leads to. Those two values I was talking about earlier are certainly connected to democracy or democratic approach. Tolerance or respect to others is also a part of it, or it could be. Even though they may not be reached in MUN sessions, they may certainly be among the goals and I am sure some MUNs aim at them and reach them.

The reason why respect and tolerance didn't come to my mind so easily is probably because the competitiveness of MUNs, the way you're encouraged to fight for your state, and reach the goal or consensus that is the best for your country, i.e. the one you are debating for. It teaches you the formal kind of respect, so you don't shout at people, you wait until you get the word, you politely thank them for their view or argument but then you confront them, sometimes very severely in terms of the arguments you use. It supports the diplomatic way of dealing with others but not necessarily respect, in my view. Of course, if reaching common consensus even with the inclusion of smaller countries that have less power in the international framework, there I understand that respect or tolerance are supported and are then among the values supported by MUN.

Let us now move away from values to the use of foreign language. Can you see any improvement in terms of MUN participants' communicative competence? (I2.13)

I do. From my experience, I strongly believe that because of the way English and other foreign languages are taught in the Czech Republic, Czechs are very much afraid of making mistakes and we don't speak unless we are very much sure that we'll put it right, which is in fact luxury. It's a comfort you can enjoy if you don't have to speak, whereas if you want to do your job right in the MUN context, you have to speak, otherwise you lose a point or your country won't be included in some coalition or whatever. And the framework of a game, where it's not that serious after all and where you're not as 'you' but as a representative of a country you've probably never been to, helps you to overcome this luxury, as I've put it, or this shame or the tendency to be perfect and not to speak. So in these terms I believe that it really opens the people up and makes them communicate because they have to, especially if they're there with non-Czech speakers. And sometimes it may be better if those speakers are not native English speakers because you're on the same level and with Italians or Germans you cannot speak any other language than English. You are on the same level and it makes the communication easier, it brings less embarrassment to you and you probably even realise that you are not that bad speaker after all. So I believe that MUNs certainly aim at or if not aim then help develop communicative competence.

So if I understand it correctly, it's because the learning situation is much more natural. (I2.14)

Yes, certainly, although it's simulated.

The third set of questions deals with the seminar proposal that you've read. I am interested in knowing what you think the main advantages of the FLT global simulation method when employed in the proposed seminar design? (I2.15)

The obvious advantage is that it's very detailed. It's done in a way that even without great experience of MUNating you should be – and I believe you would be – able to introduce your students to MUN principals and guide them toward being successful MUN participants. The fact that it's divided into units, rather than compulsory lessons in a given order that you have to follow is, in my view, an advantage. Earlier we were talking about the fact that this way of teaching is typically not for a general classroom, it's for selected people who, for various reasons, want to participate, or for teachers who want to have their one seminar in which to use this method. So I expect that the teacher is more than average motivated to carry out this method of teaching and such a teacher will probably be happier to have blocks he or she can use rather than a road map he or she has to follow from Day 1 or Kilometre 1 till the very end. So providing blocks that you can adapt to you and your teaching style, to your classroom and its needs is a big advantage, of course.

The more practical it is, the better, so there was a set of handouts that belong to that. I find them to be a good and entertaining way to learn MUN. I also liked that there are questions that you have to answer and all that.

I also like the fact that it involves self-evaluation, so that students are expected to evaluate on their progress as speakers or as learners in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, because I believe that self-evaluation is a powerful tool to move forward in any context.

This happens during the debriefing sessions, for example after the conference. (I2.16)

Right.

You are using a lot of references to international accessible literature which also gives it a feeling that it has not been written by some obscure teacher somewhere in an obscure classroom but that it's actually a respected and most probably efficient method to use, in the given context at least. So those who are interested in learning more can easily go to the sources you provide.

And then I like the chart (*referring to Table 20*) that gives examples of how the units were used and in what order they were used. It gives three different approaches, although not completely different, three variations of how you can put these units together.

Can you see any drawbacks? (I2.17)

My drawbacks would be those I mentioned earlier when I was talking about MUN in general.

And if you should talk specifically about the subject proposal, can you see anything that could be problematic? (I2.18)

Judging by my own experience I believe it's very important to see MUN working somewhere before you actually start teaching it, or at least for my type of teacher. Because the proposal has some 60, 70 pages, you'd have to read it all in order to get into that, and it's certainly not all you should know before you start introducing it successfully in your classroom. So because it's not one method you use but a combination of methods – there is the international dimension, there is English into that – it's actually very difficult to handle it all at once. So an

encouragement to see it working before actually introducing it would be one recommendation. Thinking about how you can transfer this experience to your readers even when they don't have an opportunity to really be there and see it somehow, perhaps guide them to this.

In some of the units, video extracts from conferences are used and the worksheets are connected to the videos. Do you think that's something that could help? (I2.19)

Sure, that's certainly a way to approach it.

In the MUN context, people tend to use a lot of abbreviations and words that are not a part of general language knowledge. That again can scare some people off.

Are you talking about delegates, or MUN teachers? Or both? (I2.20)

Both, actually. I understand that this is a manual for teachers. If I were a teacher and I was reading about UN, ECOSOC, UNICEF, WHO... you know, there are many abbreviations. And of course having been a part of MUN for a couple of years I now understand what they stand for. But this is also an issue to deal with, all this 'methodology' that MUN takes pleasure in having.

Having said so, unless you have an opportunity to be an assistant to somebody who uses MUN as a teaching strategy for a while, having a detailed guidebook with references, with video excerpts, with concrete tips, with an example syllabus, I believe that is the way to make people be able to absorb the method and use it efficiently.

I might not be critical enough...

Perhaps, again a suggestion... Going through that, it is somewhere in between an academic writing about MUN and a practical guide for teachers. So if this were really to be given to teachers in order to get into that, then perhaps it could be less academic.

This would concern the first part, the curricular introduction... (referring to 8.2.3.1) (I2.21)

...or where you have the section where you debate how different people approach what the goals are that they actually pursue, you have seven different opinions (*referring to the 'Coursework evaluation' section in Unit 0*), which is interesting from an academic point of view, but if I were a teacher reading through it for the first time, I would go like: "Wow, if these five people see it so differently, how am I to get it right?" So I would reduce it to, let's say, two approaches that make sense and that are different, but five or six is perhaps a little bit too much.

I have praised the referencing but perhaps you could reduce some referencing that you actually don't need for implementing it because there is enough of it elsewhere.

Thank you. You've mentioned several times that this method is suited for teachers who really want to focus on MUN. Is the simulation method something that could be used in regular English lessons? Or some bits of it, maybe? (I2.22)

Some bits of it, exactly. In the beginning, I attempted to characterise the MUN as an integrated method, as a set of many different approaches and methods. These individual methods can of course be used, I believe very successfully. They bring some life into classrooms, they change the seating or the way classrooms operate. All that is very beneficial for learning English.

This complex set of methods and this complex view of things requires a lot of preparation on the part of the teacher, and understanding, patience, and discipline on the part of the students. You even mention it in your proposal that even if you have a special seminar devoted to simulations, you start with simple steps and you find your way and you help the students to find their way into how MUN operates, mastering the terminology, methods, etc. So these little steps can of course be used very efficiently in general classrooms.

Which brings me to the last question: What do you think are the ideal conditions for having the seminar? (I2.23)

When we are talking about the whole ‘MUN bundle’ and not about using individual methods here and there, there I believe that the ideal setting is a seminar for those who volunteer to take the class, both on the students’ and teachers’ part. The size would be around 12 students.

What about the age? (I2.24)

Upper-secondary. Because of the time constraints towards the end of their secondary studies I have no problems with starting at the age of 14, for example. One of the pains of our programme was that students especially not in months prior to the conferences were not coming regularly to the classes. Sometimes it was because some other classes were taking place or they had too much homework. So this again should be dealt with because using MUN as this integrated method requires that all students take all the steps and not that they come and go because of other classes.

Do you think students should take part in the seminar just once, or repeatedly? (I2.25)

If everybody took two or three years, let’s say three years, it would make it ideal, because he or she learns the steps, methods, the way of working throughout the first year, he or she more or less successfully applies them in the second year, then they serve as models and helpers to the younger ones in the third year. Having more than three might be unnecessary. First, because they might not feel that they learn so much, or because they might feel they have learnt everything already and may start spoiling the programme in way.

And, finally, what kind of teacher should teach MUN? (I2.26)

It of course depends on who is available and what the main goals of the particular MUN are. As long as there is more emphasis on the language, then we of course need somebody who speaks the language being used. And if we concentrate more on knowledge and on building the historical perspective, international dimension, and seeing local things through international eyes, then of course we need somebody who is well-read. Of course, the ideal is

a combination, which is very difficult to find. Honestly, unless the teacher leading this subject has, let's say, six hours of working load devoted only to this seminar, it's very difficult to prepare classes that are well-prepared, challenging, well-resourced, both from the language perspective, i.e. methods used, and from the content point of view. When students need to write their policy papers, when doing the proof-reading or providing comments, you should not only be able to read it in terms of language, both general English and specific MUN English, but also in terms of what Venezuela or Guatemala or Australia thinks about global warming, rights of women, or rights of Muslims. And unless you devoted much time earlier in your studies, or have those let's say six hours a week of paid work that you can devote to making your research, you won't be able to do it. You will then only concentrate on those two first aspects, i.e. English and MUN English, but not on the content which is in the resolutions.

So what you are saying is that it's demanding in terms of both time devoted to preparation and in terms of knowledge of the content and of the issues... (I2.27)

... and your command of English and command of international historical perspective. So you basically need superteachers for that. Which goes hand in hand with the nature of the approach which integrates different traditional disciplines or subjects, which then requires you to know all the areas that are involved.

Is there anything else you would like to say or ask about? (I2.28)

I am torn in between praising and recommending the programme and warning against getting too much into that. The advantages and drawbacks are both very strong and neither of them has fully overcome the other. My recommendation would be to take all the good from the MUN simulation but try to bring it to a much more local context. Use the good methods in regular classrooms so that more students benefit from it. And make sure that those who take it as the whole method and go all the way through even the international cooperation don't lose grip of the local, don't take it only as a form. And, because this involves a lot of travelling, that they don't lose touch with the fact that going to California for an MUN, which we for example did, makes them very fortunate, and not an event they simply easily deserve to visit every year.

Thank you very much.

Set 2 – Supplementary Materials to the Guide for Teachers

Appendix 9: List of discussion topics / statements

Appendix 10: MUN Glossary

Appendix 11: Recommended resources

Appendix 12: Worksheets and placards

Appendix 9: List of discussion topics / statements

Topic	Statement	Source
Social welfare and justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The care of the sick and elderly is the state's responsibility. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beggars on the streets is the sign of an uncaring society. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poverty is the result of social exploitation by the rich. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rehabilitation, rather than punishment, is more likely to reduce crime. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Criminals are victims of the society that made them the way they are. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capital punishment makes society as bad as the murderers it condemns. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women are not capable of performing jobs in fields such as politics, economics and the military as well as men. 	Macmillan 2010
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is never acceptable to take another person's life, whatever crime they have committed. 	Macmillan 2010
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some drugs should be legalised. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Terminally ill people have the right to end their life. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Men and women can never be equal. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The death penalty is justifiable for some crimes. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The government should lie to its citizens under certain circumstances. 	ADK, 2014
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Immigration is generally a good thing. 	Teach-this, 2017
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Democratic governments should not limit freedom of expression. 	ADK, 2014	
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Society should try to provide a basic education for all young children. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Educational until adulthood is a human right. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Society's provision of lifelong learning is essential to personal development. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers should be able to use physical punishment. 	Teach-this, 2017
Environment and animal rights	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We are not doing enough to protect the planet. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recycling all possible materials should be compulsory. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Car ownership is an unnecessary luxury that endangers the 	Gammidge 2004

	environment and should be severely restricted.	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Killing animals for sport is cruel. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Killing animals for scientific or medical research is immoral. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eating meat is murder. 	Gammidge 2004
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We should support the development and use of genetically modified organisms. 	ADK, 2014
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Climate change is a myth. 	Teach-this, 2017
Lifestyle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is better to take any job than to be unemployed. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social networking sites are a waste of time. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Living in the city is better than living in the countryside. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most important thing about a job is the money. 	Teach-this, 2017
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You can tell a lot about a person from the clothes s/he wears. 	Teach-this, 2017

Appendix 10: MUN Glossary

source: United Nations Association of USA (2017). *Model UN Glossary*. Retrieved from <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/getting-started/model-un-glossary>

Model UN can be confusing to a beginner, not only because of the complexity of the issues and the pace of debate, but because of the strangeness of the language. To save you some confusion, UNA-USA has provided this cheat sheet of Model UN terminology. Look it over, and soon you'll be able to discuss quorum, preambulatory clauses, division of the question, and unmoderated caucuses with the best of them. Note that several of the terms below, including Secretariat and Secretary-General, have different meanings in Model UN than they do in the real UN; you should familiarize yourself with both meanings.

Abstain: During a vote on a substantive matter, delegates may abstain rather than vote yes or no. This generally signals that a country does not support the resolution being voted on, but does not oppose it enough to vote no.

Adjourn: All UN or Model UN sessions end with a vote to adjourn. This means that the debate is suspended until the next meeting. This can be a short time (e.g., overnight) or a long time (until next year's conference).

Agenda: The order in which the issues before a committee will be discussed. The first duty of a committee following the roll call is usually to set the agenda.

Amendment: A change to a draft resolution on the floor. Can be of two types: a "friendly amendment" is supported by the original draft resolution's sponsors, and is passed automatically, while an "unfriendly amendment" is not supported by the original sponsors and must be voted on by the committee as a whole.

Background guide: A guide to a topic being discussed in a Model UN committee usually written by conference organizers and distributed to delegates before the conference. The starting point for any research before a Model UN conference.

Binding: Having legal force in UN member states. Security Council resolutions are binding, as are decisions of the International Court of Justice; resolutions of the General Assembly and Economic and Social Council are not.

Bloc: A group of countries in a similar geographical region or with a similar opinion on a particular topic. Blocs typically vote together.

Caucus: A break in formal debate in which countries can more easily and informally discuss a topic. There are two types: moderated caucus and unmoderated caucus.

Chair: A member of the dais that moderates debate, keeps time, rules on points and motions, and enforces the rules of procedure. Also known as a Moderator.

Dais: The group of people, usually high school or college students, in charge of a Model UN committee. It generally consists of a Chair, a Director, and a Rapporteur. The dais is also the raised platform on which the chair traditionally sits.

Decorum: The order and respect for others that all delegates at a Model UN conference must exhibit. The Chair will call for decorum when he or she feels that the committee is not being respectful of a speaker, of the dais, or of their roles as ambassadors.

Delegate: A student acting as a representative of a member state or observer in a Model UN committee.

Delegation: The entire group of people representing a member state or observer in all committees at a particular Model UN conference. They are usually all from the same school.

Director: A member of the dais that oversees the creation of working papers and draft resolutions, acts as an expert on the topic, makes sure delegates accurately reflect the policy of their countries, and ensures that decorum is maintained during caucuses.

Division of the Question: During voting bloc, delegates may motion to vote on certain clauses of a resolution separately, so that only the clauses that are passed become part of the final resolution. This is known as division of the question.

Draft resolution: A document that seeks to fix the problems addressed by a Model UN committee. If passed by the committee, the draft resolution will become into a resolution.

Faculty Advisor: The faculty member in charge of a Model UN team, class or club.

Flow of debate: The order in which events proceed during a Model UN conference. This usually indicates the movement between formal and informal debate and the process of drafting, debating and voting on resolutions.

Gavel: The tool, shaped like a small wooden hammer, which the Chair uses to keep order within a Model UN committee. Many conferences give the gavel used in a committee to the delegate recognized by the dais as the best in that committee; therefore, the term is frequently used to refer to the award given to the best delegate, even in cases where no actual gavel is given.

Formal debate: The "standard" type of debate at a Model UN conference, in which delegates speak for a certain time in an order based on a speakers' list.

Head Delegate: The student leader of a Model UN club or team.

Member State: A country that has ratified the Charter of the United Nations and whose application to join has been accepted by the General Assembly and Security Council. Currently, there are 193 member states.

Moderated Caucus: A type of caucus in which delegates remain seated and the Chair calls on them one at a time to speak for a short period of time, enabling a freer exchange of opinions than would be possible in formal debate.

Moderator: see Chair.

Motion: A request made by a delegate that the committee as a whole do something. Some motions might be to go into a caucus, to adjourn, to introduce a draft resolution, or to move into voting procedure.

Observer: A state, national organization, regional organization, or non-governmental organization that is not a member of the UN but participates in its debates. Observers can vote on procedural matters but not substantive matters. An example is the Holy See.

On the floor: At a Model UN conference, when a working paper or draft resolution is first written, it may not be discussed in debate. After it is approved by the Director and introduced by the committee, it is put "on the floor" and may be discussed.

Operative clause: The part of a resolution which describes how the UN will address a problem. It begins with an action verb (decides, establishes, recommends, etc.).

Page: A delegate in a Model UN committee that has volunteered to pass notes from one delegate to another, or from a delegate to the dais, for a short period of time.

Placard: A piece of cardstock with a country's name on it that a delegate raises in the air to signal to the Chair that he or she wishes to speak.

Point: A request raised by a delegate for information or for an action relating to that delegate. Examples include a point of order, a point of inquiry, and a point of personal privilege

Position (policy) paper: A summary of a country's position on a topic, written by a delegate before a Model UN conference.

Preambulatory Clause: The part of a resolution that describes previous actions taken on the topic and reasons why the resolution is necessary. It begins with a participle or adjective (noting, concerned, regretting, aware of, recalling, etc.).

Procedural: Having to do with the way a committee is run, as opposed to the topic being discussed. All delegates present must vote on procedural matters and may not abstain.

Quorum: The minimum number of delegates needed to be present for a committee to meet. In the General Assembly, a quorum consists of one third of the members to begin debate, and a majority of members to pass a resolution. In the Security Council, no quorum exists for the body to debate, but nine members must be present to pass a resolution.

Rapporteur: A member of the dais whose duties include keeping the speakers' list and taking the roll call, as well as assisting in and keeping track of administrative duties in the committee room.

Resolution: A document that has been passed by an organ of the UN that aims to address a particular problem or issue.

Right of Reply: A right to speak in reply to a previous speaker's comment, invoked when a delegate feels personally insulted by another's speech. Generally requires a written note to the Chair to be invoked.

Roll Call: The first order of business in a Model UN committee, during which the Rapporteur reads aloud the names of each member state in the committee. When a delegate's country's name is called, he or she may respond "present" or "present and voting." A delegate responding "present and voting" may not abstain on a substantive vote.

Rules of Procedure: The rules by which a Model UN committee is run.

Second: To agree with a motion being proposed. Many motions must be seconded before they can be brought to a vote.

Secretariat: The staff of a Model UN conference.

Secretary-General: The leader of a Model UN conference.

Signatory: A country that wishes a draft resolution to be put on the floor and signs the draft resolution to accomplish this. A signatory need not support a resolution; it only wants it to be discussed. Usually, Model UN conferences require some minimum number of sponsors and signatories for a draft resolution to be approved.

Simple majority: 50% plus one vote of the number of delegates in a committee. The amount needed to pass most votes.

Speakers' List: A list that determines the order in which delegates will speak. Whenever a new topic is opened for discussion, the Chair will create a speakers' list by asking all delegates wishing to speak to raise their placards and calling on them one at a time. During debate, a delegate may indicate that he or she wishes to be added to the speakers' list by sending a note to the dais.

Sponsor: One of the writers of a draft resolution. A friendly amendment can only be created if all sponsors agree.

Substantive: Having to do with the topic being discussed. A substantive vote is a vote on a draft resolution or amendment already on the floor during voting bloc. Only member states (not observer states or non-governmental organizations) may vote on substantive issues.

Unmoderated Caucus (Lobbying): A type of caucus in which delegates leave their seats to mingle and speak freely. Enables the free sharing of ideas to an extent not possible in formal debate or even a moderated caucus. Frequently used to sort countries into blocs and to write working papers and draft resolutions.

Working Paper: A document in which the ideas of some delegates on how to resolve an issue are proposed. Frequently the precursor to a draft resolution.

Veto: The ability, held by China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States to prevent any draft resolution in the Security Council from passing by voting no.

Vote: A time at which delegates indicate whether they do or do not support a proposed action for the committee. There are two types: procedural and substantive.

Voting procedure: The period at the end of a committee session during which delegates vote on proposed amendments and draft resolutions.

Appendix 11: Recommended resources

The resources are divided into three sections:

1. MUN resources
2. Global issues activities in English or for the ELT classroom
3. Global issues activities in Czech

MUN resources

- Miami University MUN (2010). *General Handbook Model UN*. Retrieved from <http://www.orgs.miamioh.edu/modelun/Archive/Site2010/MUMUNC/GenHandbook%20Model%20UN%20UNAR.pdf>
- Shrey, T., & Vasaramäki, V. (2009). *EYP Parliament Simulation Programme: European citizenship in the classroom: A Teacher's Guide*. Retrieved from http://www.ey.org/docs/school/9_Teaching_Material.pdf
- United Nations Association of Greater Boston (2016). *Model UN Conference Preparation Guide for Advisors*. Retrieved from <https://rmunatunagb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Preparation+Guide+for+Advisors.pdf>
- United Nations Association of Greater Boston (2017). *UNA-GB MUN Home*. <http://unagb-mun.wikispaces.com/>
- United Nations Association of the United Kingdom (2016). *The United Nations Matters: Teaching pack*. Retrieved from <http://www.una.org.uk/teach-un>
- United Nations Association of the USA (2017). *Model UN Resources*. Retrieved from <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/for-educators/resources>

Global issues activities in English or for the ELT classroom

- Clare, G. (2013). *The Mystery of the Golden Stars: Activity Guide*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Datz, M. (2009). *Join the game: Champions for South Africa*. Bonn: Jugend Dritte Welt. Retrieved from <http://www.join-the-game.org/dvd/content/learning-html/en/home/index.html>
- Hlavičková, Z. (2010). *100 aktivit pro výuku angličtiny*. Praha: Portál.
- Malířová, E. (Ed.). (2012). *UnderCover: Resource Book on Global Dimensions of our Consumption for Teachers*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from <http://www.nazemi.cz/cs/undercover>
- Pavlíčková, M. et al. (2012). *La Ngonpo – A Meeting Point: Multicultural and Global Education Methodology for Partnership of Schools*. Praha: Multicultural Center Prague.
- Taylor, M. (2007). *The European Convention on Human Rights: Starting points for teachers*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Thomas, J. (Ed.) (2008). *Global issues in the ELT Classroom*. Brno: Společnost pro Fair Trade.

- UNHCR (2018). *Teaching about refugees – Teaching resources*. Retrieved from <http://www.unhcr.org/teaching-resources.html>
- UNHCR (2018). *Teaching about refugees – UNHCR Teachers' toolkit*. Retrieved from <http://www.unhcr.org/teachers-toolkit.html>

Global issues activities in Czech

- Bendová, H. et al. (2010). *Bohouš a Dáša – šance pro rozvoj*. Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/93_bohous-a-da-s-a-s-ance-pro-rozvoj.pdf
- Chatrná, M., & Ježková, M. (2014). *Hořká chuť čokolády. Kakao a dětská práce*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from <http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/kakao2014.pdf>
- Chládková, A., Chmelař, P., & Malířová, E. (2014). *Silný kafe. Káva a (ne)spravedlivý obchod*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/kava_2014.pdf
- Čajka, A. (2014). *Kdo je za vodou? Voda jako podmínka rozvoje*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/voda_cela.pdf
- Fras, M. (2013). *Průvodce interkulturní komunikací*. Praha: Dům zahraniční spolupráce. Retrieved from http://www.mladezvakci.cz/fileadmin/user_upload/publikace/Pruvodce_interkulturni_komunikaci_web.pdf
- Freidingerová, T. et al. (2015). *Bohouš a Dáša: Tváří v tvář migraci*. Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/1782_bad-migrace-web-fin-01.pdf
- Kašová, J. (2011). *Dnešní svět: Tvořivé náměty po výuku průřezových témat na 2. stupni ZŠ*. Praha: Nakladatelství Dr. Josef Raabe.
- Kociánová, K. et al. (2008). *PRŮřezNÍK aneb Jak začít s průřezovými tématy*. Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/133_pru-r-ezni-k-aneb-jak-zac-i-t-s-pru-r-ezovy-mi-te-maty.pdf
- Kociánová, K., & Skalická, P. (Eds.) (2009). *Bohouš a Dáša: Klima v tísní*. Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/115_bohous-a-da-s-a-klima-v-ti-sni.pdf
- Kratochvíl, J. (Ed.) (2008). https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/133_pru-r-ezni-k-aneb-jak-zac-i-t-s-pru-r-ezovy-mi-te-maty.pdf Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/123_bohous-a-da-s-a-za-lidska-pra-va.pdf
- Kulhánková, T., & Ruferová, Z. (2014). *Šaty dělají člověka... A kdo dělá šaty? Bavlna a pracovní podmínky v textilním průmyslu*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/bavlna_cela.pdf
- Lebeda, P. et al. (2009). *Bohouš a Dáša na tržišti světa*. Praha: Člověk v tísní. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/116_bohous-a-da-s-a-na-trz-is-ti-sve-ta.pdf

- Malířová, E. et al. (2016). *Lidé v pohybu: Metodika pro práci s kontroverzními tématy uprchlictví a migrace*. Praha: Junák a NaZemi. Retrieved from http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/lide_v_pohybu_web_0.pdf
- Marek, O. (2010). *Aktivity o Evropském parlamentu*. Praha: CpKP.
- Nádvorník, O., & Chára P. (2006). Bohouš a Dáša proti chudobě. Praha: Člověk v tísni. https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/153_bohous-a-da-s-a-proti-chudobe.pdf
- Nádvorník, O., & Volfová, A. (Eds.) (2004). *Společný svět: Příručka globálního rozvojového vzdělávání*. Praha: Člověk v tísni – společnost při České televizi, o.p.s.
- Skalická, P., & Sobotová, L. (Eds.) (2009). *Začínáme s GRV. Případová studie k začleňování globálního rozvojového vzdělávání na českých školách*. Praha: Člověk v tísni. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/100_zac-i-na-me-s-grv.pdf
- Skalická, P., & Sobotová, L. (Eds.) (2012). *Bohouš a Dáša na stopě hladu*. Praha: Člověk v tísni. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/72_bohous-a-da-s-a-na-stope-hladu.pdf
- Skalická P., & Vernerová E. (2012). *Světová škola ve světě i doma. Průvodce projektem*. Praha: Člověk v tísni. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/77_sve-tova-s-kola-ve-sve-te-i-doma-pru-vodce-projektem.pdf
- Slejška, Z., Slejšková, E., & Naar, D. (2005). *Manuál k soutěži: Jak se stát aktivním evropským občanem?* Praha: CpKP.
- Slejška, Z., Slejšková, E., & Naar, D. (2007). *12 aktivit o Evropě: balíček metodických materiálů pro výuku o EU*. Praha: CpKP.
- Sobotková, K. et al. (2014). *Bohouš a Dáša: Lednička plná potravin*. Praha: Člověk v tísni. Retrieved from https://www.varianty.cz/download/docs/27_bad-lednicka-web.pdf
- Štěrba, L. et al. (2014). *Skvrny na banánech. Jak se žije s pesticidy tropickým zemědělcům*. Praha: NaZemi. Retrieved from http://www.nazemi.cz/sites/default/files/banany_cele.pdf

Appendix 12: Worksheets and placards

In the given section, the following printable / photocopyable handouts are included:

- Placards – for and against
- Handout no. 1 – Course requirements
- Handout no. 2 – What is MUN?
- Handout no. 3 – What does the MUN do?
- Handout no. 4 – MUN vocabulary
- Handout no. 5 – UN major organs
- Handout no. 6 – Getting to know your country
- Handout no. 7 – How to write a policy paper
- Handout no. 8 – How to write a resolution
- Handout no. 9 – Structured debate
- Handout no. 10 – Guide to parliamentary procedure
- Handout no. 11 – International Court of Justice
- European Youth Parliament Motion for a Resolution by the Committee on Nonsense and Mischief

FOR

AGAINST

MODEL UNITED NATIONS



Course requirements I.

About the seminar and its aim

The purpose of seminar is to increase your knowledge of global issues and of the activities of the United Nations. You will also gain skills in public speaking, research and writing, negotiation and communication. You will gain these skills through course assignments, and, most importantly, by having the role of United Nations delegates at MUN conferences. The success in the course and at the conferences will heavily depend on your work both inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, please make sure you follow the following rules:

- come to the class on time and prepared; active participation is expected
- be willing to share your ideas and be respectful to others
- you have to have minimal attendance and complete all the assignments
- plagiarism is a severe violation of academic honesty and as such will not be tolerated

Coursework

- participation in in-class discussions, in-class assignments
- home preparation
- presentations
- resolution / policy paper
- final evaluation / essay

Most importantly, the seminar is there for you; and therefore any suggestions and ideas concerning the content of the course are welcomed. Hope you will enjoy yourselves and find the seminar useful. Feel free to contact me via email or in person.

While preparing for MUN, try to keep in mind that your primary goal is to represent your country as realistically as possible. To do so, you will need to start with research in three different areas.

Secondly, you need to prepare for resolution writing and debating.

- 1) Research
 - a. UN research
 - b. Country research
 - c. Topic research
- 2) Resolution / policy paper writing
- 3) Debating / parliamentary procedures

MODEL UNITED NATIONS

Course requirements II.

TASK - UN Presentations

Aim: to briefly introduce the given topic (organisation etc.) - only the most important and most relevant pieces of information

Criteria:

- length - 6-8 mins; Powerpoint presentation supporting your speech
- handout with an overview of the most important info (A4) - to be submitted by email as a pdf document
- sources - a min. of 3 sources correctly cited at the end of both the presentation and the handout
- you will get two separate grades

What is evaluated:

- structure of the presentation / structure of the handout, contact with audience
- content of the presentation / content of the handout, relevance to the topic, signpost language
- range and accuracy of grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency
- sources - quality, correct citation



My topic: _____

My presentation date: _____

Deadline for handout to be sent: _____

MODEL UNITED NATIONS



What is MUN?

What do you know about MUN? What do you think a delegate does?

Watch a video about MUN and answer the following questions:

1) In what ways is MUN similar to the United Nations?

2) What do you do as a delegate?

3) What happens during an MUN conference?

4) What can you gain out of MUN?

UNITED NATIONS



What does the UN do? I. - Millennium Development Goals

United Nations

Created in _____, the UN is the largest international organisation, of which almost all states of the world are _____. It is tasked with maintaining peace and security in the world, helping solve the _____ that affect us all, and promoting respect for the human _____ of all persons including children.



Millennium Summit

In _____, representatives from almost _____ member countries of the UN met to adopt the Millennium Declaration. At this summit, the goals we now know as the Millennium Development Goals were introduced.

Millennium Development Goals (MDG)

Can you identify the MDGs using the following icons?



1



2



3



4



5



6



7



8

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____

5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____ 8 _____

Post-2015 Agenda

What happens when the MDGs are done and what comes after 2015?

While a lot of progress has been made around the world to achieve the MDGs, it is not enough and we need to keep working. Many people in the world, more than 1 billion people, continue to live in poverty and experience inequality.

The UN has been promoting initiatives since 2010 to determine development priorities that need to be met within the next 15 years, from 2016 to 2030. These priorities are what we call Post-2015 Agenda. For example, priorities include ending extreme poverty and achieving equal opportunities for all.

What does the UN do? II. - Sustainable Development Goals

Watch the video created by Clara Edmonds, an 11-year old student from Geneva. Answer the questions:

- 1) How many people on Earth live in extreme poverty? 1 in _____ people
- 2) How many people are undernourished? 1 in _____ people
- 3) How many girls and boys are out of primary school? _____ million
- 4) How many young people are unable to find a job? _____ million

- 5) How many of the MDGs have been reached? Which ones?

- 6) Which other issues are the most pressing ones now? Date

- 7) What does the term "sustainable development" mean?

- 8) What, according to the survey, makes one of the biggest differences in people's lives?

- 9) How are the SDGs similar to / different from the MDGs?
 MDG - _____ issues
 SDG - _____, _____, and _____ goals

- 10) How are the following goals described?
 1-7 - _____ goals
 8-12 - _____ issues to be tackled
 13-15 - _____ issues to be tackled
 16-17 - national and global _____

Match the SDGs with their symbols:

GOAL 1 END POVERTY

GOAL 2 END HUNGER

GOAL 3 WELL-BEING

GOAL 4 QUALITY EDUCATION

GOAL 5 GENDER EQUALITY

GOAL 6 WATER AND SANITATION FOR ALL

GOAL 7 AFFORDABLE AND SUSTAINABLE ENERGY

GOAL 8 DECENT WORK FOR ALL

GOAL 9 TECHNOLOGY TO BENEFIT ALL

GOAL 10 REDUCE INEQUALITY

GOAL 11 SAFE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES

GOAL 12 RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION BY ALL

GOAL 13 STOP CLIMATE CHANGE

GOAL 14 PROTECT THE OCEAN

GOAL 15 TAKE CARE OF THE EARTH

GOAL 16 LIVE IN PEACE

GOAL 17 MECHANISMS AND PARTNERSHIPS TO REACH THE GOALS



Source: <http://whygreeneconomy.org/the-politics-of-the-sustainable-development-goals-sdgs/>

MUN VOCABULARY

4

Wordsearch

N I K F K T J Z J S M N Q F U G D G F F U W B B N
 O B L K C G A D E U A I O Q N Q P U J R C S P E H
 I G T O Q G O I O C A U N I T E D N A T I O N S X
 T T L G I G Z S Q U R S T Z A L E S J X O T V G M
 U B E E L N N A K A L O Q C S E U A O C U B P P V
 L M E V O G Z F X C V X L F Y V R X L T Z B A F M
 O L N B B L O D S D D P S L C A S V Y T C Y W Z M
 S O U C X Z M G N E Y W O B C G C Q X H Q J W Y Y
 E G S W W W D A Y T R F Y S I A U O A Z X F Z L S
 R T T X O V T Z M A D D Y X I O L I B C G T O P P
 R Y A Y W N D Z U R R Z F E R T R L T I M L U W E
 E T F I E T C M R E U D E U D P I E T A B E D I A
 Y T O S R T Z V Y D Z M M Y E I R O Q C S C P U K
 I O E Q S A P S N O F Z F R F U A C N J N W F J E
 R R E G O L T Z V M B K S P C V M S L P K T C N R
 P Q Y E R F L E E N N O I L S E I R O T A N G I S
 K O H U Y L D T R U N X S A Z M I M Y C M P J I L
 X I E C E Z A C A C S U R C D S N O Z H Q C E C I
 S B A Y V G I Q X N E X L A I L Z B H Z P Z O R S
 M O A V E N D S P O N S O R S L E J Y C A M G H T
 G M H L O T L D V R T K Q D P J S I P Q U E K T W
 Q Z E J I S U C A H M Y V E Y L T C Y F O Z Z A E
 P D G H I E P H O Y Y M M Z S B O R C O E Q Z U B
 P T Y S R M X K Z O B E H D A C B J Z Z V H T B N
 P U F K D W F A X G H J H C A V E T O O M C K Q G

You are searching for the following words:



Bloc
 Debate
 Delegate
 Dias
 Placard
 Position paper
 Speakers list
 Yield
 Resolution
 Veto
 Roll call
 Secretariat
 Signatories
 Sponsors
 Chairperson
 Gavel
 Quorum
 Unmoderated caucus
 Present and voting
 United Nations

Other useful words:

MUN VOCABULARY

Matching activity

Vocabulary word	Definition
1. _____	1. A sign that identifies your country.
2. _____	2. Countries that are the principal authors of Model UN resolutions.
3. _____	3. Person who facilitates Model UN Debate.
4. _____	4. Attendance at the beginning of every Model UN session.
5. _____	5. The vested power of the "P5" countries to refuse approval of a draft resolution.
6. _____	6. Countries that would like to see a certain draft resolution debated.
7. _____	7. When a delegate is present and wishes to vote.
8. _____	8. Informal meeting in which delegates discuss country positions and ideas for draft resolutions.
9. _____	9. To give up time, usually to questions or another delegate.
10. _____	10. A group of nations.
11. _____	11. A person authorized to act as representative for a country.
12. _____	12. The number of members that must be present before official business can be conducted.
13. _____	13. A paper that helps delegates to organize their ideas and aid in formatting and representing a country's policy.
14. _____	14. The final results of discussion, writing and negotiation, including suggestions for addressing a specific problem or issue.
15. _____	15. An international organization of nations pledged together to promote world peace and security.
16. _____	16. The most senior staff of a Model UN conference.
17. _____	17. A list that determines the order in which delegates will speak.
18. _____	18. To discuss opposing reasons or to argue.
19. _____	19. The group of people, usually high school or college students, in charge of a Model UN committee. It generally consists of a Chair, a Director and a Rapporteur.
20. _____	20. The tool shaped like a small wooden hammer that the Chair uses to keep order.

Source: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide5_Model_UN_Vocabulary.pdf

UNITED NATIONS MAJOR ORGANS

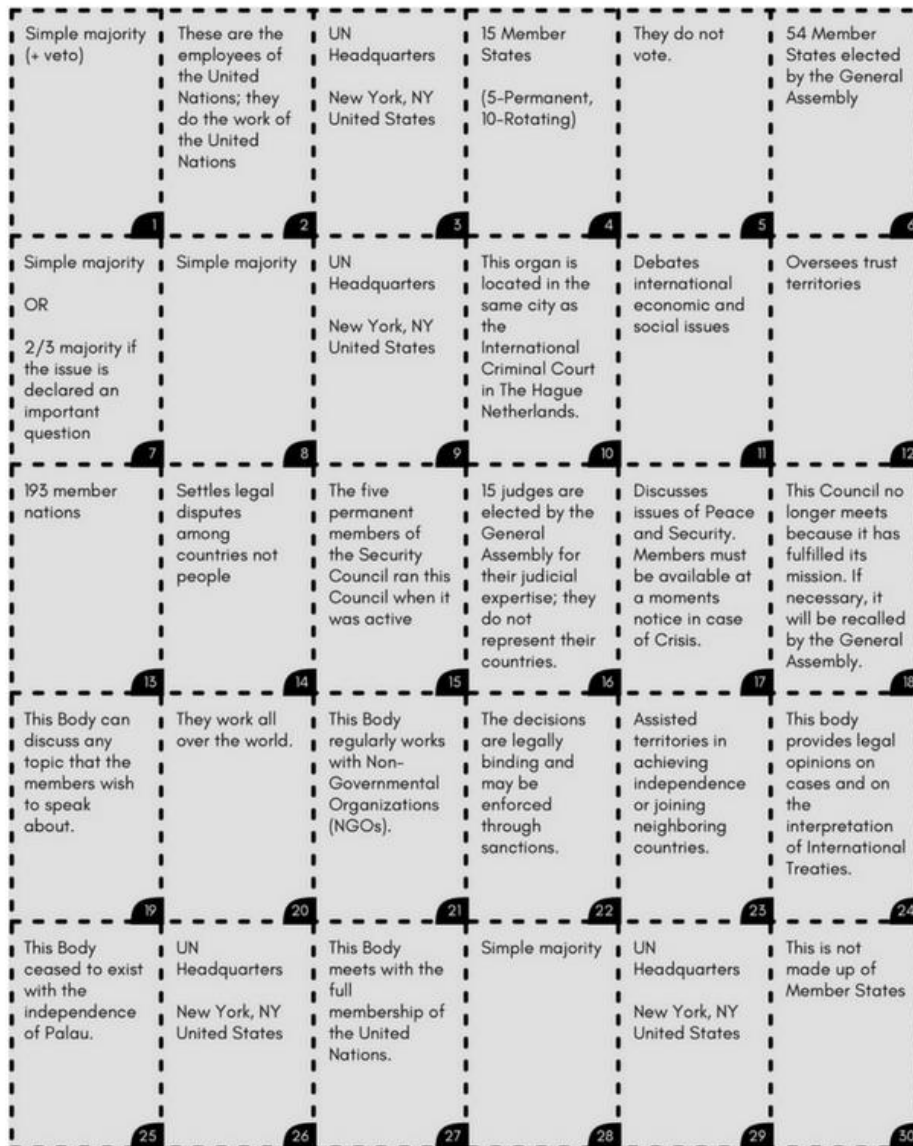
5

Puzzle

	Secretariat	General Assembly	Security Council	International Court of Justice	Economic and Social Council	Trusteeship Council
Who are the members?						
What do they do? / What topics do they discuss?						
If it is a voting body, how does it vote?						
When and where does it meet?						
What makes it different from other organs?						

UNITED NATIONS MAJOR ORGANS

Puzzle - pieces (to be cut)



Source: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide1_UN_Major_Organs.pdf

GETTING TO KNOW YOUR COUNTRY



Your country - basic information

Government

Official country name:

Governmental system:

Head of state:

Official languages:

Region:

Allies or blocs:

People

Population and growth rate:

Major religions or cultures:

Standard of living:

Development

Development status:

Climate:

Environment (problems, innovations, etc.):

Has this nation met the Millennium Development Goal targets?

Economy

Economic system:

GDP and growth rate:

Major cities:

Infrastructure status (good, poor, etc.):

Trade blocs/associations:

Balance of payments/trade:

Major exports/imports:

Major trade partners:

International Monetary Fund, World Bank positions (debtor nation? donor nation?):

Natural resources:

Energy sources:

Military

Military organization:

Percent of GDP spent on defense:

Major weapons, nuclear capability, etc.:

GETTING TO KNOW YOUR COUNTRY

Your country – relationship to UN and other countries

United Nations

Date admitted to UN:

UN dues payment status:

Has the UN ever intervened in a conflict involving this nation? If so, where and how?

How does the country contribute to UN peacekeeping?

Has the UN cited this nation for human rights violations? If so, why?

What do you think this nation's position on the topic of debate will be? Why?

Try to find at least one recent article that is about or makes reference to this nation (preferably from the past two weeks).

Conflicts/Issues

What are four problems that affect this nation?

Ethnic/cultural issues, if any:

Refugee problems:

Major conflicts both past and present:

Source: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Resources/ActivityGuide3_Getting_to_know_Your_Country.pdf

HOW TO WRITE A POLICY PAPER

7

A **policy paper** is an essay detailing your country's policies on the topics being discussed in your committee. Policy paper briefly introduces a country's position on the given topics, key facts and statistics, suggestions for courses of action, what your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution; and how the positions of other countries affect your country's position.

Components of a policy paper:

- An explanation and definition of the issue and its key terms as they appear on the agenda, e.g. you need to define terms such as Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone (NWFZ)
- A short summary of recent international action related to the question
- Reference to key documents relating to the issue
- A general statement of the country's position on the issue
- Specific suggestions for a solution to the question, which should provide ideas for operative clauses of a draft resolution

A good policy paper will include:

A brief introduction to your country and its history concerning the topic and committee
How the issue affects your country
Your country's policies with respect to the issue and your country's justification for these policies
Quotes from your country's leaders about the issue
Statistics to back up your country's position on the issue
Actions taken by your government with regard to the issue
Conventions and resolutions that your country has signed or ratified
UN actions that your country supported or opposed
What your country believes should be done to address the issue
What your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution
How the positions of other countries affect your country's position

Source:

Williams, D.; Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS - International Youth Support, p. 52.
<http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/position-papers>

HOW TO WRITE A POLICY PAPER

Sample policy paper

Delegation: Iran
Committee: Disarmament
Question of: Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone (NWFZ)

Despite general views of the western world about Iran's development of nuclear technology, Iran believes it is vital for peaceful coexistence that we encourage the establishment of nuclear weapon-free zones in various regions of the world as we hope that such efforts will lead to the total denuclearization of the world.

As defined in previous General Assembly resolutions, nuclear weapon-free zones shall be any zone, recognized as such by the General Assembly, established by any group of states in the free exercise of their sovereignty, under a treaty or convention which:

- a. defines the status of complete absence of nuclear weapons to which the zone shall be subject;
- b. establishes an international system of verification and control to guarantee compliance with the obligations derived from this status.

Until such time as regional associations or any genuine multilateral efforts are organized into fair and verifiable regimes allowing for each state's development of technology for legitimate needs, and until such time as denuclearization of weapons follows a global plan for implementation, Iran reserves its right to develop means to meet the energy needs of its people and to defend itself against the threat of nuclear states.

In the spirit of the United Nations General Assembly Resolution 58/59 ("A Path to the Total Elimination of Nuclear Weapons") proposed by Japan and approved by 164 votes in favor with only USA and India opposing, Iran recommends the creation of a multilateral arm of the IAEA that will propose and monitor a verifiable plan for nuclear disarmament of all states.

Iran also endorses the right of all independent states to develop technology that will meet the energy needs of its people in this changing resource-short world.

Source:

Williams, D.; Stein, I. (2006). *Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations*. The Hague: INTYS - International Youth Support, p. 54.

HOW TO WRITE A RESOLUTION



Sample resolution

Committee: Social, Humanitarian & Cultural
Question of: Strengthening UN coordination of humanitarian assistance in complex emergencies
Submitters: United States, Austria, Italy

The General Assembly,

Reminding all nations of the celebration of the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which recognizes the inherent dignity, equality and inalienable rights of all global citizens,

Reaffirming its Resolution 33/1996 of 25 July 1996, which encourages Governments to work with UN bodies aimed at improving the coordination and effectiveness of humanitarian assistance,

Noting with satisfaction the past efforts of various relevant UN bodies and nongovernmental organizations,

Stressing the fact that the United Nations faces significant financial obstacles and is in need of reform, particularly in the humanitarian realm,

1. Encourages all relevant agencies of the United Nations to collaborate more closely with countries at the grassroots level to enhance the carrying out of relief efforts;
2. Urges member states to comply with the goals of the UN Department of Humanitarian Affairs to streamline efforts of humanitarian aid;
3. Requests that all nations develop rapid deployment forces to better enhance the coordination of relief efforts of humanitarian assistance in complex emergencies;
4. Calls for the development of a United Nations Trust Fund that encourages voluntary donations from the private transnational sector to aid in funding the implementation of rapid deployment forces;
5. Stresses the continuing need for impartial and objective information on the political, economic and social situations and events of all countries;
6. Calls upon states to respond quickly and generously to consolidated appeals for humanitarian assistance; and
7. Requests the expansion of preventive actions and assurance of post-conflict assistance through reconstruction and development.

Source: <http://www.unaosa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/sample-resolution>

HOW TO WRITE A RESOLUTION

A **resolution** is a written suggestion for addressing a specific problem or issue.

When faced with an international problem, UN members meet to draft, debate, and vote on resolutions. Their resolutions represent recommendations or actions taken to resolve the problem at hand. Similarly, in MUN conferences, students write resolutions. Resolutions follow a simple structure. There are 3 key ingredients to resolution writing: 1) a resolution heading, 2) preambulatory clauses, and 3) operative clauses.

1) Resolution Heading

Official documents need a means of identification. The resolution heading provides all the descriptive information for the document. It names 1) the Committee underwriting the resolution, 2) the submitters, 3) the topic of the resolution, and 4) your audience.

2) Preambulatory Clauses

Preambulatory clauses are used to 1) refer to the UN Charter, 2) cite UN resolutions from the past, 3) bring up supporting statements made by a UN body, agency, or official, 4) recognize NGO's efforts on an issue, or 5) make a general statement on the topic. Each preambulatory clause ends with a comma.

3) Operative Clauses

These clauses list off individual actions or recommendations agreed upon in a resolution. Each operative phrase is numbered and ends with a semicolon, except for the last operative clause which has a full stop.

NB: You'll find a list of preambulatory and operative clauses in a separate handout.

Strong and weak points in a resolution

Provide as much detail as possible in your operative clauses. For instance:

WEAK: Calls upon organizations for humanitarian aid;

STRONG: Calls upon organizations such as Red Cross and UNHCR to provide humanitarian assistance, including refugee shelters and medical, sanitary, and food supplies;

Be as comprehensive on the subject as possible when writing a resolution. For example, the difference between a strong and weak working paper is...

WEAK: 1. send in peace troopers to stop the conflict;

STRONG: 1. send in 500 of peace troopers:

a) to protect refugees,

b) maintain cease-fire;

Source: <http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions>

http://www.uwyo.edu/intstudy/_files/model%20un/guides.pdf

<http://www.cccoe.k12.ca.us/supe/events/unforms/MUNDelegateGuide.pdf>

HOW TO WRITE A RESOLUTION

Preambulatory phrases (sample)

Affirming
 Alarmed by
 Approving
 Bearing in mind
 Believing
 Confident
 Contemplating
 Convinced
 Declaring
 Deeply concerned
 Deeply conscious
 Deeply convinced
 Deeply Disturbed
 Deeply Regretting
 Desiring
 Emphasizing
 Expecting
 Emphasizing
 Expecting
 Expressing it's appreciation
 Fulfilling
 Fully aware
 Emphasizing
 Expecting
 Expressing it's appreciation
 Fulfilling
 Fully aware
 Further deploring
 Further recalling
 Guided by
 Having adopted
 Having considered
 Having examined
 Having received
 Keeping in min
 Noting with deep concern
 Nothing with satisfaction
 Noting further
 Observing
 Reaffirming
 Realizing
 Recalling
 Recognizing
 Referring
 Seeking
 Taking into consideration
 Taking note
 Viewing with appreciation
 Welcoming

Operative phrases (sample)

Accepts
 Affirms
 Approves
 Authorizes
 Calls
 Calls upon
 Condemns
 Confirms
 Congratulates
 Considers
 Declares accordingly
 Deplores
 Designates
 Draws the attention
 Emphasizes Encourages
 Endorses
 Expresses its appreciation
 Expresses its hope
 Further invites
 Deplores
 Designates
 Draws the attention
 Emphasizes
 Encourages
 Endorses
 Expresses its appreciation
 Expresses its hope
 Further invites
 Further proclaims
 Further reminds Further recommends
 Further requests
 Further resolves
 Has resolved
 Notes
 Proclaims
 Reaffirms
 Recommends
 Regrets
 Reminds
 Requests
 Solemnly affirms
 Strongly condemns
 Supports
 Takes note of
 Transmits
 Trusts

Source: <http://www.unaosa.org/global-classrooms-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/resolutions/preambulatory-and-operative-clauses>

HOW TO WRITE A RESOLUTION

draft, N - a formal suggestion, often containing the main ideas and intentions but not the developed form

hard copy, N - information from a computer that has been printed on paper

incentive, N - something that encourages a person to do something

inclined, ADJ - likely or wanting to do something

out-of-date, ADJ - old

proliferation, N - increase

treaty, N - a written agreement between countries, formally approved and signed by their leaders

to call for - to need or deserve a particular action

to get sth. across - to manage to make someone understand or believe something

to merge - to combine or join together

to negotiate - to have formal discussions with someone in order to reach an agreement with them

to speak up - to speak in a louder voice so that people can hear you

IAEA = International Atomic Energy Agency

NPT = Nuclear Non-proliferation Treaty

Watch the video and answer the following questions:

1) What is the lobbying process?

2) What makes a good resolution?

3) How does the process of creating a resolution work?

4) Did the delegates take the same clauses they already had, or did they write a whole new resolution?

COMMITTEE WORK



Watch the video and answer the following questions:

1) What happens when a draft resolution has been approved for a debate in a committee? Put the following stages into the correct order:

_____ points of information

_____ voting procedure

_____ chair sets debate time

_____ speech against the resolution

_____ speech in defence of the resolution

_____ main submitter reads out the operative clauses

2) Why, according to the rapporteur, did the resolution on Security Council reform do badly?

3) What three positions can you take when voting on a resolution? How do you show your voting?

COMMITTEE WORK

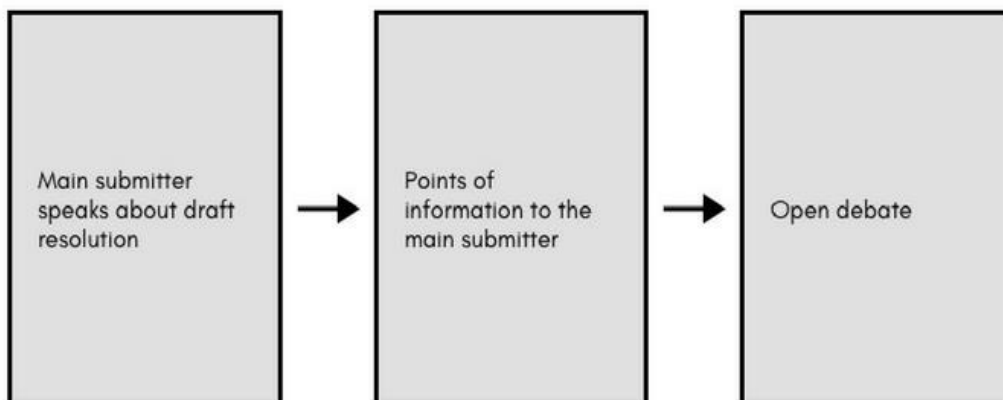
Lobbying session

During the lobbying session, there is no moderated debate and delegates are free to move around and talk to each other. The goal is to come up with a draft resolution; a resolution agreed upon by a number of Member States. This is usually done by comparing the resolution that you have prepared before the conference with the resolutions of other delegates. You will surely find that your country shares some of its views with other countries and consequently several groups of countries with similar interests will be formed. Each of such groups will then need to compose a single common draft resolution with one main submitter and with at least three co-submitters. Being a main submitter means that you will have to give a speech on the resolution to the committee. Co-submitting simply states that your country is interested in debating this resolution in the committee.

Once a draft resolution has been finished by a group of countries, the main submitter shall present it to the chair. Before the resolution is debated in the committee, it will be fact-checked and grammatically revised by the Approval Panel.

Structured debate - Starting the debate

The chair of the committee will decide which of the submitted draft resolutions is to be debated. The chair will then call upon the main submitter of the resolution to read out the operative clauses and to briefly present the resolution to the committee. Meanwhile, the chair's assistant will hand out paper copies of the draft resolution. After the delegate has finished his speech, he may open himself to Points of Information. If they do, other delegates can then ask Points of Information. When there are no more, the committee will move into an open debate on the resolution.



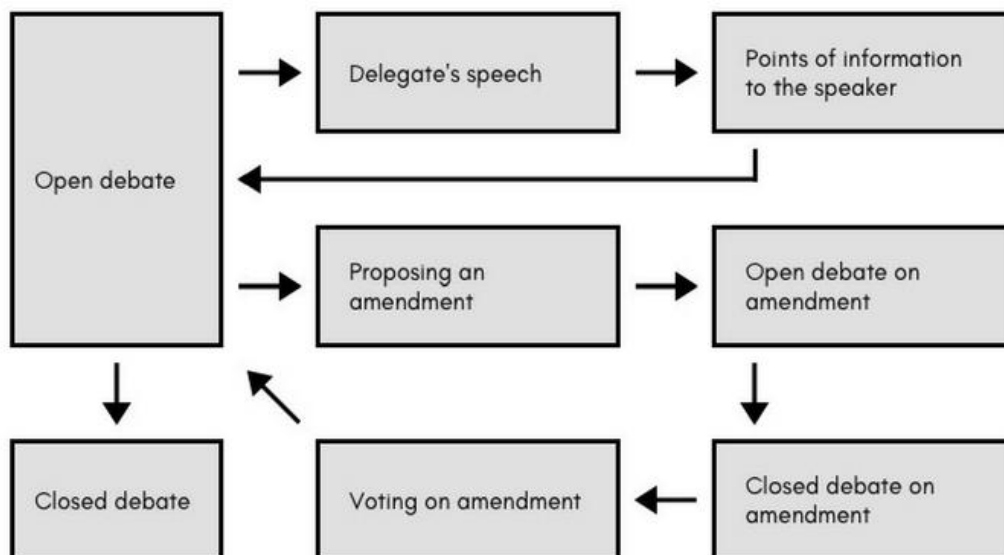
Source: Crha, M.; Maixner, V.; Kaftan, P. (2014). PORG Model United Nations 2014 Delegate's handbook. Praha: Nový PORG, pp. 10-11.

COMMITTEE WORK

Structured debate - Open debate

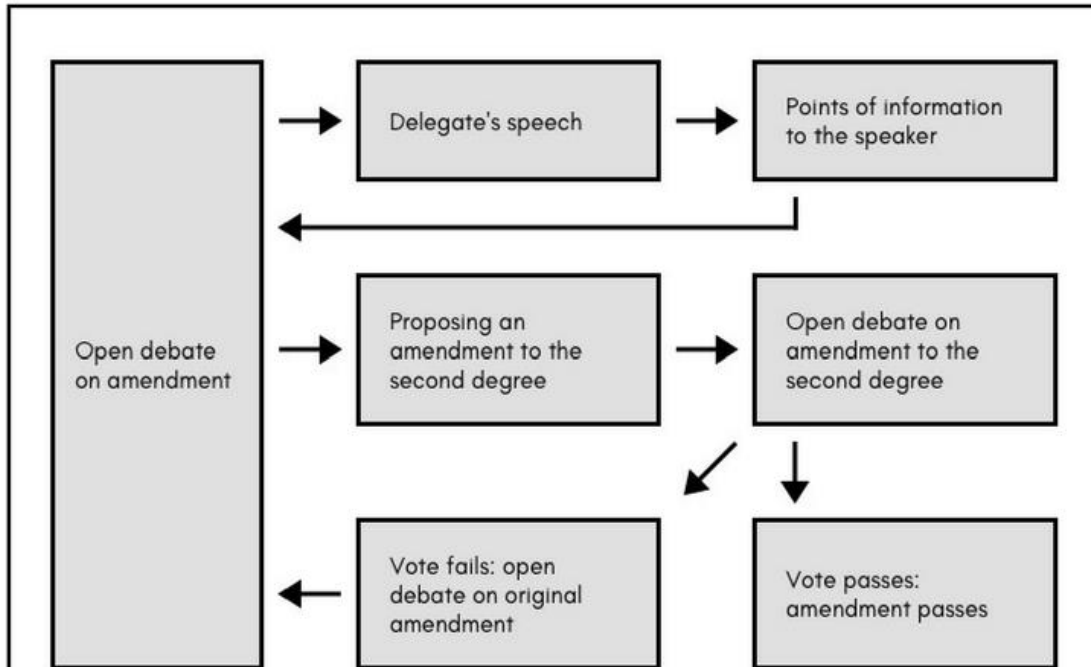
In an open debate, delegates may either take the floor to give a speech, or propose an amendment. If a delegate wants to speak about a resolution, they should raise their placard and only when chair yielded the floor to them, may they speak. After having finished their speech, they may choose to open themselves to Points of Information. They may state whether they open themselves to "any and all" Points of Information or only to a certain number of Points of Information.

Delegates can also propose amendments to add a clause, strike a clause, or edit an existing one. An amendment must be written on an amendment sheet that can be obtained from the chair's assistant. The amendment must be sent via the chair's assistant to the chair. The delegate should then raise their placard and when given the permission to speak, they should say that they have proposed an amendment. The chair will read out the amendment and the delegate who proposed it will then give a short speech explaining why they submitted such an amendment. Consequently, an open debate upon the amendment will commence. During this time, speakers can either take the floor or propose an amendment to the 2nd degree. Amendments to the 2nd degree are used to change the original amendment. When an amendment to the 2nd degree has been submitted, its submitter will give a short speech on it and the committee will consequently move into an open debate on the amendment to the 2nd degree. If an amendment to the 2nd degree passes, so does the entire amendment. In an open debate on an amendment, if there are no more amendments to 2nd degree to be submitted nor are there any speakers wishing to take the floor, the house will move into a closed debate.



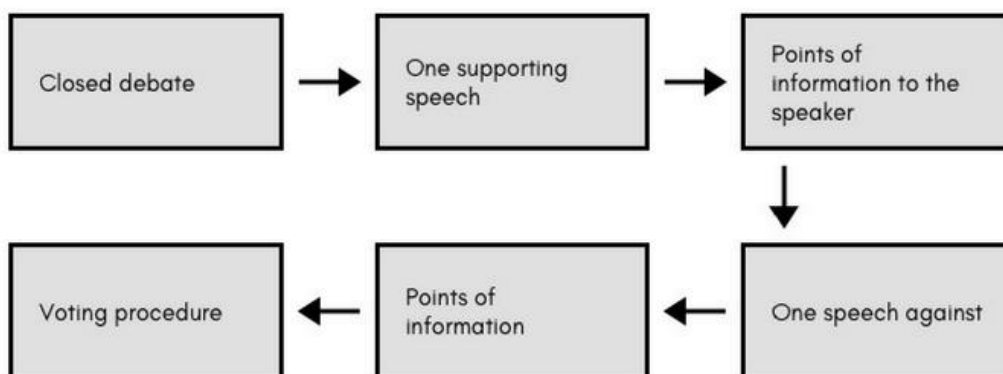
Source: Crha, M.; Maixner, V.; Kaftan, P. (2014). PORG Model United Nations 2014 Delegate's handbook. Praha: Nový PORG, pp. 11-12.

COMMITTEE WORK



Structured debate - Closed debate

Once there are no more delegates wishing to take the floor or submit amendments during an open debate, or when sufficient time has been spent debating the resolution, the chair will announce moving into a closed debate. During a closed debate, one speech in favour and one against the resolution / amendment / amendment to the 2nd degree will be entertained. After these speeches and any potential Points of Information the committee will move into voting procedure.



Source: Crha, M.; Maixner, V.; Kaftan, P. (2014). PORG Model United Nations 2014 Delegate's handbook. Praha: Nový PORG, pp. 12-13.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE



Parliamentary procedure is a set of rules that govern the meetings and debates in the committees and in formal conferences.

1) Modes of address

- All speeches should begin with "Mr./Ms. Chair, ladies and gentlemen of the house..."
- Never refer to yourself in the first or second person singular ("I" or "You"). When speaking, use the name of your delegation: e.g. "The delegation of China does not understand" or "will the (honourable) delegate of Russia please clarify..."

2) Phrases the delegates may use

- Mr./Ms./Madam/Honourable Chair, ...
- Fellow delegates, ...
- The delegation of _____ has a point of _____ (see below under motions of parliamentary procedure)
- Is the delegate of _____ not aware...? Does the speaker not realize that...?
- We yield the floor to the chair/to the delegate of _____ (= we give our right to speak to...)

3) Phrases the chair may use

- May the house come to order. (= Stop talking.)
- Is the speaker open for points of information? (= Are you ready to answer questions from other delegates?)
- All points of order are out of order at this time. (= The chair does not want questions at this time.)
- The delegate of _____ has been recognized. (= S/he may rise and speak.)
- The delegate may yield the floor (= You can leave.)
- Point (not) well taken. (= Your point is (not) right/well stated.)
- That is/isn't in order. (= Your actions are legal/illegal.)
- May the speaker please move to their concluding remarks. (= S/he should finish their speech.)
- Is there a second? (= Is there at least one person besides the mover that is interested in seeing the motion come before the meeting?)

Source: <https://sites.google.com/site/hismun/guide-to-parliamentary-procedure>

Williams, D.; Stein, I. (2006). Uniting the Nations through Model United Nations. The Hague: INTYS - International Youth Support, p. 94.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE

Points and motions

A **point** is something a delegate raises when it concerns something s/he would personally like to address.

Point of Personal Privilege: This point is used to indicate personal discomforts to debate. It may be raised during the debate if, for example, you cannot hear the speaker or feel uncomfortably hot or cold. This point is allowed to interrupt a speaker, but may not refer to the content of any speech.

Point of Information: This is a question a delegate might have for the speaker after s/he has finished his/her speech. It can only be brought forth when the chair has asked for them (after a speaker's speech, s/he may or may not agree to be open to points of information.) When the chair has authorized points of information, simply raise your country's placard and wait to be called on.

Point of Inquiry (Procedure): This point may be used to ask the chair a question regarding parliamentary procedure.

Point of Order: This point may be raised when you feel that a delegate or the chair is not following correct parliamentary procedure. A point of order is allowed to interrupt the speaker.

Right to reply: This point is used when you ask the chair the permission to follow up on what has been said. Your request can be "Granted" or "Denied".

A **motion** is raised by the delegate when they would like to suggest an action for the committee as a whole.

Motion to Open Debate: This is the first motion of the conference and is made to move into formal debate and open the primary speakers list. If there are multiple topics on the agenda, the body will first debate on the order they are to be discussed until there is a motion to set the agenda. All delegates wishing to be added to the speakers list should raise their placards at the request of the chair.

Motion to Set the Agenda: This motion is made with specific topic mentioned to be debated first and the other second. Two speakers for, two against, and requires a simple majority to pass.

Motion to Move into time For/Against: This motion is directed to the chair. If the meeting is going slowly (e.g., no one is speaking) then you may use this point. If the house agrees, something will second it. If there are no objections, the chair will suspend that time frame and move into the next.

Motion to Move into Voting Procedure: Again, if the meeting seems not to be productive, you may use this point; another delegate is needed to second this motion. If there are no objections, then voting procedure will take place.

Source: <https://startthewave.files.wordpress.com/2008/11/parliamentary-procedure.pdf>
<https://sites.google.com/site/hismun/guide-to-parliamentary-procedure>

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE



The **International Court of Justice** (ICJ) is the main judicial organ of the UN. It deals with disputes between member states and provides advice to UN organs.

The seat of ICJ is in the Peace Palace in The Hague, Netherlands.

counsel, N - one or more of the lawyers taking part in a legal case

evidence, N - facts or information proving that something is or is not true

pending, ADJ - about to happen or waiting to happen

stipulation, N - agreements reached by the parties before the case is presented

testimony, N - spoken or written statement that something is true, especially one given in a court

to **conduct** - to organize

to **cross-examine** - to ask detailed questions of someone, especially a witness in a trial, in order to discover if they have been telling the truth

to **deliberate** - to think or talk seriously and carefully about something

to **file** - to officially record something, especially in a law court

to **question** - to ask a person about something, especially officially

to **prep** = to prepare

Parties to a dispute: **applicant** - **respondent** (opposing **counsel**)

Watch the video and answer the following questions:

1) What makes the model ICJ different from other MUN bodies?

2) What does the model ICJ do?

3) What is the role of the president?

a) before the conference

b) during the conference

4) What do the advocates have to prepare?

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

- 5) a) Which topic are they discussing?
- b) Which countries are involved?
- c) What is the case about?
- 6) a) Who questions the witnesses?
- b) What is the difference between questioning (examination) and cross-examination?
- 7) What happens when "evidence" is discussed?
- 8) What happens when all the evidence has been presented and the witnesses cross-examined?
- 9) Which positions can you apply for in the model ICJ? How many are there of each?
- 10) Which two kinds of evidence are there?
 - a) real evidence:
 - b) witnesses' testimony:
- 11) Which witnesses were called in in this particular case?
- 12) What does deliberation involve? What is special about this part?

EUROPEAN YOUTH PARLIAMENT (EYP)

MOTION FOR A RESOLUTION BY

THE COMMITTEE ON NONSENSE AND MISCHIEF

Europe's dependence on oil-exporting countries and other economical problems - Is a desert the mother of all solutions?

Submitted by: K.Alahari (IE), G.Obi (FR), A.Tacama (SP), S.Ahara (Chairperson, NO)

The European Youth Parliament,

- A. Noting with deep regret the lack of deserts in Europe,
 - B. Taking into consideration the abundance of oil in deserts,
 - C. Further taking into consideration the dependance of the EU on unstable oil-exporting countries,
 - D. Fully aware of the huge amounts of income achievable with oil exports,
 - E. Observing with envy the rate of economic growth in desert countries, e.g. UAE,
 - F. Alarmed by the existence of underdeveloped areas with raging unemployment in Europe;
-
- 1. Calls for immediate introduction of deserts to Europe;
 - 2. Recommends a close cooperation with the UAE on the issue of how to best exploit the resources of the new European desert;
 - 3. Authorises the implementation of a common fund of all EU Member States to finance this enormous project, called "Fund for Europe's deserty future" (FEDF);
 - 4. Invites European petrol companies to join in a common EU-supervised entity to explore the newly generated oil supplies;
 - 5. Encourages the EU member states to establish an independent panel observing the proper use of the FEDF and all income in generated by the newly found oil supplies;
 - 6. Suggests the EU to be renamed United European Emirates (UEE).

Source: The European Youth Parliament