REFERENCE

SHAPING CULTURAL REALITIES: SIMULATIONS IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Simulations have increasingly been used in education since the 1960s in various fields, such as politics, geography, psychology and sociology, with the aim of providing students with an opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge to practical, often communicative contexts. They are also regarded as a useful vocational training tool for people working in jobs requiring an ability to communicate, such as diplomats, members of the medical professions, business people and administrators.

The existence of umbrella organisations which aim to provide opportunities for a multi-disciplinary exchange of views and experience between practitioners, such as the Society for the Advancement of Games and Simulations in Education and Training (SAGSET) or the International Simulation and Gaming Association (ISAGA) reflects experiences with simulations in a wide range of contexts and puts this diversity in an institutional framework.

Against this background teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) have adapted simulations originally written for students of other subjects, or designed new ones specifically for their particular context, usually emphasising language practice in a realistic communicative situation. This has been of particular relevance in the area of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP).

Much of the wide range of literature that has been written on the use of simulations in language teaching is in the form of articles presenting conclusions drawn by individual teachers or designers from their individual experience of using a specific simulation in a particular context. There is, however, little consensus among designers as to exactly what a simulation is or what purposes it can usefully serve in a language-learning context.

In the first chapter of this study, I present my own first practical experiences of using simulations in the EFL classroom.

Chapters 2 to 5 examine the diversity of practitioners' understandings of the term 'simulation' and three other key concepts which appear so frequently in the literature on simulations for language-learning as to be regarded as leitmotifs: 'reality', 'communication' and 'culture'. My aim is not to define these terms, but to show how and to what ends designers use them.

Chapters 6 and 7 critically examine specific examples of simulations which are, or could be, used in language-learning contexts under two broad headings: simulations for developing communicative competence and simulations within intercultural education in EFL.

A final chapter sums up the development of simulations used in EFL since the late 1970s and suggests how they are likely to develop in the future.

My approach aims to come to a critical understanding of simulations and their development by engaging in a meta-criticism of designers' approaches to them.

INTRODUCTION

Simulations were introduced into the language classroom in the 1960s with the aim of making learning in the classroom more relevant to the needs of learners in situations beyond it. The perceived gap between what was traditionally taught in the classroom and the skills needed in real life contexts began to be seen as a problem, to which simulations, as classroom copies or models of real life (L. Jones 1983b:1), were seen as one solution. Their use in the foreign language classroom has been primarily associated with the communicative approach to language learning. They are seen as being a student-centred approach to learning, enabling participants to improve their communicative competence (see Chapter 4) and to take responsibility for their own actions within the activity. L. Jones, for example, tells students: "A simulation gives you the chance to use the English you've learnt to achieve your communicative aims" (Ibid.).

In practice, however, the word 'simulation' is used to refer to a range of activity types reflecting not just a communicative approach to language learning, but various methodological frameworks. Simulations are not only used to improve students' communicative competence, but for a variety of other language-teaching purposes.

In the first part of this study (Chapters 2 to 5) I discuss various understandings by simulation designers of three key words which appear so frequently in the literature on simulations for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) as to be seen as leitmotifs: 'simulation', 'reality' and 'communication', as well as a fourth key word to be found increasingly in recent literature on the subject: 'culture'. In so doing, my aim is not to attempt to come to any hard and fast definition of these terms, but rather to illustrate the plurality of meanings they have for different authors and designers working in different contexts, reflecting both their different methodological approaches to language teaching and the very wide range of purposes for which foreigners learn English.

In the second part of my study (Chapters 6 and 7), I go on to illustrate the purposes for which simulations and role plays are used in EFL: improving learners' communicative competence (Chapter 6) and raising participants' cultural awareness or competence (Chapter 7).

The examples in Chapters 6 focus on some of the different emphases of simulations used to enable learners to improve their communicative competence, ranging from presenting information in a grammatically correct form, to relating the language used to the situation, or creating a situation participants perceive as credible.

Chapter 7 gives examples of some simulations which raise issues of culture, whether this is intentional on the part of the designer or not. They include a simulation which attempts to enable participants to experience how ideas are structured in English, as opposed to Russian, another in which the designer takes his own culture for granted, whereas participants may not, a third in which participants are encouraged to relate to one another in terms of stereotypical views of each others' countries, and finally a simulation in which the designer assumes that simply by labelling two competing groups in a simulation 'American' and 'Japanese', the participants will become more aware of cultural issues. It concludes by examining a framework for structuring feedback which could be applied to debriefing all of these simulations (and any others involving cultural issues).

The final chapter reviews developments in approaches to simulations for EFL and ESP and presents an outlook on their future potential.

All of the above examples illustrate that it is impossible for the designer to create an impartial model of reality in designing a simulation, since, by their very nature, simulations emphasise particular aspects of a situation and are based on his or her assumptions about reality. Participants, for their part, also play their roles on the basis of their culturally biased experience.

On the basis of the examples presented, I thus argue that choosing to emphasise particular aspects is not the exclusive prerogative of the designer, and that it is precisely this which makes them so attractive for the teacher/designer/facilitator and participants alike. Simulations can effectively integrate both the teacher's and learners' different specialist interests and cultural backgrounds. Students become absorbed in activities they see as being realistic and relevant to their needs to the extent that they may forget they are speaking a foreign language, while language teachers use simulations to provide students with practice in using the foreign language. Although there is unlikely to be one-to-one equivalence between the language teacher's emphasis during feedback (e.g. on language items or cultural bias) and the students' view of what was important (e.g. their feelings of success in getting a message across), these different interests are not mutually exclusive. It is this which makes simulations especially useful in the context of ESP, where the teacher's role is to facilitate students' learning of the English they require in their specialist fields.

Despite sharing some common features, simulations in EFL, and particularly in ESP, are versatile and can be used in a wide variety of contexts. The wide variety of activities categorised as simulations and the multitude of aims they can be used to pursue have led to discussion on the subject becoming fragmented. Statements that are applicable in one language-teaching context may be of little relevance in another. This means that the process of selecting a suitable simulation, very much like the process of simulation design itself, requires creativity and the ability to integrate various different, complementary interests. I argue in conclusion that the creativity of a designer of simulations for EFL lies in selecting and representing elements of a situation in a model which is not only tailored to the learners' linguistic and communicative needs, but also takes account of their specialist requirements and their cultural background.

CHAPTER ONE

FIRST PRACTICAL EXPERIENCES USING SIMULATIONS IN THE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) CLASSROOM

From my own experience of learning foreign languages at school and university, it is clear that language learners often complete their formal education in a foreign language, whether at GCSE, Advanced or even degree level, without necessarily gaining the confidence to deal with common, everyday situations in the target language, let alone the requirements of a demanding job.

Immersion in the target language during visits to a country where it is spoken is, in my experience, highly motivating in that it enables language learners to hear and see for themselves how the language is used in everyday contexts within the target culture. This brings the language to life in a way that is difficult to imagine when one is in a native language (L1) environment. Such visits are, however, not always practicable, particularly when learners are already in employment or have set their priorities elsewhere, for example in their main subject of study, and a foreign language is regarded as just a necessary auxiliary skill.

As an English teacher at the language centre of a German university, responsible for teaching English as a subsidiary subject to students at intermediate and advanced level whose main subjects were, for example, Business Administration, Law and Economics, I was keen to find a way to bring English to life by presenting it to them in contexts they considered interesting and relevant to their needs. Although all of them had learnt English for several years at school and many had taken it at Abitur level (equivalent to Advanced level), they had rarely had practice to pursue aims they had chosen for themselves or to speak freely in open-ended activities in

English. As prospective employees at middle management level in medium-sized companies, their future needs in English included the ability to communicate and negotiate with counterparts on business-related matters, as well as to develop the social skills appropriate in an English-speaking environment. I was thus interested in finding materials which would go some way towards meeting these general requirements within the students' German-speaking environment, even if only for the duration of a weekly ninety-minute lesson. During this search, I came across Leo Jones' Eight Simulations, designed for EFL students at intermediate level (L. Jones 1983). I found his view of simulations as models of real life (Ibid. 1983b:1) an attractive one, in that he saw the exercise type as providing students with a practical realistic context in which to use their English. Although the subjects he dealt with in these simulations were not directly business-related (e.g. discussing the pros and cons of a bridge-building project to replace an existing ferry service; see appendix for details), they nevertheless enabled students to practise negotiation skills in structured situations in English. Indeed, the fact that the language classes were made up of learners reading a variety of different main subjects meant that it was not possible to focus on just one specific vocational area. Thus, general simulations of this kind were more appropriate than ones designed to meet very specific vocational needs.

The students appreciated what was often for them the novelty of actually using the language to pursue aims that they had, at least to some extent, chosen for themselves. The responses given to a questionnaire at the end of the course bore this out. To the question "Do you think your English improved through taking part in these simulations? If so, how?" students' answers commonly included the view that, as a result of taking part in the simulations, they had learnt to express their own opinion in their own words more effectively, to argue, and to react faster in English.

Those students who were less convinced tended to fall into two groups: those who already had a more advanced knowledge of English on the one hand, and those who were still struggling to master basic grammar items and vocabulary on the other. The first group, in answer to the question: "What could have been better?" responded with answers such as: "More detailed and difficult simulations. Greater pressure through stricter time limits", a response which was not a criticism of the activity type as such, but rather suggested that the students who made it felt that the exercises used had been too easy.

The second group, however, gave replies such as: "What I need is grammar, grammar, grammar and vocabulary. Also my written English isn't good". This latter response may be seen as reflecting the difficulty of engaging in simulations of students who had not yet mastered the basic structures of the foreign language.

The above responses highlight some of the strengths and weaknesses of the use of these simulations in this context. As a student-centred activity, they were useful for improving students' fluency and increasing their confidence in speaking the foreign language, but were generally ineffectual in improving students' proficiency in using grammar structures.

When I taught English to people already in employment (in 1993 and 1994) it was easier to adapt material to make it relate more specifically to their work situation. This was the case with "The Leisure Centre", which I adapted from Leo Jones' "The Arts Centre" for a group of sports administrators on an intensive in-service English course (see details of both these simulations in the appendix) whose level of proficiency in English ranged from elementary to upper intermediate. The simulation involved deciding how to optimise the activities offered by a leisure centre in order for it to be profitable, a situation which bore some similarity to the type of situation the learners had to to deal with in their jobs: administering sporting activities within a hierarchical institution, deciding on the allocation of funding, and making, communicating and defending sometimes difficult and unpopular decisions. During the simulations, I observed the students and made notes on the aspects I wanted to discuss with them in feedback after the exercise. This focused on the following aspects:

(a) the correctness/effectiveness of the language used;

(b) formal characteristics of the type of situation simulated: e.g. linguistic conventions in meetings between management and staff; the role of the chairperson;

(c) strategies: anticipating a range of possible strategies the other side (i.e. the mangagement or shop floor) used and discussing appropriate counterstrategies;

(d) the appropriacy of language used: e.g. as regards politeness, emphasis, directness/indirectness;

(e) comparisons with examples of similar situations from the learners' real life experience;

(f) structural and cultural differences between: the organisation of sport in Germany and in Britain, trade union-management relations in Germany and Britain (i.e. tending towards consensus-seeking or confrontation), directness/indirectness of language in German and English.

Since the participants themselves were familiar with the type of tasks simulated in the activity from their everyday work, they were able to bring their experience into the activity. Learners at all levels of proficiency in English felt the simulation to have been very effective in boosting their confidence in speaking the foreign language by demonstrating that they were able to deal with such situations in English. I found that the integration of language and vocational skills in this activity was particularly effective both in enabling weaker students to be fully integrated within an enjoyable communicative activity and at the same time in presenting more advanced students with a challenging task. This integration of students at different levels of proficiency is particularly relevant within a context in which learners have a common vocational interest but may not have reached the same level of proficiency in the foreign language.

This positive experience of using simulations in teaching English in Germany led to my wider interest in the subject. It was at this stage that I began to read articles on simulations, from which I soon realised that there was quite a variety of different theoretical approaches, which also had implications for the practicalities of their design, classroom application and evaluation. The various definitions of simulations by different authors, while having certain common features, emphasised different aspects of the activity, suggesting that it would be extremely difficult to find a definition that would be universally accepted. This, on the one hand, reflected the fact that simulations were still undergoing a process of development (see Chapter 8). On the other, it reflected the more fundamental difficulty of finding one single definition that would cover all examples of simulations, a difficulty of the kind recognised by Wittgenstein, who found it impossible to give a definition of games which covered every game, but saw family resemblances between them (1953:31-32).

Defining three other key concepts: 'reality', 'communication' and 'culture' poses similar problems. The lack of consensus among authors on the subject of simulations as to their use of such fundamental concepts led to my interest in trying to explain authors' motivation in choosing to emphasise particular aspects of these terms. The terminology designers use reflects their practical teaching contexts and the purposes for which they use simulations. In the next three chapters, I examine the terminology used in the literature on language-learning simulations and some of the issues it raises.

CHAPTER TWO

DESIGNERS' VIEWS OF SIMULATION

1. Terminology

The term 'simulation' is used to cover a wide variety of different types of activities and models used in many subject areas to predict, practise and play. A simulation usually consists of three parts: preparation, the simulation itself, and a debriefing session.

In the literature on language-learning simulations, other terms are also used to refer to communicative activities for language learning: 'game', 'gaming', 'role-play' and 'scenario'. While some designers consciously use one term rather than another in order to highlight particular aspects of the activity, others use the words interchangeably and arbitrarily. This presents a problem for the teacher who would like to select an exercise relevant for a particular teaching context. In the following I illustrate this difficulty by showing how three common terms (game, role-play and simulation) are used in the literature on language-teaching.

(a) Game

The word 'game' is used to refer to activities that are self-contained and need not necessarily have any direct connection to 'real life' beyond themselves.

Buddensiek, for example, quotes Huizinga's definition of what is meant by 'game': "A game is a voluntary action or activity which is carried out within certain fixed limits of time and space according to voluntarily accepted, but not necessarily binding rules, which has *its aim in itself* and is accompanied by a feeling of excitement and pleasure and an awareness of 'being different' from 'ordinary life'" (Huizinga 1956:34, quoted in Buddensiek 1985:607, my translation).

In his view simulations often share this characteristic with games: "In so far as they have the character of games, simulations are distinctive first and foremost not because they 'approach reality', but because they maintain a certain distance from everyday reality" (Ibid.).

Other designers of simulations for language-learning, however, draw out what they see as the differences between simulations and games, regarding competition and rules as features of games, but not a main focus of simulations (see, for example, Ellington et al. 1982:10). K. Jones also suggests that one main difference between the two types of activities is that while in many simulations co-operation between the participants is necessary to solve a problem, in games, the competitive element between participants is more important, as the aim is very often to win: "Instead of dealing with issues on their merits, the participants (in a game) try to score points. Reality of function vanishes, and the participants have become players in a gaming activity" (1985:5).

Thus, authors who consider simulations to be a kind of game consider simulations (and games) to be different from reality, while authors who regard simulations as being different from games emphasise the importance of simulations being 'real' and see the competitive element of games as detracting from this reality.

(b) Role-play

Herbert and Sturtridge define role-play as a specific type of simulation in the context of English language teaching (ELT). They give the following explanation of what a simulation involves:

> "(S)tudents discuss a problem which is in a setting that has been clearly described to them. The students apply their own-country experience to this information, thus giving them the basic data to discuss the problem" (1979:5).

The key elements of the activity, as described here, are a *problem* and a *setting*, which the designer provides and the students' *experience*. Littlewood refers similarly to the "*situation* and the *goals* that learners have to achieve through communication" (Littlewood 1990:55).

Herbert and Sturtridge make the following distinction between 'role-play' and 'role-simulation', both of which they regard as types of simulation:

> "Role-play ... involves the student taking the part of different characters, for example a student, a taxi-driver, or a London shop-assistant - roles which might be similar to, or very far removed from, his own personal experience. There is a wide variety of approaches to role-play: the student can play his part in a highly controlled language situation, perhaps working from a script, or the language can be semi-scripted for him, or again he can be free to improvise his part from a given scenario. The student can be provided with his own role-card which tells him what his role character and attitudes are, and which can give him linguistic support by suggesting what he might say and how he might say it. Outside a simulation, role-play usually involves a finite interaction between characters rather than the resolution of a problem. It provides opportunities for detailed work on pronunciation and intonation, as well as syntax, and a possibility to use drama in the foreign language classroom" (Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:5).

Here, the language used to describe role-play is the language of the theatre: 'to take a part', 'characters', 'roles', 'script', 'semi-scripted', 'improvised', 'scenario', 'drama'. One term used in the quotation above does not fit into this pattern, however, and that is "*interaction* between characters" (my emphasis). Interaction has been defined as "The exchange and negotiation of meaning between two or more participants located within social contexts" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:154) and as "Reciprocal action; action or influence of persons or things on each other" (Brown 1993:1391). As the roles given to language learners in role-plays are usually extremely circumscribed, the scope for such an exchange is very limited, to quote Herbert and Sturtridge, "finite".

As they themselves state, such exercises have a twofold purpose: to do "detailed work on pronunciation and intonation, as well as syntax" and "to use drama in the foreign language classroom" (Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:5). Interaction is not regarded as a main objective.

(c) Simulation

Herbert and Sturtridge give the following explanation of how they see role-simulation:

> "In role-simulation ... the student is himself, and reacts to the simulated task on the basis of his own personal or professional experience. He has no role imposed on him from outside in the form of a role-card or a prepared part to play and the implication of this is that a doctor, for example, would be a doctor and a teenager would be a teenager in the simulation. They would apply their own personal experience and professional knowledge to the problem-solving activity" (Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:5).

Here the learner is seen as not playing a part; "he is himself". This statement is somewhat misleading. Even if participants draw on their own particular experience in a simulation, that does not make the situation itself less of a pretence. However, interaction in the sense defined above does take place and participants may take a similar approach in simulating the given task to the one they would take in a similar real-life situation.

For K. Jones the roles in simulations should direct participants towards performing a specific task: "Although simulations have roles, they do not have play, but are concerned with a job and a function, not a new personality" (1985:5). The term 'gaming' is also often used to refer to activities of this kind, for example by Ray and Duke, who refer to gaming as "structured interaction between players of roles" (1968:149).

To sum up, the term 'game' is often used to refer to a self-contained activity, 'role-play' is usually used to refer to circumscribed activities involving only limited interaction, and 'simulation' is used to refer to open-ended activities. In practice, however, designers do not always make clear distinctions either between the activities themselves or between the terms used.

The fact that all of these authors discuss issues of definition and of the relationship between games, simulation and reality reflects their significance in the literature and practice of simulations.

Different activities are seen as sharing various characteristics. Simulations, for example, are often seen as including competitive elements and role-play. The lack of clear distinction between the various terms used makes a precise distinction between different activities impossible. Ellington et al., for example, see games, simulations and case studies as overlapping to a greater or lesser extent, "giving rise to various types of hybrid exercise which possess the essential characteristics of more than one class" (Ellington et al. 1982:10), illustrating the difficulty of attempting to standardise the use of terminology in the field. This makes it impossible to be sure whether any activity labelled 'game' or 'simulation' conforms to one's expectations of the activity type without examining it in detail. Three questions can be asked to shed light on what kind of activity a particular exercise is: Firstly, what does the designer aim to achieve by means of the exercise; secondly, how does the designer regard the relationship between the simulation and reality; and thirdly, what aspects of the activity are discussed in the debriefing session. The answers can enable the teacher to evaluate whether the activity is relevant in his/her teaching context. In the following three sections I discuss each of these questions in turn. The answers are interrelated, as I sum up in the conclusion.

2. The aims of simulations: Behavioural and non-behavioural objectives

Clarke (1978) distinguishes between two categories of aims with regard to simulations used in the study of international relations. This distinction can also be usefully applied to simulations designed for foreign-language learning.

His first category includes specific, explicit objectives which "can be assessed, or perhaps measured" (Clarke 1978:62). He refers to this type of objective as "behavioural". In simulations in this category participants may be required to reiterate factual knowledge, solve a particular problem or use particular vocabulary (Ibid.).

Some simulations have been designed for language learning to pursue such objectives, for example, to include practice of a specific item of grammar (such as conditional forms), or a limited linguistic function (such as greeting, disagreeing etc), although this is rarely the only focus of the exercise.

Clarke's second category of objectives is more abstract and global. It includes participants understanding the concepts on which the game is based, (concerning diplomacy, communication, power or integration), interaction that is "characteristic or instrumental" for that subject, and the way in which the designer's model itself functions (Ibid.:70). In order to define learning objectives and design an appropriate simulation to meet them the designer must have a detailed knowledge of these complex concepts him/herself.

Clarke also considers it to be important for the participants to gain knowledge and experience through the simulation: "Involvement and identification help the players to think a little outside their normal patterns of experience which determine their compartmentalisation and evaluation of knowledge" (Ibid.:73). A simulation may also require "that a concept or an idea be articulated and presented to different groups of people, in a changing situation that can test, undermine and refine it" (Ibid.:73).

Examples of this type of objective in simulations for foreign-language learning include enabling learners to target messages to a particular audience, or to understand the complex interrelationships involved in a communicative situation. In simulations of real organisations, for example, Brand and Walker see simulations as a means of providing a framework for understanding communicative situations: "It helps develop participants' understanding of a situation in terms of options, key relationships, major factors, potential consequences, problem areas and priorities" (1982a:115).

When the aims of the exercise are specific and circumscribed, the simulation is unlikely to be confused in any way by participants with the segment of reality it models. Evaluation of participants' performance in the debriefing session after such simulations is very often based on how closely it matches up with the designer's definition of the language that would be appropriate in the real situation (Clarke's behavioural objectives).

When, on the other hand, the aims are more global and more abstract, debriefing may include a comparison between the simulation and reality, but it also focuses on whether the participants experienced the situation they created in the simulation as realistic. This experience is inevitably influenced by their cultural background, which may differ from that of the simulation designer. This can itself become a point for discussion in feedback. I comment on this in more detail with reference to examples in Chapter 7, Sections 2 to 4.

Simulations for language-teaching may include either of these types of objective or a combination of both, since communicative competence includes both skills that are specific and measurable, and also an awareness of complex interrelationships. Littlewood summarises these skills as comprising an ability to manipulate the linguistic system, an understanding of how the linguistic forms learnt function as part of a communicative system, an ability to use language to communicate messages as effectively as possible in concrete situations and an awareness of the social meaning of language forms (Littlewood 1990:6).

The designer's choice of objectives has a major influence on the relationship between the simulation and reality and on the focus of debriefing.

In the next two sections I shall examine the issues of reality and debriefing in more detail.

3. The relationship between simulations and reality

There are broadly two ways of defining the relationship between simulations and reality with regard to simulations used in communicative contexts, such as foreign-language learning. "One perspective sees them as merely *representations* of some other 'real worldly' system ... (A)nother, less commonly held view sees simulations as *operating realities* in their own right" (Crookall and Saunders 1989:12). Let us look at each of these in turn.

(a) Simulations as models of reality

According to this view of simulations, the designer selects a particular segment of reality as the basis of a model, reflecting a real situation.[1] "The (real-life) events are ... simplifed" (L. Jones 1983a:1) so that it is easier for the participants to focus on what is relevant for the interaction of the simulation; the materials should not be "cluttered up with sophisticated detail, which can daunt the language student" (K. Jones 1982:7). The choice of what to include is based on the designers' educational aims. K. Jones describes designers' selection criteria as follows: "(T)hey select those bits of reality they think are the most useful, or the most interesting, or the most important, or the most challenging, or the most likely to encourage interaction among the participants" (1985:13).

Designers who regard simulations as models of reality argue that through creating a realistic situation, learners can practise skills they will later require in a real situation. Beneke's view that "(s)imulation games usually imitate a possible future reality that needs some rehearsing because of its difficulty or danger" (Beneke 1981:163) suggests that the simulated language-classroom situation is directly applicable to a future real life situation. L. Jones

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1 The Society for the Advancement of Games and Simulations in Education and Training (SAGSET), for example, sees simulations as "working representation(s) of reality" (SAGSET leaflet, 1993); Buddensiek views them as "realistic models" (Buddensiek 1985:606, my translation); L. Jones describes them as "'a classroom copy' or 'model' of real life events" (1983a).

shares this view, regarding simulations as "a preparation for real life" (L. Jones 1983b:1).

Participation in the simulation is thus seen as providing preparation for an activity in which the participant may have theoretical knowledge but limited practical experience. The scenario for the simulation is circumscribed, clearly defined and tightly structured, with the effect that the skills required by participants to complete their tasks successfully are predictable and can be practised before the simulation itself begins. Designers of simulations for foreign-language learning who take this approach, such as L. Jones (1983), present students with specific learning goals, provide them with preparatory material to reach them, and emphasise that the activity is preparation for a real situation. Debriefing serves the purpose of comparing students' performance within the simulation with the facilitator's view of the referent reality and it may focus on specific language errors. In the case of elementary students this may be carried out in the students' mother tongue. The aim is for students to be able to later directly tranfer what they have learnt to a real-life situation.

The concept of transfer, is however, not ideally suited to language-learning. It is better applicable to types of simulation where there is a nearly one-to-one relationship between the activities practised and later applied. This may be possible in the case of flight simulators in pilot training, but is less relevant to language learning, where there is no such one-to-one relationship between the simulated situation and a real-life situation, or indeed between two real-life situations. Rather than seeing the language practice that takes place in simulations as being directly transferable to a real-life situation, it may thus be more appropriate to see simulations as models of the kind of situation that may arise in real life and to encourage students to develop strategies for manipulating and adapting the language they know to variable situations.

(b) Simulations as a reality in their own right

Designers who see simulations as a reality in their own right often criticise designers who, in their view, place too much emphasis on attempting to imitate reality. Waltz advises as follows: "Instead of wanting to reproduce (the real world) ... we should try to identify the factors and the variations of factors that account for the events that interest us" 1968:106). Clarke presents a similar view: "The differences between the simulation and the original - the 'unreality' ... are intentional and should be explicit. After all, it is pointless to build another dimension of 'reality' into a game unless one has some idea of why that dimension should be important and worth including. The pursuit of greater 'realism', for its own sake, is meaningless" (1978:78). Designers who share these views argue that simulations are real situations in their own right. In their view the success of the simulation cannot be judged in terms of whether it was an accurate representation of reality because any view of reality is itself an interpretation which can never be ultimate or authoritative. Instead, they argue, the activity must be judged in terms of whether or not effective communication took place *within* the simulation itself.

Such designers do not aim for a particular view of reality to be mirrored precisely in a simulation, but for participants to be able to accept the situation as the basis for creating a social situation that they can experience as credible, reflecting Berger and Luckmann's view of reality (see Chapter 3). Legenhausen and Wolff even go so far as to say that "(t)he value of a simulation ... depends on whether participants succeed in creating a new social reality" (1988:178).

Rather than viewing the aim of the simulation as being to provide participants with practice in skills they can later apply to real-life situations, designers holding this view underline the importance of the participants' social experience[2] within the self-contained world of the activity, the fact that various language skills are integrated rather than isolated, and that they are linked to their social context.

An example referred to by Clarke illustrating what he means by 'real' is Nicholson's Bosnian Crisis Game, used at the Open University.[3] In it, "one is communicating information, (*and* attitudes and value judgements, my comment) even if about an imaginary world, in much the same way as about the real world. It is primarily from this that the realism of the game is derived, and because the communication is real the power soon appears to be real also" (Clarke 1978:89). The word 'real' is used here ambiguously to refer to the world, to communication in the simulation and to how students experience power in the simulation. Crookall and Saunders at least distinguish between '*real*' and '*defined or experienced as real*': "Because participants define the simulation activity as real, the consequences of that activity are experienced as real" (1989:16). However, while this emphasises the participants' level of involvement in the activity, it tells us little about the nature of the activity itself.

I shall discuss the concept of reality in more detail in the next chapter, but note here that the indiscriminate use of the word 'real' leads to various ambiguities. When designers and participants together produce a simulation, that production is 'real' enough. It exists in its own right, whether it mirrors another situation or not. So a play could simulate a real-life situation, but be a quite articulate and independent thing - a reality - at the same time. A distinction between artificially-created and not artificially-created may help to overcome the ambiguity and confusion which

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2 Cf. Watson and Sharrock: "As with all sets of social rules, game rubrics must be actively interpreted by players; game rules do not provide for their own application but must be applied through members' practices" (1987:182).

3 See appendix.

accompany rather arbitrary meanings being given to the concept of reality.

Crookall introduces the concepts of credibility and authenticity, suggesting that if students identify with their roles, they also experience the language as authentic:

> "The 'communicativeness' or 'normalcy' (or authenticity) of this language (i.e. the language used in simulations) will depend very largely not on how faithfully or minutely the situation created reflects the relevant features in a 'real world' situation, but on how realistically and credibly (from the students' point of view) it does so" (Crookall 1984:262).

However, while students may have communicated successfully, they may also have made language errors. If the exercise aims not only to give participants a sense of success in communication, but also to improve their ability to apply language structures, these language errors should be discussed in debriefing.

Debriefing may also be used, for example, to evaluate the events in the simulation from the point of view of how well particular students were able to formulate and pursue a particular strategy and whether they took cultural factors into account in making a particular decision. Since the theoretical basis of the model design itself inevitably contributes to the students' performance, it too should be a subject for evaluation in debriefing. These issues are examined in the next section.

4. Debriefing

Debriefing is, for good reason, usually restricted to a special session after the simulation. "(C)orrection of errors during a role-play is not very satisfactory, in so far as the frequent stopping of the action simply has the effect of diverting the participants from their arguments and bringing the development of the situation to a frustrating halt" (MacGregor 1979:33). Brand and Walker make a similar point: "In games based on role-play, learning feedback is generally best left to defined sessions. Interruptions of role-plays, unless absolutely necessary, will disturb the continuity of the game" (1982b:166).

Feedback is intended to contribute to the learning experience of the activity. Brand and Walker, for example, regard it as "the means by which the trainer reinforces the learning experience of the game, looks at related issues and extends the learning experience" (Ibid.:166). Various methods may be used.[4]

For those who regard simulations as models of reality, debriefing is an uncomplicated matter with the aim of discussing whether students in the simulation met the real-life standards[5] defined to participants from the beginning:

> "If behavioural objectives are set, it is useful to have a skilled observer who takes no part in the game. Notes should be made on a structured basis and should be consistent with the objectives stated during the presentation" (Brand and Walker 1982b:166).

For language-learning purposes, debriefing of this kind would focus on "errors of appropriateness or register which can make the student appear aggressive or arrogant and which can prejudice the listener against him" as well as of pronunciation, structure and lexis (MacGregor 1979:33). In whole-class feedback, such errors can be placed in the context of general differences between the learners' native language and English so as to avoid humiliating individual students.

For those who see simulations as realities in their own right, debriefing may be more difficult and similar to reflections on one's own behaviour in real life, which may also cover a variety of complex factors: "(T)he actor identifies with the socially objectivated typifications

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[4] These may include a discussion or tutorial on the basis of a student questionnaire, a facilitator's monitor sheet, or an audio or video recording (Cf. Brand and Walker 1982:167 and MacGregor 1979:33).

[5] Legenhausen and Wolff, for example, are of the opinion that "It is a crucial feature of simulations that decisions and actions are evaluated in real life terms, i.e. according to norms and standards that hold in reality" (Legenhausen and Wollff 1988:178).

of conduct *in actu*, but re-establishes distance from them as he reflects about his conduct afterwards. This distance between the actor and his action can be retained in consciousness and projected to future repetitions of the actions" (Berger and Luckmann:1979:91).

The aim in this case is not so much to compare whether participants' behaviour in the simulation matched up with the facilitator's expectations, as to establish how well they succeeded in differentiating between different realities or, to use a less confusing term, levels of reality,[6] and using language apppropriate for each.

In a study of code-switching[7] in a simulation carried out with German students learning French, Legenhausen and Wolff comment that there is "constant switching between discourse levels, sometimes even within a single turn of speech" (Legenhausen and Wolff 1988:182). They distinguish between "three different discourse levels which are characterised by their relationship to different levels of reality". These are simulation-internal utterances (i.e. playing a role within the simulation, of which 18 per cent are in the students' L1), program-related utterances (i.e. commenting on the simulation itself, of which 23 per cent are in students' L1) and authentic-situational utterances (i.e. talking about other matters than the simulation, of

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[6] Crookall and Saunders' jargon is extremely confusing: "Debriefing allows parallels to be drawn between simulation realities and 'real' realities; it allows realities to be examined in a new, more 'realistic' light" (Crookall and Saunders 1989:18); while 'real realities' are presented as being more real than simulation realities, the inverted commas suggest the opposite. It would be more helpful to see reality as having different levels, each of which requires its own code of language and behaviour, or as artificially-created and not artificially-created realities (see section 3b in this chapter).

[7] O'Sullivan et al. define a code as "a system of signs governed by rules agreed (explicitly or implicitly) by the members of the using culture" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:43).

which 82 per cent are in the students' L1) (Legenhausen and Wolff 1988:181).

The code-switching that took place led to misunderstandings among the students. When different levels of reality are indistinguishable, confusion, misunderstandings and ambiguities arise.[8] In the view of Legenhausen and Wolff, this has "a detrimental effect on the simulation" (1988:177).

Regardless of whether or not a simulation is used for language-learning purposes, or with other aims in mind, its success partially depends on students being able to themselves select the code or codes they use. If the simulation design requires students to use codes which they do not determine for themselves (cf. definition by O'Sullivan et al. in footnote 7), the activity is unlikely to be wholly successful, as in the case of the simulation GRANVILLE:[9]

> "(t)he computer ... is absolutely in the centre of the activity and dictates every single step in the simulation. It thus interferes with the communicative and simulative processes that should develop between participants. Since the participants are forced to constantly focus on the technical manipulation of the program, they are prevented from creating a new social reality themselves, which seems to be a prerequisite for a successful simulation" (Legenhausen and Wolff 1988:187).

While the codes students use in simulations for foreign-language learning purposes differ from those used to pursue other aims in so far as they are carried out in the students' foreign rather than their native language,

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8 Boardman cites the example of current affairs simulations. When these were set "'in the present', it was found that 'news' and other information and messages circulating between teams had to compete with actual news from the real world, with resulting confusion for students" (Boardman 1969:180).

9 Legenhausen and Wolff describe this computer simulation as a "program especially designed for language learning purposes", based on the scenario that "(t)he students have won a five-day holiday in Granville on the French Atlantic coast and are asked to plan their activities during their stay" (1988:180). I have been unable to obtain further details of this simulation.

code-switching is also a perfectly normal feature of L1 simulations and indeed, everyday life, too, where it is often necessary to play several roles at the same time, and different discourses may not be compatible.[10]

In focusing on this issue, debriefing after a simulation can be used to make participants more aware of different discourse levels: "(T)he presence of explicative transactions is (not) some kind of defect in the playing of the games; on the contrary, these are a constituent feature of the playing" (Watson and Sharrock 1987:184).

This kind of debriefing is appropriate when the objectives of a simulation are non-behavioural.

5. Conclusions

As we have seen, the term 'simulation' does not in itself enable us to judge what kind of exercise is involved since it is used to refer to a variety of exercise types, reflecting different theoretical approaches to language-learning. Many widely differing aims may be pursued using different kinds of simulation, ranging from practising language structures, to problem-solving, to improving participants' communicative and even cultural competence.

A broad division, however, can be made between two ways of seeing simulations. The first focuses on behavioural objectives, regarding simulations as a preparation for reality and using the debriefing session to compare the participants' performance in the simulation with the requirements of the real-life situation. The second approach emphasises non-behavioural objectives, seeing simulations as a reality in their own right and using the debriefing session to discuss participants' perceptions of that reality. In language-learning contexts the first approach is commonly taken in simulations which aim to practise language structures, whereas the second is more often taken in simulations

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10 See Sperber and Wilson 1986.

where the emphasis is on communicative or cultural competence.

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGNERS' VIEWS OF REALITY

The approach designers of simulations for language-learning take to their task is influenced by the way in which they perceive the relationship between simulations and reality. In this chapter my aim is thus not to define 'reality' in general terms but to show how it is used in relation to simulations for language-learning.

The term 'reality' is common in definitions of simulations (see Chapter 2, footnote 1), and is used as a convenient label for 'the referent of the simulation'. In the foreign-language classroom, this referent is usually seen as being an everyday communicative situation. Participants are required to play a particular role in such a situation, using the medium of the foreign language. Since both the situation and the roles are clearly specified, it is possible to pre-teach appropriate phrases. Students thus gain confidence in integrating the grammar, structures and phrases they have learnt in a communicative context. The integration of various language skills in a simulation is seen as "a realistic requirement, since in real life each language skill isn't isolated in the way it often is in simple classroom activities" (Jones 1983a:2). This is relevant to current approaches to language teaching since they aim to go beyond language learning as a linguistic system and to see it as part of a communicative system used in specific social contexts (see, for example, Littlewood 1990:1-6).

There are striking similarities between the way in which designers of simulations used for foreign-language learning or communication skills practice describe the situation in the simulation and the way in which sociologists describe 'reality'. In the following three sections I discuss the way in which sociologists see reality, the role played by language in creating and maintaining it and finally parallels between reality and simulations.

1. <u>The social creation of reality in everyday life</u>

'Reality' is used by sociologists to refer to typical social encounters in everyday life, regarded by Berger and Luckmann as "the reality *par excellence*" among multiple realities (1979:35):

> "(M)ost of the time, my encounters with others in everyday life are typical in a double sense - I apprehend the other *as* a type and I interact with him in a situation that is itself typical" (Berger and Luckmann 1979:46).

In these encounters, people within a particular society are seen as playing typical social roles:

> "Both self and other can be apprehended as performers of objective, generally known actions, which are recurrent and repeatable by *any* actor of the appropriate type (Berger and Luckmann 1979:90).

They are also considered to communicate in typical, and thus largely predictable, ways, which can be represented in the form of a model or *schema*. According to Fairclough, a schema is "a representation of a particular type of activity ... in terms of predictable elements in a predictable sequence" (Fairclough 1989:158). O'Sullivan et al. also see the term being used

> "to explain how established ways of understanding, or ways of structuring experience, are used to make sense of new situations. The new is made to fit the pattern of the familiar. ... Ultimately, complementary schemata may be organised into some coherent structure or mental map. As such, they may be modified or replaced as more and more events and relationships are assimilated and acted upon, or as cognitive structuring becomes more advanced" (1995:276).

While it may be predictable to some extent, a schema is thus not a fixed, rigid mental structure, but one which is adapted to new experiences.

2. The role of language in creating everyday reality

Language plays a key role in this process of establishing and maintaining everyday social structures and hierarchies since it is largely by means of language that individuals are socialised:

> "Every individual is born into an objective social structure within which he encounters the significant others who are in charge of his socialisation. These significant others are imposed upon him. Their definitions of his situation are posited for him as objective reality. He is thus born into not only an objective social structure but also an objective social world. The significant others who mediate this world to him modify it in the course of mediating it. They select aspects of it in accordance with their own location in the social structure, and also by virtue of their individual, biographically rooted idiosyncrasies" (Berger and Luckmann 1979:151).

The role of language in this process is vital:

> "Society, identity and reality are subjectively crystallised in the same process of internalisation. This crystallisation is concurrent with the internalisation of language. Indeed ... language constitutes both the most important content and the most important instrument of socialisation" (Ibid.:153).

In learning to use language in a typical way that conforms to other users' expectations, participants in a social situation are not merely communicating on a linguistic level, but are also reaffirming their recognition and acceptance of the socially established form of the particular type of interaction and the relationships between the participants it implies, even though they may not themselves be aware of the fact. This has been observed by Berger and Luckmann:

> "The world of everyday life is not only taken for granted as reality by the ordinary members of society in the subjectively meaningful conduct of their lives. It is a world that originates in their thoughts and actions, and is maintained as real by these" (1979:33).

Fairclough also points out that participants in social interaction may not be aware of the fact that they are contributing to maintaining, or threatening, the existing hierarchy: "(I)n discourse people can be legitimising (or delegitimising) particular power relations without being conscious of doing so" (Fairclough 1989:41).

Reality is in this sense a social construction, "a world created in the course of social practice" (Ibid.:37).

In the course of socialisation, first at home and then at school, a child learns vocabulary appropriate for particular subject areas and also learns to play personal roles:

> "Secondary socialisation requires the acquisition of role-specific vocabularies, which means, for one thing, the internalisation of semantic fields structuring routine interpretations and conduct within an institutional area" (Berger and Luckmann 1979:158).

This socialisation process is also likely to reflect dominant schemata within the particular society: "(I)t is schemata, etc., which bear the ideological imprint of socially dominant power-holders that are likely to be a naturalised resource for all" (Fairclough 1989:160). The way in which this resource is used may be "basically conservative, sustaining continuity", or "basically transformatory, effecting changes" (Ibid.:39). In the case of language-learning, standard schemata reflecting native speaker standards and values are likely to be the dominant ones, and the ones that are generally taught in preparation for simulations. Teachers thus present their students with typical situations in which they are required to play typical roles. Teachers are thus able to present students with predictable, typical vocabulary and phrases. In addition, of course, students need to develop strategies for adapting typical language to the specific requirements of particular situations, which may prove difficult since the students' own culture is different from the culture of the target language.[1]

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[1] Fairclough quotes an extract from a simulated job interview for a post in an American library which illustrates this difficulty. The role of the applicant is played by a member of a cultural minority (C2):
<u>Interviewer</u>: What about the library interests you most?
<u>C2</u>: What about the library in terms of the books? or the whole building?
<u>Interviewer</u>: Any point that you'd like to ...

3. Parallels between simulations and reality

The reality of everyday communication as defined by sociologists has much in common with one approach to simulations used for foreign-language learning, i.e. that one which sees simulations as a reality in their own right. Firstly, reality is created through social practice in which participants play typical roles much of the time; secondly, this reality is created through language and thirdly, power structures are maintained in the process (in simulations these structures are created collectively by the designer and the participants).

These parallels have been recognised by many simulation designers and is reflected in the use of the terms 'operating reality' or 'game reality' to refer to the social situation that the participants create in a simulation within the framework given by the designer: "(I)t is members' practices or activities which give rise to so-called 'game realities' and ... these are the selfsame practices and activities which maintain ... the attitude of everyday life" (Sharrock and Watson 1985:198).

This may be the case in simulations for educational purposes within a homogeneous cultural group. In the case

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C2: Oh, the children's books, because I have a child, and the children ... you know there's so many you know books for them to read you know, and little things that would interest them would interest me too."
He makes the following telling comment: "Notice that C2's English in terms of grammar and vocabulary is native-like, which in itself is likely to lead the interviewer to dismiss any thoughts of culturally based miscommunication even if those thoughts occurred. But that is a possibility. C2 has failed to interpret the interviewer's question in 'the obvious way' - as an invitation to C2 to show what she could do in her professional work in the library if appointed to the post. But 'the obvious way' is the way within a specific culture of 'the interview', and there is no inherent reason why people should not show how their work interests relate to their family and other interests in response to a question of this sort" (Fairclough 1989:48).

of simulations used for foreign-language learning, however, the learners inevitably have a non-native cultural background. Their everyday life is thus likely to be rather different from the everyday life of a native English-speaking designer. Participants in a simulation may thus not necessarily regard the activities within the simulations as typical or identify with their roles in the same way as a native speaker. As a result the 'game reality', as a collective creation of the designer and the participants, is likely to differ in certain respects from native everyday life (an example of this kind of situation is given in Chapter 7, Section 5b). At the same time, the purpose of using simulations is to prepare students for situations in the foreign-language environment beyond the classroom.

4. Conclusions

While the 'game reality' is a social reality in its own right from the point of view of the participants, it is one function of the debriefing of simulations used for the purposes of foreign-language learning to highlight the differences between that 'game reality' (influenced by the participants' native language and culture) and foreign-language environments beyond the classroom. The two approaches to simulations referred to in Chapter 2 above (i.e. as models of reality or as realities in their own right) are thus complementary rather than mutually exclusive. Debriefing can therefore include *both* an evaluation of whether participants achieved behavioural objectives, such as using particular vocabulary or phrases, *and* whether they achieved non-behavioural objectives, such as understanding the structure of the communicative situation. The weighting given to a discussion of particular objectives depends on the overall purpose of using the simulation.

CHAPTER FOUR

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

In this chapter I examine the concepts of 'communication' and 'communicative competence'. Like the concepts of 'simulation' (see Chapter 2), 'reality' (see Chapter 3) and 'culture' (see Chapter 5), the meaning of these concepts is determined by their use in context. I will thus not attempt to *define* 'communicative competence' or 'communication' in general terms but to show how they have been used in a language-teaching context, in particular in the literature on teaching English as a foreign language. In so doing I am not aiming to offer an exhaustive study of these concepts but rather to show how they are used by designers writing on the subject of simulations and to illustrate the fact that simulations fit into different theoretical approaches to language-learning.

1. The concept of communicative competence

Simulations are often presented in literature on the teaching of English as a foreign language as examples of exercises which can be used to demonstrate or improve the communicative competence of foreign language learners. Savignon, for example, discussing the theory and practice of communicative competence, claims that in simulations "(g)roup interaction is promoted by placing the learners in a fictitious situation or environment with the outcome dependent on their collective communicative competence" (1983:211).

The theoretical basis for the communicative approach to language teaching was laid by Hymes's On Communicative Competence (1971). Hymes distinguishes between two interrelated aspects of communicative competence: firstly, *knowledge* of a language and secondly, the ability to *use* it in social contexts. By taking social aspects of language into account he challenged Chomsky's theory of the ideal speaker-listener.[1] He maintains that within Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence there is no way of differentiating between an eloquent and a poor speaker of a language, as the utterances of both would be referred to as having a common grammar. Hymes instead points to the linguistic diversity represented by members of real linguistic communities. He argues that within a *heterogeneous speech community* there may be *differential competences* and proposes that the language of a community should therefore not be analysed as if it were homogeneous. Accordingly, he concludes, the notion of communicative competence must be extended to include socio-cultural features.

In applying this theory to foreign language teaching, teachers recognised that earlier language teaching methods, with their emphasis on practising grammatical structures in language drills (the structural approach), did not adequately take into account the social aspects of language use for everyday communication. Bertrand, for example, contrasts the limitations of school with life outside it: "School is a narrow, closed space and life goes on in the vast, open

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1 Noam Chomsky (1965) contested what had been the current trend in American linguistics of the 1950s, i.e. that language could be studied as a purely behavioural phenomenon, independently of meaning and of underlying mental structures. He shifted the focus of study away from verbal behaviour to our intuitions about language and it became the goal of linguistics to describe or model the rules that go into making up the native speaker's tacit knowledge of language structure. Chomsky clearly distinguished these *rules* - the grammar - from *performance* - what people actually do when speaking the language. However, in focussing on the competence of "an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community", and on performance as a psychological event rather than being concerned with social interaction, he excluded from his argumentation the issue of the social contexts in which the language is used and their influence on that language (see O'Sullivan et al. 1994:53-54).

world" (1974:182, my translation). The extreme terms used in some criticisms of the methods used in the structural approach to language-learning, for example by K. Jones, reveal the strength of feeling with which communicative methodology was welcomed: "(T)he Communicative Movement has made important inroads into the former dictatorial methods based on teaching vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. What is now stressed is that language should be used to communicate" (K. Jones 1985:117).

This gave rise to the development of the functional-notional approach to language-learning, which, according to Finocchiaro and Brumfit, has the tremendous merit that "students and their communicative purposes are at the very core of the teaching programme" (1983:17). It treats the ability to communicate and interact as the primary goal of language-teaching and arose primarily from work commissioned by the Council of Europe with the aim of identifying the language and cultural content which would enable large numbers of adult learners of English with different interests to be able to communicate and interact with speakers of other languages through the medium of English (Ibid.:10-11). The language was classified according to *functions*, i.e. "what people wanted to *do* with the language" (Ibid.:12) and *notions*, i.e. "what meanings people wanted to convey" (Ibid.).

In applying a functional-notional approach to language-teaching, activities such as mime, role-play and simulation were introduced with the aim of enabling students "to use language *freely*, because they offer an element of choice; to use language *purposefully*, because there is something to be done; and to use language *creatively*, because they call for imagination" (Byrne 1987:115). This approach is also seen as enabling students to practise skills that they may require in specific social situations in everyday life to a greater extent than traditional classroom methods. Beneke, for example, sees simulations as going some way towards overcoming the limitations of the traditional classroom: "(T)here are some methods close to the 'real thing'. One of them is the use of simulation games in the foreign language" (1981). Crookall and Saunders also see simulations used for education and training as being more like the real world than traditional classroom procedure (Crookall and Saunders 1989:12). Byram comments that "(t)he Communicative Approach (to language-teaching) provides pupils with immediate experience of the language both in those activities which emphasise rehearsal and practice of skills and in those which, by dramatising language use in role-play and simulations, introduce learners to language as social action" (Byram 1991:21). In distinguishing here between two types of activities provided for by the communicative approach to language-teaching (i.e. simple activities in which learners rehearse and practise skills, and more complex activities in which they experience language as social action), Byram is reflecting two ways of representing communication itself.

2. Two views of communication

One view of communication presents it as the transmission of information. Another sees it as a negotiation of meaning which takes social and cultural aspects of the situation into account.

Rather than regarding these two approaches as mutually exclusive, it may, for language-learning purposes, be more useful to see them as marking two stages in the language-learning process.

(a) Communication as the transmission of information

The simplest model of communication, often referred to as the transmission or code model, presents it as "a process by which A sends a message to B, upon whom it has an effect" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:50). While this approach does not take differences of interpretation or perspective into account, and suggests that there is a one-to-one equivalence between the thoughts of the sender and those of the recipient, it is an adequate represention of simple tasks involving information exchange. Within this model, each stage of the communication process may be studied and its role in and effect upon the whole process clearly identified. Lasswell (1948) sums this up in his model '*Who* says *what* in *which channel* to *whom* with *what effect*?' (cf. O'Sullivan et al. 1994:50). This model is used to emphasise the efficiency of communication, often in an industrial or administrative context. In his book on efficient communication in public administration, for example, Roschmann writes that communication can be described as follows:

> "A sender transmits thought content by means of a code onto a symbol which he sends via a channel to a recipient, who receives and decodes it, such that the same thought content comes into existence in his or her world of imagination" (Roschmann 1994:12, my translation).

In the field of foreign-language teaching, Herbert and Sturtridge regard simulations as an exercise for practising communication in this sense: "(S)tudents are placed in a realistic communicative situation... They have a mutual need to communicate in order to facilitate the exchange of information and suggestions. With this we have a meaningful way to enable students to improve their communicative competence" (1979:6) L. Jones, similarly, creates 'information gaps' by providing participants with different information which "they then have the chance to communicate to each other" (L. Jones, 1983a:5). Littlewood's *functional communication activities* are another example which reflects this simple model of communication. In them, learners use language to share and to process (e.g. to discuss or evaluate) information (Littlewood 1990:22). Such activities include, for example, an exercise entitled "Communicating patterns and pictures" (Ibid.:31), in which "(l)earner A has an assortment of shapes which he arranges into a pattern. Learner B has the same shapes. They must communicate with each other so that B can reproduce as exactly as possible the same pattern as A" (Ibid.:31). Littlewood sees activities of this kind as "purely functionally-oriented activities in which accuracy or appropriacy are irrelevant. The only aim is to exchange meanings successfully in order to complete a task or solve a problem" (Littlewood 1990:21). Although the transmission model of communication does not adequately cover every utterance that might arise during the course of exercises of the information gap type, such exercises are nevertheless at the lower end of a scale of interactive complexity.

(b) <u>Communication as the negotiation of meaning</u>

At the other end of the scale of complexity, communiciation may be seen as "a negotiation and exchange of meaning, in which messages, people-in-cultures and 'reality' interact so as to enable meaning to be produced or understanding to occur" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:50).

Role-plays and simulations for language-learning are seen as providing an opportunity to communicate in this sense: "(An) important aspect of communicative skill is the ability to take account of the social meaning as well as the functional meaning of different language forms... Because of the limitations of the classroom, simulation and role-playing are now important techniques for creating a wider variety of social situations and relationships than would otherwise occur" (Littlewood 1990:20).

Indeed, Cunningsworth and Horner go so far as to suggest that language learning activities for information exchange cannot be referred to as communicative: "Communicative teaching methodology requires the negotiation of meaning in genuine communicative situations. Unfortunately, the model underlying many 'communicative' materials remains the basis addresser-message-addressee type. In practice this leads to activities to (sic) the information/opinion gap type which, whilst valuable in themselves, should not be confused with real communication" (1985:211). They go on to suggest that for genuine communication to take place the language students must participate in language-learning activities which meet the following requirements:[2]

Firstly, they should not be required to play a role, but remain themselves. Secondly, they should process language input and use the target language to achieve a result. Thirdly, they should be involved in protracted negotiation and adjust to changes in the situation.

The requirements Cunningsworth and Horner here present as essential for the communication in a language-learning activity to qualify as 'genuine' are arbitrary. The first two may also be fulfilled by the type of information/opinion gap exercise they criticise as not providing practice in 'genuine' communication.

Exercises which also fulfil the third requirement are simulations in which communication is presented as the negotiation of meaning. Cunningsworth and Horner present this activity type as the one which probably provides "the most realistic context that can be established in a classroom" (Cunningsworth and Horner 1985:217). This activity type, however, also reflects a *model* of communication, albeit a more sophisticated one than the code model. As such, it also has certain limitations. In the following section, I examine some of them.

3. Limitations of communicative language exercises

(a) The problem of correctness and appropriacy

Cunningsworth and Horner themselves admit that most simulations, while being 'communicative', "pay little attention to the language items necessary for full

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[2] These requirements are based on Brumfit (1984) and Halliday (1973). Brumfit suggests that genuine communication requires that the language produced be processed by the speaker, that the content be determined by him, that normal processes of adjustment to a changing situation are necessary, and that language is never more than a means to an end (Cunningsworth and Horner 1985:211). Halliday identifies three language metafunctions: the ideational, which involves information exchange, the interpersonal, which concerns the relations between the speakers, and the textual, which refers to discourse. (Cunningsworth and Horner 1985:211-212).

participation in the activity, let alone to the way in which these items can actually be used" (Cunningsworth and Horner 1985:217) and recognise that while the participants in a simulation perceive it as being realistic, the language they produce may not be correct or suitable for the context (Ibid.:218). They suggest that "(m)ore integration is needed between the graded process of teaching language items, the sensitisation of the learner to the way in which the language can be used, and the realistic 'practice and use' situation embodied by the simulations" (Ibid.:218).

In practice, this kind of integration is difficult to achieve, since the language items required to meet the demands of an open-ended exercise such as a simulation cannot be predicted in advance. Nor is it possible in feedback to deal with every language item that caused difficulty during the simulation. The link between language items and the realistic practice and use referred to above can only be expressed in the very general terms Cunningsworth and Horner themselves use i.e. sensitising learners to the way in which language can be used.

(b) <u>The problem of culture</u>

The communicative approach to language learning has also been criticised for not taking cultural aspects of the language adequately into account. The conclusions of a study on the perspectives of 180 textbooks published between 1947 and 1986 (Risager 1991), for example, suggest that many recent textbooks present mini-dialogues demonstrating success in communication at the expense of making any attempt to enable students to deal with cultural differences (Ibid.:188). This suggests that recent authors present students with fixed situation types and set words or phrases for dealing with them rather than meeting the demand Cunningsworth and Horner make that students be given practice in adjusting to variable aspects of the situation.

Byram et al. also criticise communicative language-learning for neglecting cultural aspects of language: "Despite the development of pupil activity in the learning of the foreign language - under the general banner of 'communicative language learning' - the teaching of culture remains didactic, oriented toward the transmission of information" (1991:118).

4. Conclusions

In focusing on any one particular set of aims, designers of simulations inevitably lay themselves open to criticism for having neglected others.

In stating that the aim is to improve students' communicative competence, designers of simulations who require students to focus too narrowly on the structures of English may be criticised for not giving them the freedom to use the language in a more realistic context. If, on the other hand, designers allow students to discuss freely, they may be criticised for neglecting the structures of the language, or for not drawing the participants' attention to cultural aspects of the situation.

Through examining examples of simulations in Chapter 6, all of which aim to improve the communicative ability of foreign language students, I present some varied examples of designers' aims. They range from requiring students to present information in a form that is grammatically accurate or appropriate to the situation to creating a situation that students perceive as being credible.

While 'communication' and 'communicative competence' remain leitmotifs throughout, the terms are used in descriptions of simulations in very different ways, reflecting not only functional-notional, but also structural approaches to language-teaching. Curriculum-planners would therefore be well-advised to evaluate a particular simulation in the light of the level of the students and the overall learning aims of the course and to supplement them with an appropriate range of complementary material.

CHAPTER FIVE

MODELS OF CULTURE IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

As in the case of the concepts of 'simulation', 'reality' and 'communication' discussed above, my aim in this chapter is not to propose a definition of the concept, but to illustrate how the term is used in contexts of relevance to teaching English as a foreign language, in keeping with the view of O'Sullivan et al.:

> "(T)he concept of culture cannot be 'verified' by referring its meaning to phenomena or actions or objects out there beyond discourse. What the term refers to ... is determined by the term itself in its discursive context, and not the other way around" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:69).

In the following, I shall thus examine ways in which people perceive culture and the interests each of these perceptions reflect.

I begin by discussing two ways in which people see culture: firstly, as a canon of traditions and values, secondly, as the collective intentionality of a group (Searle 1995). I then illustrate how these two views are reflected in approaches to the English language in particular (on the one hand as a language for international communication, conforming as far as possible to British or American standards, and on the other as a language expressing local, for example, Asian, values). Finally I consider how these two approaches to culture are reflected in simulations designed for use in teaching English as a foreign language.

1. Views of culture

(a) Culture as a canon of traditions

One view of culture, exemplified by the work of anthropologists such as D'Andrade (1981) is that, to a greater or lesser extent, it is a set of values and a canon of traditions shared by a particular group, for example a nation, an ethnic or religious community or a social class, whose characteristics remain recognisable over a long period of time. Recognised authorities such as the Oxford English Dictionary (Brown 1993) for the English language or Debrett's Correct Form (Smith 1979) for etiquette and protocol, accept or reject particular items as part of the canon within a particular community, and individual members of a particular society compile their own selection of this canon. Within the framework of this view, Shakespeare might be cited as part of English culture by someone who has never read or seen one of his plays, let alone understood the historical context in which it was written. The group's canon serves a utilitarian purpose in so far as it provides a framework for behaviour within the group; it is "a tool kit of symbols, stories, rituals and world-views out of which are constructed 'strategies of action', that is, persistent ways of ordering action through time" (Swidler, quoted by Kane 1991:242). This vocabulary suggests that culture consists of component parts which work like a machine ("are constructed", "systems", "tool-kit", "processes", "function"). Such an approach implies that in order to become a member of a society, the individual only needs to learn how to conform to fixed behaviour patterns within a framework provided by established models. Culture is used as an all-encompassing, impersonal label for these models. This view is traditional and conservative, defining culture in the static, concrete terms of what are seen as its consistent parts. Implicitly, such an approach suggests that certain works or customs are *a priori* part of culture. Sooner or later, the problem arises of having to justify why a particular work or custom is considered to be part of the society's cultural canon and another is not. If reasons cannot be found, then all that remains is an unfounded assertion which can only base its legitimacy on tradition. Such a view may be used to naturalise social inequalities or to present sectional interests as general interests of universal value within a society.

(b) Culture as collective intentionality

A second view of culture sees it as a discursive, open, democratic interaction process. It is

> "an historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic form by means of which men communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitude towards life" (Kuna 1991:261, quoting Geertz).

This quotation suggests a similar approach to the one outlined above and the two approaches are not mutually exclusive. However, here there is a crucial difference of emphasis. The plural agent "men" implies that a group of people, men and women, share an interest in communicating their knowledge and attitude, as opposed to those of a different group. It is the social construct of a particular group, based on their collective intentionality, to use Searle's term: "The form that my collective intentionality can take is simply 'we intend', 'we are doing so-and-so', and the like. In such cases, I intend only as part of our intending. The intentionality that exists in each individual head has the form 'we intend'" (Searle 1995:26).

What defines one group in relation to others is its common interest. The symbols, stories, rituals and world-views which are regarded as significant narratives by a particular social group are significant not simply because they are part of an established canon of traditions, but because they play a crucial role in the way in which a social group defines and redefines both itself and other groups with which it interacts in an ongoing process. Such a view can be seen in the following definition of cultural production as

> "The social production of sense, meaning or consciousness... Cultural production is a term gaining currency to emphasise the institutionalised and social

character of culture, as opposed to the widely held belief that culture is the result of individual inspirations and imagination" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:74-75).

This collective intentionality may be shared over a long period of time by members of a group with the same nationality, ethnic background, religion, social class, profession, political views, or language. However, it may also be restricted to a short encounter in which members of groups from different backgrounds come to a consensus on how that interaction will be structured.[1]

To see culture *only* in terms of a discursive process would mean to see it merely in terms of one-off encounters. This would imply a rejection of the view of culture as a set of traditional values and principles within institutional frameworks and might serve the interests of a pluralist, but fragmented society.

These two views of culture are by no means mutually exclusive. Both can be applied to the English language itself and to simulations used in teaching English as a foreign language. In the next two sections I will illustrate how.

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[1] Cf. Goffman's discussion of the agreement between participants in a social encounter on structuring social situations: "Ordinarily the definitions of the situation projected by the several different participants are sufficiently attuned to one another, so that open contradiction will not occur... Together the participants contribute to a single over-all definition of the situation which involves not so much a real agreement as to what exists but rather a real agreement as to whose claims concerning what issues will be temporarily honoured. Real agreement will also exist concerning the desirability of avoiding an open conflict of definitions of the situation" (1972:20-21).

2. International and local 'Englishes': English as both part of a British and American canon of values and an expression of local collective intentionality

The English language has become the leading world language for international communication. Worldwide, more than a billion people speak English as their mother tongue, as a second language or as a foreign language (Naisbitt 1995:26). It is used in certain areas of communication, such as technology, computing, air traffic control, pop music, international business and international conferences, practically to the exclusion of any other language. To give some figures: "60% of the world's radio broadcasts are in English, 70% of the world's mail is addressed in English. 85% of all international telephone conversations are in English. 80% of all the data in the several hundred million computers in the world is in English" (Naisbitt 1995:26).
The advantages of the existence of a *lingua franca* are obvious: native speakers of different languages who need to communicate with counterparts around the world are able to do so without learning several foreign languages.

But what do we actually mean by the 'English' language? The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary distinguishes between two uses of the word. The first is simply "the English language", presumably a standard (universally acceptable?) form of the language. The second is "(t)he 'English' of any special period, district or author" (Brown 1993:658). The inverted commas in the second definition suggest that it is a subset of the first, and perhaps one which may not be acceptable in all contexts. This definition is reflected by Butler, the editor of a dictionary of Asian English:

> "Once we have these two (i.e. British and American) Englishes signposted we move on to the other Englishes. The fact that there is not just one English but many varieties of English throughout the world is evident in the plural form which 'English' acquired in the 1980s" (Butler 1996:4).

She argues in favour of recognising varieties of English[1] that do not conform to British or American standards, while defining these other varieties in relation to British and American English: "The regional dictionary (of Asian English) needs to tell its users about major items of English in British and American English because all of us who are sandwiched between those two big Englishes need to know where we are in relation to them" (Butler 1996:2).

She sees two major influences on varieties of English spoken in Asia. The first can be seen as a reflection of the view of English as part of a canon of British or American cultural values which are foreign in an Asian context:

"The first is outside pressure - the sweep of American English throughout the English-speaking world. This force provides the words which are present globally in international English and which are usually conveyed around the world by the media" (Ibid. 1996:5).

The second is a view of English as the collective creation of its Asian users:

"The other force is the purely local - the wellspring of local culture and a sense of identity. There is a not uncommon attitude to English in South-East Asia which resists Americanisation, as we all do, but nevertheless spurns localism as well. The fear is that

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[1] Butler sees a variety of English as having the following:
"1. A standard and recognisable pattern of pronunciation handed down from one generation to another.
2. Particular words and phrases which spring up usually to express key features of the physical and social environment and which are regarded as peculiar to the variety.
3. A history - a sense that this variety of English is the way it is because of the history of the language community.
4. A literature written without apology in that variety of English.
5. Reference works - dictionaries and style guides - which show that people in that language community look to themselves, not to some outside authority, to decide what is right and wrong in terms of how they speak and write their English" (Butler 1996:4).
Creoles or dialects thus do not, in Butler's view, qualify as varieties. She clearly compiled her list of general criteria with her specific interest in enhancing the status of Asian English in mind.

unless English speakers in their country have a BBC accent they will be the laughing stock of the English-speaking world. In fact the opposite is true... What is not understood by the guardians of 'correct' English is that the vital force of localism is in fact the mark of cultural independence" (Ibid.:7-8).

These two influences on English in Asia may also be observed in many other international contexts where English is used as a common medium of communication by non-native speakers or speakers of non-standard varieties.

This raises the question for teachers of English as a foreign language as to whether it is necessary or desirable to teach standard British or American English if their learners will later use English to communicate with members of other cultural groups whose native language is not English or is not a standard variety of English. The most convincing argument in favour of teaching a standard form of English is that learners themselves want to speak in a way that is understood internationally rather than just within a local community. A variety that is mutually intelligible for native and non-native speakers alike is necessary if effective international communication is to take place. Pidgin varieties of English may be mutually unintelligible, whereas British and American English are still recognised as standard varieties for international communication. This, of course, does not prevent learners from using a local variety of English in a context in which it is understood. Llamzon, for example sees English both as a medium of international communication and a means of expressing local values (1996).

For native speakers, the promotion of their particular national variety of English as an international variety as well also goes hand in hand with presenting a positive image of the values and culture of the country concerned, which may in turn serve political or economic interests. Edwards, for example, observes that "(t)he British Council struggles financially to meet an almost insatiable worldwide demand for British culture and British English, knowing that if British, rather than American, English can become the language spoken in the ex-communist world, the political and financial benefits to the United Kingdom will be enormous" (1994:196). Butler also sees English as a second language (ESL) teachers themselves as capitalising on the assumption that only British English is acceptable: "Their authority to impose notions of correctness requires the assumption that nothing about English in Asia is correct to begin with. The idea of emerging varieties of English in the region setting their own standards in the choice of words they use would undermine the authority of ESL teachers. So they prefer to disregard such a possibility entirely" (Butler 1996:8).

However, many non-native speakers are themselves in favour of learning a standard variety of English in the hope of thereby gaining or maintaining international political recognition or business success. In India, for example, where "the English spoken by many ... is a unique product of two centuries of British colonial rule and the commingling with India's 15 principal languages and some 3,000 dialects" (Spaeth 1995:42), some Indians are concerned that their variety of English may not be intelligible to foreign business people: "Will a potential foreign investor, for example, understand when told his appointment has been preponed?" An Indian consumer group appealed to the British Council for advice. (Ibid.).

Although learners may themselves see the advantages of learning a standard variety of English, it is also important to take account of the fact that English is often used in international contexts where the communication partner is not a native speaker. English classes should thus "provide for contacts with native speakers of other languages who use English as an international medium of communication" (van Ek and Trim 1991:2). Through such contacts, learners come to realise that other users of English may not necessarily share

British or American values, an essential part of learning English for use in a global context:

> "Learners cannot take it for granted that their interlocutor will share either their own values, attitudes, beliefs and social conventions or those of Anglo-Saxon peoples. They will need to be alert to signs of cultural differences, to be tolerant of such differences and be prepared to operate whatever strategies may be needed to establish a proper basis for communication by raising cultural differences into consciousness" (Ibid. 1991:102).

Through non-native varieties of English becoming more established, their users are gaining confidence in using English as a means of expressing their own values rather than regarding English as "an alien language and a conduit of Western culture" (Butler 1996:22-23). A headline in the Straits Times of 12 August 1996 expresses this newly-found self-confidence: "Asia now claims English as its own".

Thus, while the English language may be seen as part of a British and American canon of values, it is at the same time also increasingly becoming a medium of communication among people who do not share these values.

3. <u>Culture in simulations designed for use in teaching English as a foreign language</u>

In the literature on simulations, the term 'operational culture' has been used to mean "a culture in which the individual may interact at a given point in time or in a given situation according to a set of standards, shared by the group, which determine what is important, what is feasible, what to do and how to go about doing it" (Cox and Saunders 1997:2, quoting Goodenough 1971).

The word 'operational' here suggests that the set of standards shared by the group serves a specific practical purpose at a particular moment or in a given situation, rather than necessarily being the principles governing the actions of the same individuals in different situations. This appears to suggest that simulations reflect a view of culture as a process of interaction rather than a canon of values.

However, simulations designed for use in teaching English as a foreign language with the specific aim of enabling participants to learn about the foreign culture often combine the two approaches to culture discussed above, as I shall illustrate in more detail in Chapter 7. The designer may, for example, emphasise that a particular simulation incorporates Western values (see Klarin 1994:111-114), or base the whole structure of a role-play on the participants' identification with stereotypical characteristics of their own or a target language nationality (see Meyer 1991:140), reflecting a view of culture as a canon of beliefs shared by the participants in everyday life beyond the simulation. At the same time, they also create an 'operational reality' within it.

By the same token, simulations may be used in teaching English as a foreign language with the aims *both* of enabling participants to practise a standard, correct form of English *and* of encouraging them to communicate in a way that is mutually intelligible among the group with the English they know. Some designers choose to place the emphasis on just one of these aims. Herbert and Sturtridge (1979), for example, underline the correct use of English, while Di Pietro (1987) stresses the importance of communication.

4. Conclusion

In addition to the designer's conscious language-teaching aims, simulations also convey his or her attitudes about society, communication and culture itself. The structure of a simulation, for example, often requires learners to reach decisions by means of democratic processes e.g. by consensus or majority voting. As such, while simulations may also be one-off encounters, their structure also reflects a set of democratic values. Simulations may thus themselves be seen as a cultural activity, both in the sense of communicating a canon of values, and in the sense of expressing the collective intentionality of the participants.

CHAPTER SIX
SIMULATIONS FOR DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Knowledge of a language involves not only an understanding of its grammar structures and command of its vocabulary, but also the ability to manipulate these appropriately for use in communicative situations. Simulations are one of the activities used to enable students to practise communication skills and develop fluency in situations such as media events or meetings.

The subject of the simulation may be anything the teacher thinks the particular target group can relate to. Subjects of existing EFL simulations range from a bridge-building project in an environmentally sensitive area (L. Jones 1983a:52ff and 1983b:15ff) and choosing the site for a new airport (Goodale 1987b:31ff) to subliminal messages in supermarket music (Ladousse 1991:160ff).[1] These published simulations were all designed by teachers for their own students of English, i.e. the teacher and designer are one and the same person. In the following, however, I distinguish between teachers and designers. My intention in using the word 'designer' is to refer to a teacher in the role of simulation author. I also use the word 'facilitator' to refer to a teacher in the roles of observer during the simulation and discussion leader in feedback.

Although the subject matter of each of the simulations referred to above is specific, the designer's main aim was to provide a context for students at an intermediate to advanced level in the foreign language to enter into a credible and realistic discussion.

The same situation type (e.g. a formal meeting), or subject (e.g. a building project), may be presented in different ways according to the designer's choice of

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[1] See appendix.

learning content. At the one extreme, the designer may choose to underline the importance of formal accuracy and standardised language in the communicative situation[2] and at the other, its psychological credibility or social reality.

In the former case, the exercise is usually seen as *practice* for a real situation. In the latter, creating an *operational reality* within the simulation itself is the main aim (see Chapter 2, section 3). In the first part of this chapter, I examine three designers' views on this and the effects of their choice of emphasis on the activity type and learning that takes place.

In the second part, I look at the different perspectives of the facilitator and the participants in simulations for language learning, especially in ESP. Simulations are a versatile type of exercise which can integrate both specialist and non-specialist approaches to the situation and the language. Different aspects of the situation may be regarded as essential from the different perspectives. The designer may place the emphasis on grammatical or communicative elements, whereas specialist participants may emphasise the subject matter. The two perspectives are by no means mutually exclusive. I shall examine how they can best be combined in a language-learning context.

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2 Extreme examples of situations where standardised language is used are in writing official documents (such as Notes Verbales) or making formal contracts (such as in a wedding ceremony). Through selecting a real-life situation with a high degree of standardisation for a simulation, the designer can prepare and pre-teach lists of standard phrases suitable for the situation. A formal situation follows a more predictable standardised pattern than an informal discussion, and most simulations are based on some kind of formal situation. By selecting a standardised situation requiring the use of standardised language as a prototype, and pre-teaching this language to learners, the designer can also hope for a fairly high degree of correspondence between the language used in the simulation and the real life situation.

1. Three dimensions of simulations for language learning

Di Pietro sees the aims of communicative situations for language learning (more specifically, 'scenarios'[3]) as falling into three categories:

The first is *information exchange* (with its grammatical orientation); the second is *transaction*, highlighting negotiation and the expression of speaker intentions; the third is *interaction*, which emphasises the way in which language can work to portray roles and speaker identities (Di Pietro 1987:6).

The designer's choice of the balance between these elements fundamentally affects two aspects of the activity, firstly, the extent to which participants are expected to use language which conforms to specific *standards*, defined by the teacher at the preparation stage, and secondly, the extent to which the situation is *subjectively credible* for participants.

When the teacher's aim in using an activity is for students to concentrate on a predictable situation involving information exchange, preparation is likely to involve an explanation of the standards he or she expects

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[3] Di Pietro defines a scenario as "a strategic interplay of roles functioning to fulfil personal agendas within a shared context" (1987:41) and sees them as differing from simulations in three main respects:
1. In simulations, every member of the class may prepare and play a different role, whereas in scenarios, a small number of roles is prepared.
2. Simulations often specify a particular set of arguments a participant is to represent, whereas scenarios give details of the situation and leave the participant to decide his or her position.
3. "The teacher in a simulation plays the important role of 'controller', with the main obligation to keep the action moving" whereas in scenarios, the teacher plays several roles at different stages: 'counsellor' (during the rehearsal phase) to 'orchestrator' (for the performance phase) to 'discussion leader' (in the debriefing phase)" (Ibid.:60-61).

As we saw in Chapter 3, all these aspects may also feature in a simulation. Since Di Pietro's definition of scenarios is so similar to the definitions of simulations we discussed there, we see his 'dimensions' of scenarios as being equally applicable to simulations.

regarding grammar or functional phrases. Students are expected to conform consciously to these, which gives them a clear focus at the preparation stage, during the simulation itself, and in feedback. At the same time, they may perceive the situation to be artificial. This type of simulation is often used in a context in which learning language structures is a main aim of the curriculum, e.g. in teaching beginners.

Developing complex operational realities through transaction and interaction, at the other extreme, requires the use of more complex and less predictable language in the simulation. This makes it more difficult for the facilitator to teach the grammar or phrases participants will require, and also more difficult for participants to adapt prepared language so that it is appropriate for the specific situation. The participants' main focus in such activities often shifts from language to developing and attempting to apply strategies with the linguistic means at their disposal. Such simulations often have a high degree of credibility for participants. They are often used in a learning context in which there is no formal curriculum, but where the learners need to be able to use English in specific, often vocational, contexts. They are best suited to learners at intermediate and advanced levels.

2. Designers' priorities

I shall now examine three examples of the priorities of designers of simulations for EFL and ESP and the effects of these on the type of language learning or practice.

(a) Presenting information in a grammatically accurate form

In Herbert and Sturtridge's view, there is a fundamental difference between the aims of simulations used with native speakers and those used in the foreign language classroom. The former's function is "training in decision-making or in making those involved aware of a problem", whereas in the latter "this function is replaced by the language practice function" (1979:6). This implies that it is not primarily the *situation* that presents difficulty for the language learner, especially in the field of ESP, but dealing with it *in a foreign language*.

In the simulation, the participants apply skills from their first language (L1) experience to a second language (L2) context, which is chosen on the basis of language learning objectives (Ibid.:9). These include functions and grammar: "Does the student need to take notes, for instance, or to summarise in written or spoken language? Will the language of propositions, descriptions of processes, offering advice be relevant?" (Ibid.:8). Clearly, for these authors, the language, i.e. functions and grammar, is the focus of the activity.[4]

Although students from different cultural backgrounds may approach the same problem in different ways, Herbert and Sturtridge make the general statement that "(t)he closer the simulation can be to reality and to the students' own first language role or new foreign language role, the closer the language that he produced will be to that which he will need to produce in the real situation" (Ibid.:5). While this suggests that they recognise that the student's L1 and L2 roles are different,[5] they do not draw out such distinctions in any more detail. The use of simulations for foreign-language learning is rather seen as an opportunity for students to apply the skills they may already have in an L1 context to an L2 context.

While Herbert and Sturtridge do not discuss possible differences of approach to the simulated problem by

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4 An example of a simulation by Herbert and Sturtridge is the media simulation, Radio Portland, given in the appendix.

5 Even in a situation which is nominally the same in different cultures e.g. a doctor-patient, or salesperson-customer situation, the real-life roles differ according to their status in the particular society.

students from different cultural backgrounds, they do underline the importance of students having otherwise similar starting positions in a simulation, saying that ESP students should have "more or less homogeneous professional backgrounds" (Ibid.:7) and that at the preparation stage participants should be provided with a "basis of common knowledge from which they can work" (Ibid.:10).

Having read the scenario and background information and individual role-card, the students' next task is to "obtain information from English language sources" (Ibid.:6), which Herbert and Sturtridge present as motivating for the student because "the information he gathers, either for himself or his group, will be used later" (Ibid.:10). The issue of *how* best to present and use this information so as to pursue personal or group goals effectively is not discussed; indeed the step between having information and deciding which parts of it to communicate to what end appears to take place automatically: "When he has the information about the problem and the background to the problem and possibly his own role-card, he then knows *what* he wants to say" (Ibid.:10). The teacher's task is to supply the student with the language to do this: "A further input ... can be language work to help the student with *how* to say what he wants to say; this can take the form of classroom or language laboratory practice" (Ibid.:10).[6] Although the authors suggest that this language input may include "some of the important functions, structures, lexis and procedural moves which will be necessary for subsequent meaningful language practice" (Ibid.:8), it is limited to dealing with the stage of the activity where the main language function is relatively simple, i.e. presenting information to the rest of the sub-group or group.

In the second stage of the activity, the functions appear to be more complex than the presentation of

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6 This assumes that a native speaker in this situation would know what he or she wanted to say before engaging in the activity.

information during the first stage: "(s)ub-groups ... negotiate with others, building up alliances and policies which will help them when all the groups come together" (Ibid.:10). Yet at this stage there is no language input or any discussion of *how* the foreign language can be used for negotiation or the application of the planned strategies. This can be explained by examining what is meant by 'negotiation'. It appears to be limited to making well-prepared consecutive presentations, as in a formal debate, rather than adapting positions in the course of discussion to take the interventions or reservations of other groups into account: each of the sub-groups "will offer their group's suggestion to the whole group for consideration" (Ibid.:10). For this, the language provided for exchanging information is adequate.

Feedback, the final stage of the activity, "requires skilful handling by the teacher to avoid becoming a depressing catalogue of errors. It is perhaps best for the teacher to indicate briefly to the students the areas where they were weakest and to plan their future language work in the light of the errors made and the situations where they were unable to communicate accurately" (Ibid.:11). As in the first two stages of the activity, Herbert and Sturtridge here view the grammatically accurate presentation of information as a primary aim of communication in a foreign language.

Their approach consistently focuses on the information-exchange and transaction aspects of communication, but does not explictly include interaction and the cultural issues that would involve. This is in line with the view of communication as the transmission of a message from one person to another (see Chapter 4, section 2a), rather than as a negotiation of meaning (see Chapter 4, section 2b). Enabling students to develop strategies or follow a personal agenda does not appear to be a main aim, but rather providing them with an opportunity to present factual information from their own subject area to other people in English (a requirement for any academic conference): "In a satisfactorily designed simulation, with appropriate setting, task and roles, the students will not feel that the professional content of the topic is too simple for them, since they are providing the detailed content in the realisation of the simulation, of which only the overall framework has been imposed. The direction its evolution takes is their responsibility" (Ibid.:10). This overall framework limits the required functions to such an extent that students can concentrate on the content and grammatical structure of what they say, and on its relevance to their needs outside the language classroom. This type of simulation is particularly useful for students with specialist skills or knowledge who have intermediate proficiency in English, at least in reading and listening. Participating in simulations provides such students with an opportunity to gain confidence in applying their knowledge of English to practical situations related to their specialised field.

(b) Relating language to situation

Goodale's collection of simulations, entitled Meetings is, according to the cover, intended for use with staff in multi-national companies, civil servants working for international organisations, students in business and international schools and anyone preparing to attend international meetings or conferences. The simulations are intended for the post-intermediate student and the aim is "to increase participants' confidence in using their English in international meetings" (Goodale 1987b:back cover).

In the preparation stage, students learn a range of expressions from a separate book, The Language of Meetings (Goodale 1987a), for carrying out a range of functions, such as presenting an argument or opinion, agreeing and disagreeing, interrupting, clarifying, questioning, making proposals, persuading, expressing degrees of importance and certainty and compromising (Ibid.:3-4). Each category of function is then divided into sub-categories.[7] This provides participants with a framework of language for structuring their transactions. The disadvantage of presenting such phrases for meetings (or any other type of situation), however, is that students may not learn to distinguish between different kinds of meetings. As Goodale recognises, "(t)here are many kinds of meeting, and different degrees of formality" (Ibid.:5) and this requires speakers to be in a position to differentiate when a particular standard phrase is of an appropriate register and when it is not. This awareness cannot be sufficiently reflected in lists of 'standard phrases' such as those Goodale presents to learners of English, with the comment that "(t)hese phrases are the same whether they are used to discuss nuclear warfare, arrangements for booking the hall for the amateur dramatic society's annual show, marketing difficulties with a new product, or a Housing Association discussion on replanting the gardens" (Ibid.:6). The language for a wide variety of more and less formal meetings is thus presented as conforming to a simplified prototype that does not adequately take into account the different registers which would be appropriate in the real-life situations modelled. A contribution to a multilateral negotiation at the European Union (EU) would require the use of a different register than the annual general meeting of the local branch of the Women's

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[7] In the section on agreeing and disagreeing, for example, Goodale gives phrases for strong agreement, neutral agreement, partial agreement, softening strong disagreement, strong disagreement, softening neutral disagreement, neutral disagreement and tactful disagreement (Goodale, 1987a:40-41). Let me illustrate his approach with some examples. Under "Strong agreement" we find the following:
"I completely agree.
I agree entirely with your point of view.
I'm of exactly the same opinion.
I'm in total agreement" (Ibid. 1987:40), and under "softening neutral disagreement" we read:
"I'm afraid ...
I'm sorry ...
With respect ...
I respect your opinion, of course, however ..."
(Ibid. 1987:41).

Institute, for example. However, Goodale does sensitise learners of English to the need to develop an awareness of how the language they use can be adapted to particular situations through asking them questions such as: "Can you give examples from your own language of how a basic message is presented in different language to make it more socially acceptable or effective?" (Ibid.:9). In asking students this question, Goodale acknowledges that the social acceptance and effectiveness of a message depend on the speaker's command of the appropriate register for a particular situation, whether the language being spoken is English or not[8] and sensitises learners to this issue.

Feedback after simulations of this kind focuses on discussing the appropriacy of the language students used in attempting to achieve their aims.

Goodale's approach to simulations makes clear to participants that the forms of language they use are directly related to the structure of the communicative event itself and it is this aspect that they focus on in preparation, in the simulation itself, and in feedback.

(c) Creating a credible situation

Crookall (1984) takes a rather different approach to simulations, placing the emphasis firmly on credibility for participants, and criticising EFL role play or simulation exercises written to practise specific language forms in simple dialogue situations as "contrived in order to illustrate, or to get students to practise or drill, certain language points" (1984:263) and "unnecessarily artificial" (Ibid.:262). He proposes instead using simulations designed for use in other subject areas in the language classroom, without adaptation: "Providing they are run as they are originally intended to be run (i.e. as *language-using*,

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8 In Chapter 7 I discuss ways in which simulations for teaching English as a foreign language can be seen as a cultural event reflecting native speaker attitudes and values.

rather than as language *practice* activities), many non-EFL simulations (by which I understand simulations written primarily for native speakers of English to enable them to practise skills other than their language skills) can ... be perceived by students as more real and credible than many EFL simulations" (Ibid.:263). His focus is on credible student interaction, not on language:

"(W)hen using simulations in ELT (English Language Teaching), we should not be concerned with language *at all*, but with the socially constructed situation and its meanings; we should not 'teach EFL', but simply attempt to make the classroom as real and as credible a situation as we can, *irrespective of what kind of language is produced*. ... If we concentrate on reality and credibility in the classroom situation and on the meanings created and negotiated there, language will follow in a relatively authentic and spontaneous way" (Ibid.:264, my emphasis).

This view is an extreme variant of prevalent views on ELT methodology in the early to mid-1980s which focused on learning a foreign language in order to communicate, rather than as a set of grammatical structures (see Chapter 4, section 1). Crookall is not consistent in his use of terminology here, using the word 'situation' in two different ways, firstly to refer to the simulation as an event that is created by the participants ("the socially constructed situation") and then as something the designer or teacher creates before the simulation ("*we* should ... attempt to make the classroom as real and as credible a situation as we can", my emphasis). The third use of the word could refer to either or both of these meanings. Yet whichever meaning Crookall intended, the question must be raised as to how non-native learners, simply by being placed in a situation, can produce authentic language. In order to do so they would require an understanding of the structures of the language and also of the culture in which it is used. If, on the other hand, it is only subjectively perceived as authentic by participants, the purpose of the exercise for language learning is questionable. Crookall's concession on the previous page does not appear to be consistent with this: a "natural social situation ... does not stop us from using a simulation in which certain language items will be used more than others (this is what happens in the 'real world'), nor, perhaps, from paying special attention (during the language debriefing session) to a certain number of items from among those used" (Ibid.:263). He also quotes Berger and Luckmann's view,[9] which explicitly emphasises the importance of language in constructing reality: "An EFL classroom must, as far as possible, be everyday life" (Ibid:264). What he does not make explicit, which would be important for a would-be designer, is how language and situation are related.

Crookall's general approach places the main emphasis on the designer and the participants creating a *credible* situation, which does not necessarily mean that it is *realistic*. The way in which language, strategies or culture shape the situation is not discussed.

This weakness could be overcome, at least to a certain extent, by inviting native speakers of the target language to participate in the simulation. Feedback could then include a discussion of their perception of the credibility of the situation (see discussion of Meyer's scenarios, in which native speakers of English are participants, in the next chapter, section 5c).

The authors of each of the above views focus on different aspects in simulation design. Herbert and Sturtridge concentrate on *language structures*, Goodale on *language functions for structuring situations*, and Crookall on the *situation* itself. Herbert and Sturtridge's approach is perhaps best suited to students at lower intermediate level within an academic context, Goodale's to students at the same level or above within a vocational or other practical context, and Crookall's to

[9] "Everyday life is, above all, life with and by means of the language I share with my fellow men. An understanding of language is thus essential for any understanding of the reality of everyday life" (Berger and Luckmann 1966:51-2).

advanced students in a non-academic, practical context. Each approach represents the result of planning what to include and what to exclude, i.e. it gives the simulation a clear focus. Before this stage is reached, a selection process takes place, during which different possible views are considered and included or excluded. When there is a formal curriculum on the basis of which this selection is made, the choice is simpler as it is limited and clearly set out. When, on the other hand, it is the teacher's task to define the course requirements himself or herself, this task is much more complex, as the teacher may want to take a wider range of factors into account. I shall explore some of the problems involved with this in the next section.

3. Conflicting aims and the need to clarify priorities

Specialist simulations in business, banking, international relations, town planning, the environment and the media have all been adapted for language-learning purposes. Such simulations, especially when used in ESP, are intended to give participants the opportunity to improve their language skills in a work-related task (such as dealing with conflicts of interest between different institutions or individuals, discussing options, carrying out negotiations, finding compromises and agreeing on future courses of action). Very often, however, the parties directly or indirectly involved in such a simulation (designer, curriculum planner, teacher, participants) differ in the weighting they give to strategic aspects of the situation on the one hand and language aspects on the other. Participants who have a greater knowledge of the simulation's subject matter than the facilitator are likely to steer the activity away from the facilitator's aims. If the facilitator's focus, like that of Herbert and Sturtridge (see above) is on structural aspects of the language, he or she may feel that participants are not giving adequate attention to this aspect of the situation. The participants and teachers focus on quite different aims: while the students are personally involved in the situation and pursue short-term personal strategies, the teacher's main aim is to place them in a position where they can learn to communicate more effectively in the foreign language. The problem is to find a way of combining the learners' expertise in their subject area with the teacher's ability in the language. One way of doing this is to ask colleagues or students in the specialist subject area to comment on the specialist content of the simulation and to revise it as far as this is practicable. Another is to ask students to comment on the specialised content of the model in the feedback session and to give suggestions on how it could be revised or refined.

Let us look at an example which illustrates the problem. Wright (1982)[10] describes his use of simulations in English classes with French students who have completed secondary school and are preparing for a career in business at a business school in Le Havre. They arrive with a limited ability to use spoken English: they "are incapable of ... putting into practice what they have learned, such as grammar and vocabulary" (99). This Wright believes to be a result of grammar-based language teaching and the emphasis placed on the written rather than the spoken language at school, leading to a "grammar mistake syndrome, whereby a sentence must be grammatically correct before it is worth saying" (Ibid.:102). Wright is thus in a position where the students are required to learn English for business but also need to consolidate their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. He regards four aspects as being of relevance to the students and presents them as distinct, though related elements: 1. language, 2. communication, 3. presentation, and 4. the subject of the simulation. Wright, his students and their institution vary in their views on the respective importance of each of these elements.

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10 See appendix.

1 and 2: <u>Language and communication</u>

Wright's own clear priority is what he refers to as "the language element" (Ibid.:99) by which he means grammar and vocabulary as opposed to communication, or "getting people talking" (Ibid.:99). However, in using simulations at all Wright himself suggests that he regards fluency in communication as important. At the same time, he also believes that the price to be paid for this is that students "tend to perpetuate their language mistakes unless the animator is present to correct them" (Wright 1979:143).

The students themselves, on the other hand, and the weaker learners in particular, see the communicative aspect as more important than accuracy: "language problems are very much a secondary concern ... the important thing is making themselves understood" (Ibid.:142).

Thus, while the interests of the teacher and students are not in conflict, the teacher has a greater interest in accuracy than the students.

1 and 3 <u>Language and presentation</u>

Presentation skills are another aspect covered in Wright's simulations for learning English, though this appears to be a concession on his part to the students' future career. His interest as a language teacher is, as we have already seen, in language, whereas the overall aim of the organisation is to focus on business training: "For the animator, of course, the linguistic side is the most important. Nevertheless, since we in Le Havre are preparing students for a business career, it is also important for us to teach them how to improve their presentation of *themselves* as well as how to handle a meeting or press conference" (Ibid.:140-141).

Wright reconciles these two interests by combining them, helping students with the language they need to prepare strategies to deal with various situations which are likely to arise in the simulation. He comments that:

> "(T)he group of executives usually needs some assistance in building up their case and always needs

some help in checking *the language they are using and will need in front of the press*. It is especially important for them to know how to *reject any question they would prefer not to answer directly* and yet remain calm whatever happens. This may seem obvious to the native speaker,[11] but it is a major problem for the learner of English. He/she does not want, later in life, to commit some accidental *faux pas* which could easily have been avoided by a more careful choice of words" (Ibid.:139, my emphasis).

In combining presentation skills which appear 'obvious' in one's native language with the foreign language, with which students have difficulty, Wright demonstrates to students that such skills must be learnt afresh in a foreign language, and that an adequate command of language is necessary in order to be able to demonstrate one's social competence.

To help students to gain this command of English, Wright studies the case on which the simulation is based with them, checking new vocabulary and holding an improvised discussion.

> "The next step, *since we must remember that this is a language class*, is to have students give the animator any expressions they know for starting off and conducting a meeting. This is necessary because there will be a certain number of meetings throughout the case, and *we want students to be able to conduct and control what is happening in English* (this is typical of the type of thing they will have to do later in their careers" (Ibid.:138, my emphasis).

Wright's emphasis here may be more on English, whereas the students' is more on conducting and controlling. Wright's approach combines both interests.

1 and 4 <u>Language and subject matter</u>

In ESP there seem to be two main tasks for the language teacher: to provide a communicative approach to language learning and at the same time to give learners an opportunity to apply their subject knowledge to situations relevant to their future job requirements.

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[11] This perhaps represents the point of view of a particicant who may be under the impression that the task would be easier for a native speaker of English. However, native speakers too require training to master skills such as the ones Wright describes.

Simulations offer a good way of combining these two elements. However, in adapting a simulation originally used for a different subject area for language learning purposes, the designer may be taking over a combination of different aims from the original simulation, of which he or she may not be fully aware, especially if the simulation was originally used in an area with which he or she does not have the specialist knowledge that the participants have, e.g. banking, international relations, town planning, the environment.

Without a knowledge of the subject matter, it is difficult for the teacher to provide the specialist language that students who are knowledgeable in the subject demand. For their part, the students may be participating in the simulation specifically in order to improve their language skills in a specialist area. This places the teacher in the difficult position of commenting in feedback from a lay perspective on topics in which the learners are experts. This may lead to insecurity on the part of the language teacher, as Wright admits when he says that a lack of specialist knowledge of business is a reason for EFL teachers not to use business simulations in English. He deplores the fact (unlike Crookall, see section 2c above) "that there are not many, if any, business games designed specifically to teach English" (Wright 1982:98). In designing one himself, he attempts to take account of the different interests of all the parties concerned (his own, as designer and teacher, those of the participants, the institution and the future employer). This task is made more difficult by the fact that he is not a business specialist and he fears that he and other language teachers "often have to produce something simplistic or risk getting out of our depth" (Ibid.:102). Such concerns are a normal part of the process of selecting priorities. Simplifying complex situations in order to focus on certain aspects is an intrinsic part of the process of simulation design. A language teacher who is not a specialist in the learners' subject area is inevitably aware of his or her limitations in the participants' specialist area, and this raises the question of whether, and if so how, to include it. Perhaps out of his concern to make the situation appear realistic to the participants, Wright chooses not to limit participants' freedom of action, describing simulations as "the replaying in English by a non-native speaker of his/her real or likely job, with absolute freedom to do what he/she wants, albeit in an artificial or invented situation" (Wright 1979:137). Yet, in not restricting students' specialist input in any way, the teacher's language-learning aims may not be given the attention they deserve in a simulation for language-learning. If they are specialists in the subject on which the simulation is based, the students will themselves, in the words of Herbert and Sturtridge quoted above, be able to provide "the detailed content in the realisation of the simulation" (Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:7). The purpose of simulations is thus to provide a framework which gives students the opportunity to pursue clearly-defined language-learning goals. This framework may involve presenting students with a situation in the simulation in which they are required to apply or adapt phrases they have learnt in preparation for the simulation (see discussion of Goodale in section 2b above and in Chapter 8, section 3a).

Even if these goals are not pursued by participants themselves during the activity, preparation and feedback can concentrate on them. Beneke's criticism of language simulations, that students' language might deteriorate through using it in an uncontrolled way, (Beneke 1981) reflects the fear of making language mistakes which is emphasised in traditional language-teaching methods. Because students focus on the task, and the facilitator does not interrupt them to correct these mistakes but simply observes the simulation, they are considered to have been ignored. However, this is only true to a very limited extent. If the simulation has been structured to activate the participants' knowledge of the language and to apply it to a situation with explicit social and cultural implications, linguistic forms will both be revised and put into a wider learning context. Feedback can focus not only on language errors, but also on errors in estimating the appropriate linguistic register for the social and cultural context of the situation.

4. Conclusions

The needs of different groups of students vary and so, too, therefore, should the teacher's aims. Good practice in simulation design means formulating aims appropriate for the specific group of learners. The teacher should not be distracted from formulating appropriate language learning aims by a role-play or simulation structure that may have been written with a different target group in mind and that implictly or explicitly emphasises other aspects of the situation. The language-learning aims of the role-play or simulation should be laid out in an overall curricular framework, or, if there is no formal curriculum, within a framework designed with the particular group in mind.

For beginners, role-play is a more appropriate exercise type than simulation. Learners can be placed in a one-to-one situation in which they can concentrate on using a manageable range of language items and functions to achieve the given aims.[12]

At intermediate level, both simulations and role-plays can be used and the subject matter can be more complex that that used with beginners. However, any exercise selected should be based on subjects with which learners are already familiar or with which they can quickly familiarise themselves, enabling them to quickly identify with demands of the roles they are given. Suitable phrases can be provided and learnt before the simulation.[13]

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[12] See appendix for examples by Littlewood 1988:51-57).

[13] See L. Jones 'The Bridge' and preparatory material in the appendix.

At an advanced level of language-learning, preparation can include differentiating between a range of phrases use to perform one type of function and discussing the contexts in which each phrase would be appropriate.[14] Discussing differences between the learners' own culture and that of the foreign language environment, and finding common denominators between them could also be a focus of feedback.

Focusing on language skills in simulations includes the development of strategy skills at the same time.[15] Linguistic and strategic skills are essentially interdependent, both in the real-life situation and in simulations. Thus, the language participants use influences the kind of situation that is created and, conversely, the situation influences the language used. Preparation for role-plays and simulations should thus ensure that participants are provided with the language they require to pursue particular strategies in the simulation. In order for students to use language to implement a strategy effectively, they need an awareness both of the general norms of the *situation type* and of the specific features of the *particular situation*. This means they need a repertoire of *typical phrases* appropriate for the type of situation in question, e.g. for meetings, and also a knowledge of how these can be tailored to the specific situation being simulated. This knowledge may be

1. linguistic, e.g. of the required grammar, relevant terminology and appropriate register for the situation,
2. structural, e.g. of the way in which the real-life processes being simulated work, or
3. cultural, e.g. of which approach to the situation is appropriate in the cultural context.

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[14] See example of preparatory material for simulations by Goodale in the appendix.

[15] By 'strategy', I mean a set of contingency plans for pursuing one's own interests (e.g. in chess, to win) within a given set of rules (the rules of the game).

Wright suggests that "(s)tudents give the animator any expressions they know for starting off and conducting a meeting" (1982:138). This is a good starting point for the first of the three aspects of knowledge listed above, but he does not differentiate between different types of meetings or discuss the second or third aspects in any detail. Goodale takes this approach much further in presenting students with phrase lists and strategies for adapting them to a variety of different types of meetings (Goodale, 1987a:9; see also section 2b in this chapter, Chapter 8, section 3a and example of material in the appendix).

In contrast to the strategies required in a game, as a self-contained system, the strategies applied in a simulation should also be relevant beyond the classroom. This means that for learners at all levels the designer selects situation types for which there are standardised procedures, and standardised language in real life, such as telephone calls, formal meetings or radio programmes. This enables simulation participants to concentrate on the creative application of the language they have prepared, rather than first having to ponder what language might be appropriate or, at the other extreme, simply starting to talk and hoping to be inspired by the situation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION AND SIMULATIONS IN EFL

Simulations for learning English as a foreign language are used with three main interdependent aims. The first aim is to provide learners with an opportunity to practise the structures of English. The second aim is to enable learners to use the language in a social context that mirrors reality. The third aim is to enable them either to identify or interact with cultures where English is spoken as a native language, i.e. usually British or American culture. These three aims are not, in my view, to be regarded as representing either a hierarchy or a rigid order in which they should be covered in the language curriculum. They are all interdependent aspects of the language-learning process.

In this chapter, I focus on this third aim and, with reference to examples, discuss various aspects of culture which designers emphasise or take for granted in their simulations.

Through learning a foreign language, students may also learn about the culture of the country or countries where the language is spoken. As methods of language teaching which involve learning through personal experience, simulations and role-play are considered to be better suited to making learners aware of cultural aspects of native speaker cultures than simply being told about them by their teachers. Starkey, for instance advocates methods which include learning by doing: "Practitioners would argue that teachers or textbooks telling children about other cultures are likely to be far less effective in learning outcomes than experiences including simulations or, for that matter, personal or collective enquiry" (Starkey 1991:215).

However, in role-plays and simulations used for practising a foreign language, especially with students at lower levels, it is the structures or functions of the language rather than cultural aspects which are usually the main focus (see Chapter 6, sections 2a and b). The designer thus may make a list of phrases he or she considers typical for the particular type of situation for the language students to prepare before they take part in the role-play or simulation itself and may create roles which he or she believes will enable them to apply what they have learned. These may later also be adapted for other encounters of a similar kind in the target language and culture. While this is useful from a linguistic point of view, learners may find it difficult to identify with their roles as they may feel that such typified roles are alien to them. Many GSCE syllabus role-plays used for foreign-language learning in British schools, for example, are based on a limited range of situations and bland roles: "The role of tourist and consumer, possibly guest in a family, are the staple to the exclusion of all other interests ... There is, in most cases, an exclusion of empathy with people from another culture" (Starkey, 1991:217). Such typified roles may also provide an opportunity for prejudices students already hold to be expressed, as K. Jones warns in saying that the participants' "emotions and prejudices ... can be revealed during the simulation" (K. Jones 1982:15).

Even when a simulation or role-play is designed with the primary aim of fostering cross-cultural understanding through emotional involvement in the situation, the learning results are not conclusive. Joele-Lentz, for example, reports of the "generally positive" short-term effects of a simulation carried out with the aim of "raising awareness and combating ethnocentrism and racism" (1983:68). Bruin, in contrast, comments on simulations used to combat prejudice within a project on prejudices, discrimination and education financed by the government of the Netherlands,[1] that "(g)iven the

[1] See appendix for references.

'openness' of the learning situation the risk of reinforcement of prejudices is a reality" (Bruin 1987:142). Both Joele-Lentz and Bruin admit that there is as yet no clear evidence of changes in social behaviour as a result of participating in a simulation: "nothing is known of the lasting effects" (Joele-Lentz 1983:69) and "(t)he exact relationship between the social learning that obviously takes place with most simulation/games, and the influence it can have on the social norms ... of a group and its social and cultural neighbourhood is as yet rather unclear" (Bruin 1987:142).

While it may be the case that simply through participating in a simulation of a situation involving intercultural contact the learners can develop a degree of empathy with what they *perceive* as being the foreign culture, this does not necessarily mean that participants become more *aware* of distinct features of the foreign culture, especially when the foreign roles are played by students who are themselves learners of the foreign language or have a specific interest in maintaining a different position on the issue concerned. In a simulation based on the BSE crisis which I observed, for example, in which German students were given the roles of diplomats from the European Union, the student playing the role of a British diplomat came to identify with the role, and to sympathise with the problems of British farmers in the course of the simulation. However, this perspective was at odds with his own perception of the problem, which emphasised the irresponsibility of the British government in exposing people to such a health risk. In this situation, the student played the role of the British diplomat with at least a touch of irony. The students with roles representing the other countries, for their part, did not become more sympathetic to the British point of view. I would not want to draw a general conclusion from this simulation as to the cross-cultural potential of simulations. However, in this particular situation, the strategic aim of all the participants was more to find a compromise on issues of substance than to come to a greater understanding of a person from a different cultural background. The roles within the situation, as in the real-life EU situation modelled, were orientated towards each participant achieving a result acceptable to his or her audience at home rather than to gaining an increased understanding of foreign cultures.

The designer's, facilitator's and each participant's perceptions of the simulated situation and the simulation process vary not only as a result of their different interests, but also of differences between them such as nationality, ethnic background, religion, social class, political views, native language and personality. Within the context of the role-play or simulation, everyone involved attempts to create an operating reality which recreates or maintains his or her own understanding of the social reality of the referent situation type (see Chapter 2). I shall now look at the ways in which each group does this.

1. The designer

As I discuss in Chapter 6, the designer and the language class teacher are very often one and the same person. Teachers may adapt existing simulations to meet the interests of their own target group (see 'The Leisure Centre' in the appendix, which I adapted from L. Jones' 'The Arts Centre' to use with a group of sports administrators). In using the word 'designer' in the following, however, I focus on the process of writing a simulation rather than on using it in the classroom. Of course, the teacher's classroom experience is essential in this preparatory activity. Conversely, the designer's choice of situation, and also of the *structure* of the situation and the *roles* also influence subsequent classroom interaction. Bambrough comments on the influence of the structure as follows:

"The structure of the simulation has enormous power over those who function within it. The structure may give weight to certain roles according to their function in a simulation or give weight to certain perspectives on an issue by, for example, the way information is distributed to participants, the number of people representing a perspective, who the people are, or in what circumstances they are allowed to communicate" (Bambrough 1994:98).

While the choices of structure and roles are made on the basis of the designer's learning objectives, they also reflect his or her presuppositions about ways in which situations can, or should, be structured and thus his or her values.

1.1. <u>The structure of the situation</u>

In many situations involving interaction between participants playing the roles of members of different cultural groups, differences of opinion between these groups are an intrinsic part of the structure of the situation as presented by the designer.[2] Designers commonly choose the extreme label *conflict* for differences of outlook in such simulations, and present it as having arisen as a result of the different 'cultures' designated by the roles.

Simulations are regarded as a useful learning tool in intercultural education because such intercultural conflicts are "*controlled*" (K. Jones 1982:15, my emphasis), a view shared by Bruin, who sees the main aim of such activities as being "to confront participants in a *controlled* learning environment with the consequences of culture shock, with a communication process that breaks down because of differences of culture" (Bruin 1987:142, my emphasis). Control is necessary, according to Jones, so as "to be sure that the simulation really is a simulation, and not a pre-programmed exercise in confrontation" (Ibid. 1982:15-16). He does not discuss what the distinction is between "confrontation" and the kind of "intercultural conflict" he himself advocates, but it appears to amount to whether the design structure *requires* participants to react in a confrontative way or whether it allows them to use their own judgement in developing a flexible response to the behaviour of other

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2 See section 5, examples c and d in this chapter.

participants. He advocates the latter as appropriate for intercultural education: "The actual behaviour patterns may be necessary as part of the structure of the simulation ... but the interpretation of such behaviour is up to the participants themselves" (Ibid. 1982:16). The designer thereby implicitly communicates to participants that through discussing subjects of conflict within an agreed framework which allows various interpretations of the foreign behaviour, these conflicts can be resolved.

What is problematic here is that the participants in such simulations very often share a common cultural background and thus, when they are given roles involving culturally different behaviour with which they cannot identify, they have to act the part of the foreigner. An example Jones gives is his simulation in which one 'cultural' group is instructed to look at the floor during conversations with the other (K. Jones 1982:16). He clearly selects this as being a situation which is foreign to Western participants (though normal for some Asians). The participants playing the roles of the foreigners (from a Western point of view), will themselves regard their own behaviour as rude but are required to suspend their own disbelief on the matter because the simulation requires them to behave in this way. This differs from real social situations in which "the actor, for that moment, apprehends himself essentially in identification with the socially objectivated action" (Berger and Luckmann 1979:90, see above, Chapter 3). If the foreign role is reduced to one or two stereotypical characteristics (such as avoiding eye contact in conversation) students may have difficulty in identifying with the foreign culture. Stereotypes may, however, provide the starting point for a discussion of cultural differences in feedback which could comment not only on an outsider's perception of the behaviour, but also on the reasons for that behavour from the point of view of a member of that culture. This approach can be used to particularly good effect when members of the target culture are invited to take part in a role-play or simulation and to join in the discussion in feedback (see Meyer's scenarios in section 5c below).

The designer's selection of role types is a related issue, which I shall now discuss.

1.2 The roles

The designer's choice of roles for inclusion in the role-play or simulation cannot be culturally neutral (i.e. it has culture-specific connotations among the participants). Jones warns that "(t)he behaviour (of participants in a simulation) must not be pre-empted and pre-determined by the role cards. Simulations involve people, not stereotypes" (K. Jones 1982:17). However, when the designer intends the simulation to focus on cultural attitudes, the simplest way of introducing them *is* to label roles in a stereotypical way, e.g. 'black tourist at customs'.[3] This may elicit role-playing from participants which conforms to and reinforces their own stereotypical views of the particular category of person, even if they can empathise with the role (see section 3 below). Feedback should include a discussion of cultural differences which comments not only on the behaviour pattern from the point of view of an outsider to the culture in question, but also on the reasons for that behaviour from the point of view of a member of that culture. This is possible when members of the foreign culture are invited to take part in the role-play or simulation, and in the discussion in feedback.

2. The facilitator

The facilitator influences the operating reality firstly in choosing to use a simulation in the given

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[3] Cf. Starkey: "Conversations are likely to be very different if, under the heading of travel, the role-play is the traditional customs officer and tourist or if the roles are immigration officer and black tourist" (Starkey 1991:214). The difference between these two variations is based on stereotypical views of the two situations.

learning context at all, and secondly in his or her choice of a particular simulation.

Simulations and role-play differ from teacher-centred learning. In his or her role as facilitator, the teacher observes the interaction during the simulation itself, making notes on the students' strategies and on the language they use, but without intervening during the activity itself. The participants thus appear to be in control throughout the simulation. The facilitator's task is to contribute to the overall learning process in feedback, through discussion and analysis with the participants. This process may involve both the students analysing themselves and the facilitator analysing them and may focus on the issue of stereotyping as well as on students' strategies and their use of language.[4]

In addition to discussing language functions and structures, feedback could include cultural aspects in order to widen the perspective of the participants by putting their individual viewpoints and experiences into an overall picture or structure. This will include an examination of the framework which gave legitimacy to the interaction, as seen by both sides, e.g. laws, regulations, general principles such as reciprocity or precedent, or fairness. It will also include a discussion of any cultural stereotypes that were evident during the simulation with the aim of calling these into question. For this discussion to be most effective, it should include members of the foreign culture. This is the view of Fisher and Brown, consultants on negotiation to the United States government, who see stereotyping as a factor which impedes the development of good working relationships with members of groups different from ourselves:

> " We tend to denigrate those whom we prejudge. We are likely to discount them, their views, and their interests. When we close our minds to their views, they are likely to close their minds to ours and ignore our

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4 Examples of how this analysis may be structured are MacGregor (1979) and Goodale (1987b), see appendix.

interests. We may then see their behaviour as confirming our image and discount their interests still more...

To overcome a stereotype I may have about you, I will need to know more about you. One way for me to break out of a stereotype is to focus on the particular history of the individual person with whom I am now dealing" (Fisher and Brown 1989:156).

In including foreign guests in his role-plays, Meyer enables his learners to relate to a member of the foreign culture on a personal level. However, he makes no mention of a feedback session, which would be essential to discuss the issue of stereotyping (see section 5c below).

Another related issue that can be raised in feedback even when no foreign guests are present is that of problems arising from differing standards or differences of opinion as to how the external standards are to be applied. It may not be possible to reach a consensus, but feedback is essential in order to show how the various participants' partial views (resulting from each role-card providing only limited and sometimes one-sided or stereotyped information) fit together into the larger structure of the designer's model. The participants' experiences during the simulation are thus evaluated within the broader context of the designer's framework for the simulated situation, which should itself be open to analysis and comment.

3. The participants

The participants influence the operating reality in socially interacting with one another in a way that reflects their understanding of the referent situation. As we have seen, this understanding may be based on their stereotypical views, as well as knowledge, of the culture of the foreign language. Bambrough comments on the major influence of participants' stereotypical views on simulations:

"Instead of the simulation author bringing her perception of reality to the classroom, the participants will bring theirs based on whatever experience they have of the outside world. Often their representation of that experience is shrouded in stereotype both of role and situation. In a simulation I ran ... one pair of participants were given the role set of shopowners. It didn't take long for these participants to define their role and language in terms of a caricature of 'Pakistani corner shop owners'. Communications simulations which attempt to represent the real world are often littered with such distortions" (Bambrough 1994: 100-101).

This is inevitable when participants' experience is (severely) limited. Because participants may have limited knowledge and experience of other cultures, they may find identification with roles from a different culture to their own difficult.

Even if participants do become emotionally involved in the activity, this involvement does not necessarily mean that they have a positive view of the foreign culture. This is not merely a question of good will on the part of the participants, but also depends to a large extent on the factors discussed above: the structure and roles as defined by the designer, and the presentation of the situation by the facilitator in preparation before the simulation and in feedback afterwards.

4. The joint creation of an operational culture

The operational culture[5] that is created in a simulation thus reflects the designer's, facilitator's and participants' different understandings of the social context of the situation.

When the participants come from a similar culture to the designer and the facilitator, that is, when they share certain values, they are likely to be able to agree on an *implicit* definition and structure of the situation for the duration of the simulation (see Chapter 5). This agreement is likely to be an unspoken one which is taken for granted by all involved in the simulation, and the participants - and often the facilitator and the designer too - may not even be explicitly aware of it.

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5 Cf. Goodenough's definition (1971) of an operational culture as "a culture in which the individual may interact at a given point in time or in a given situation according to a set of standards, shared by the group, which determine what is important, what is feasible, what to do and how to go about doing it" (quoted in Cox and Saunders 1997:2; see also Chapter 5 above).

Any differences between the operational reality the participants create within the simulation and the social reality the designer and/or facilitator see as the referent of the simulation thus arise mainly as a result of their different vantage points (whereby each participant has only a partial view of the event from the limited perspective of the particular role that he or she has been given, whereas the designer and facilitator have a wider and more detached view of the situation) rather than from basic differences of opinion concerning which discourse frameworks are appropriate for the particular type of situation simulated.

The situation is more complex when the designer and facilitator of a simulation come from a different cultural background to the participants. In this case, their views may diverge not only as a result of their different vantage points, but also concerning how the particular type of situation simulated should be structured, i.e. as a result of their particular prejudices.

5. Approaches to culture

I shall now consider four examples of role-plays and simulations carried out in English where culture is, whether explictly or implicitly, an important issue for the designer, or the participants, or both.

(a) Experiencing the power of English

Simulations in foreign language learning can be used with the aim of making or reinforcing impressions about the foreign country or culture. This is the case in games used within the context of EFL in Russia. The designers intend the participants to experience a foreign atmosphere during the games and focus on two elements which help create it: the foreign language and the warm and spontaneous group atmosphere which they perceive as contrasting with the more learning-directed, result-oriented atmosphere of games commonly used in Russia (Aransky and Klarin 1987:312ff).

The games Klarin uses[6] encourage participants to express their feelings and attitudes in a way that is controlled and structured by rules, unlike what he presents as the uncontrolled native Russian way (cf. Klarin 1994:113). The author's perspective is biased against the Russians and in favour of Westerners; he is critical of what he sees as the Russians' uncontrolled outbursts (rather than, for example, their sponteneity) and positively writes of the Westerners' self-reflection (rather than, for example, their emotional distance).

In describing the benefits he regards such games as having for Russian participants, Klarin makes a link between the atmosphere and language: "(G)ames belong to the situations of ... *use of language power in the perception of self and the world*" (Ibid. 112, my emphasis). The use of English in the games rather than Russian appears at first sight to be unnecessary in order for participants to gain this experience. Yet Klarin implies that the fact that the language used is English rather than Russian does have an effect on the interaction process. In using English, he suggests, participants can gain an "in-depth understanding of English language communication going beyond the traditional framework of grammar patterns and vocabulary into *the more sophisticated mechanics of a communication process with people belonging to a 'different world', having a different mentality and different communication manner*" (Ibid. 111, my emphasis). Although the fact that participants communicate in English does not appear at first sight to enable them to become more aware of prevalent attitudes in Western cultures, the communicative approach to language learning[7] reflected in Klarin's games itself contrasts with the structural approach to language learning and the result-oriented approach to games still common in Russia. To this extent, simulations of the kind used by Klarin can help Russian

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6 See appendix for references.

7 See Chapter 4.

students to become more aware of cross-cultural issues. Through participating in such a simulation, they may become aware of the aspects of their own culture referred to above which they had previously taken for granted and, at the same time, they may gain a greater understanding of English-speaking cultures.

To sum up, simulations used for foreign language learning may themselves be seen from a Russian perspective as reflecting Western values. They show a communicative methodology of language teaching which is unusual in Russia. They focus on the *process* of communication rather than primarily on its results. And finally, they place this process within a framework in which participants are required to express their feelings in a way that is governed by rules rather than characterised by "uncontrolled outbursts of emotions". These aspects are self-evident to German learners of English in my experience of using simulations with students in Germany. The fact that Klarin highlights them suggests that he does not take them for granted within a Russian context. In reading Klarin's article, a Western European who does take such aspects for granted (not only in the simulation, but also in everyday life) is made to realise that different aspects of a simulation may be experienced as the most important ones, depending on the cultural background of the participant. When the principles on which simulations are based are not self-evident within a particular society, the activity may be perceived as an opportunity for participants to use the foreign language as a means of communication and, in doing so, to experience a new world of differently-structured ideas at the same time.

(b) <u>Taking culture for granted</u>

A simulation designer cannot exclude his or her culture-specific values from the design of a simulation, especially if he or she takes them for granted. Let us look at Crookall's simulation GERA (abbreviation not explained),[8] which he presents as "an example of a non-EFL simulation that can be used in ELT" (Crookall 1984:265). The simulation is intended for use by groups of eight students. They all have the roles of job applicants who have come for an interview and are provided with curricula vitae. Unlike in the usual job role-play situation, where a candidate practises interview skills with an interviewer as preparation for a real job interview, the candidates in this simulation have the task of choosing among themselves which of the group would be most suitable for the job. They make the selection on the basis of their curricula vitae, one of which fulfils all the job requirements. The simulation is thus a problem-solving activity with one correct answer, although to participants it appears to be an open-ended simulation.[9]

In this situation, Crookall seems at first sight to suggest that control of the course of events should be given to the learners rather than to the teacher or the syllabus:

> "(I)f we wish to encourage learners to use language spontaneously in the most normal, complex, and meaningful way that is possible in the classroom, then we have to create a reasonably natural social situation which belongs to the students and not to the teacher or the syllabus" (Ibid.:263).

Let us take a closer look at this quotation. The learners are encouraged to "use language spontaneously" with the result that the social situation 'belongs' to them. Exactly what Crookall means by this is not clear, when the designer and the facilitator still play such an active role in the learning process, emphasised by Crookall's use of the first person form: "*we* wish to encourage learners" and "*we* have to create a ... social situation" (my emphasis). The students' role is receptive; they are encouraged. Thus, spontaneity is only possible within certain pre-determined parameters. In

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8 See appendix for reference.

9 Cf. Chapter 2 section 1.

this context 'belong' is used in the sense that the participants perceive the situation as credible. This could mean that they are familiar with or have already experienced a situation similar to the one in the simulation, or that it is congruent with their social, historical, cultural and political background. As a result, they are able to identify with it, something that Crookall presents as a precondition for them to be able to use language authentically:

> "Reality, credibility and authenticity are interdependent. Participants will not believe in a simulated situation which they are unable to perceive as realistic, and they will not be able to use authentic language in a situation which, for them, is neither real nor credible ... We wish EFL students to 'believe in' the simulated situation and therefore to use language as authentically as possible" (Ibid:263).

The success of the simulation is thus dependent on the students perceiving the situation as realistic. In order for this to be the case, the designer must be aware of and meet the students' expectations of such a social situation. This limits the range of possible situations which the designer would regard as suitable for a simulation. To ensure that they can identify with their roles, Crookall recommends that the roles participants play in the simulated situation should be similar to their own social roles in everyday life:

> "Lonergan ... suggests that playing a role very different from oneself in the EFL classroom 'can lead to a better understanding of other people's attitudes and points of view'. This is all very well if the objective is to sensitise the EFL student to the culture of the target language. But if the objective is credibility, authenticity, language use and acquisition, it may be counterproductive, especially with students not used to simulations" (Ibid:263).

Crookall implies here that the aim of sensitising participants to the culture of the target language may not be compatible with the aim of enabling them to experience the situation as authentic. He chooses to create a situation which the students perceive as credible, and not necessarily one in which they need to empathise with the foreign culture. In so doing, he consciously excludes the target language's culture if it detracts from the situation's 'authenticity'. This view of 'authenticity' is thus one-sided, emphasising as it does the credibility of the simulation in the view of the participants and excluding the target language's culture. According to this view, a situation which participants experience as credible and realistic would be accepted as 'authentic', even if it is at variance with the culture-specific values of the designer and the culture of the target language.

However, from Crookall's description of the situation on which GERA is based, it cannot be taken for granted that all groups of participants can create a situation which they experience as authentic:

> "GERA is a simulation of certain problems created by conflicting interests and by an excess of information. It is not uncommon to find oneself in a situation in which one has to cope with the conflicting demands of co-operation *and* competition with others in a group - not always easily managed in one's native tongue, and still more difficult for EFL students to do in English, *especially if the student's own culture is very different from Anglo-Saxon culture*" (Ibid.:265, my emphasis).

The last part of this quotation is of particular interest. Contrary to what we have suggested above, it indicates that the participants in the simulation and its designer may not share a similar cultural background. Combining co-operation and competition is a strategy which may not be shared by learners from all cultures. Probably for this reason, the activity would present a cultural problem for students unfamiliar with this combination.

Let us return to Crookall's view that the designer's and the facilitator's aim is "to encourage learners to use language spontaneously in the most *normal*, complex, and meaningful way that is possible in the classroom" and that they do this by creating "a reasonably *natural* social situation" (Ibid.:263, my emphasis). His use of the words 'normal' language and 'natural' situation here is colloquial and pragmatic. However, if we look beyond the colloquial meaning of these words, ideological implications become evident, especially in the context, where Crookall states that the target culture has been intentionally excluded precisely in order that the students experience the situation as 'natural' and use the language in a 'normal' way. 'Normal' suggests that the activity, here using language, adheres to norms, to "(t)hose sets of social rules, standards, and expectations that both generate and regulate social interaction and communication" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:206). When the target language culture is excluded from the situation and the roles, Crookall suggests that the prevalent values expressed will be those of the group participating in the simulation. This reinforces these views, so that participants perceive them as being natural.[10]

This may serve ideological purposes:

> "The ideological productivity of naturalisation is that circumstances and meanings that are socially, historically, economically and culturally determined (and hence open to change) are 'experienced' as natural - that is, inevitable, timeless, universal, genetic (and hence unarguable)" (Ibid. 1994:198).

In saying that culture has been excluded from the simulation, Crookall seems to be suggesting that the values created are those of the participants. Yet, at the same time, at least in his description of GERA, he explicitly says that participants from a culture very different from Anglo-Saxon culture would have particular difficulty in coping with the conflicting demands of co-operation and competition. An awareness of cultural values in a particular simulation will vary according to the extent to which the participants share the cultural background of the designer.

For participants from a Western European or American culture, the values represented in Crookall's GERA are so familiar as to pass unnoticed as part of the 'natural'

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[10] Cf. O'Sullivan et al.: "Naturalising: The process of representing the cultural and historical as natural" (1994:198).

background: "The 'seen but unnoticed' character of much game activity is the product of the fact that players are assumed, by each other as well as by game designers and organisers, to possess everyday interactional competencies" (Francis 1987:202).

When used with participants from a very different culture, on the other hand, its underlying cultural assumptions become evident.

(c) Thinking in stereotypes and learning to adapt them in the light of experience with members of the foreign culture

While a simulation may be designed with the aim of improving intercultural relations, it risks reinforcing stereotypes. This is possible in my third example, but can be prevented through discussing the issue of stereotyping with members of the foreign culture in feedback.

The designer, Meyer, selects situations based on Keller's concept of cultural stereotypes. In Keller's view

> "Social psychologists have proved that we rely on stereotypes which enable us to understand the complexity of the world and to communicate with foreigners. What we perceive is filtered, simplified and modified by our own concepts, attitudes and perspectives" (1991:120).

Meyer applies this concept to role-play situations used in a German school. The pupil's task is to act as a mediator and interpreter between a German and a guest who is a native speaker of English in what Meyer calls "real situations of intercultural conflict" (Meyer 1991:140). Meyer outlines the pupil's tasks as follows:

1. "Mediating between the mother of a German host family and an English student visiting the family. Topics: School uniforms, military service and conscientious objection, and others" (Ibid.:139).

2. "Mediating between the German mother and the English guest student. Topics: School life and German and English food" (Ibid.:139).

3. "Mediating between the head of the German school and a Nigerian exchange student who does not want to modify an interview he has given for the school magazine. Topic: The exploitation of the South and the role of the missionaries in colonialisation" (Ibid.:139).[11]

Meyer ensured that the roles of Germans and English-speakers (i.e. the German mother, the German headteacher and the English-speaking students) were played by native speakers of the respective languages. The language pupils played only the role of mediator in the conflict situations. Thus, each of the role-players could identify with the given role. Meyer's intention was for the pupils to be placed in a position in which they "had to play *themselves*" (Ibid. 140).

The pupils' intercultural competence was evaluated on a three-level scale. At the lowest level, the monocultural level, the learner uses "behavioural schemes and demonstrates ways of thinking which are merely adequate for his own culture" (Ibid.:142). At the middle level, the intercultural level, "(t)he learner is able to explain differences between his own and the foreign cultures ... the learner stands between the cultures" (Ibid.:142). At the highest level, the transcultural level, "(t)he learner is able to evaluate intercultural differences and to solve intercultural problems by appealing to principles of international co-operation and communication ... the learner stands above both his own and the foreign culture" (Ibid.:143). While this scheme may go some way to facilitating the evaluation of students' performance as *mediators* between representatives of different cultures on one particular occasion, such performance cannot be equated with intercultural competence. There may, for example, be very good reasons for a person who is *able* to interact at Meyer's intercultural or transcultural levels *not* to do so. Let us look at an example.

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11 See appendix.

A person who has the skills required to mediate in conflicts between different cultural groups may by virtue of his or her position be required to present monocultural views on an issue. At the height of the conflict between Britain and its EU partners over BSE, for example, any British diplomat who displayed intercultural or transcultural competence on the question of lifting the ban on British beef exports at a level *above* Meyer's monocultural level would not have been fulfilling his or her function.

There is, however, another weakness in Meyer's scheme. Applying principles of international co-operation and communication to a conflict between cultural groups can only be successful if those principles are accepted by the conflicting parties themselves.

However, Meyer's principles are themselves part of his culture, expressing an attitude characteristic of Western democracies, but which is not shared, for example, by Islam:

> "When we speak about the conflict between Islam and democracy, we are in fact talking about an eminently legal conflict. If the basic reference for Islam is the Koran, for democracy it is effectively the United Nations Charter, which is above all a superlaw. The majority of Muslim states have signed this covenant, and thus find themselves ruled by two contradictory laws. One law gives citizens freedom of thought, while the shari'a ... condemns it" (Mernissi 1993:60).

Attempting to resolve differences by appealing to international principles would thus not amount to 'standing above' both cultures (the highest level in Meyer's scheme). It would rather indicate that the mediator's views were firmly rooted in Western, democratic values.

Meyer expresses another concern in saying that the situations should be 'real'. He suggests that because the discussions took place at school, they might be considered to be less realistic than if they took place elsewhere. However, as we saw in Chapter 3, real, everyday, social situations are typical in that one apprehends the other person as a type and interacts with him or her in a situation that is itself typical (cf. Berger and Luckmann 1979:46). The fact that the scenarios took place at school does not in itself make them any more or less realistic.[12]

Of course, Meyer's scenarios cannot be typical in the same way that everyday situations are typical. While similar discussions *could* take place in reality, Meyer imposes particular frameworks on the situations and participants for the specific purpose of guiding the discussion in a certain direction. I shall now examine the assumptions underlying Meyer's frameworks in more detail.

1. Meyer uses the word *culture* to refer to only two elements: nationality and native language. As we saw in Chapter 2, culture may also be seen as providing a framework for everyday life.

2. The roles Meyer creates conform to stereotypical views among Germans of themselves and of others (the British and the Nigerians) and vice versa.

Meyer intentionally set up the situations in such a way that each of the two participants between whom it is the pupil's task to mediate is expected to play his or her role in a way which conforms to the expectations created by stereotypes. In effect, they bring these stereotypes to life by playing their roles convincingly, although they may not conform to them in everyday life. Even if they do, this may not be as a result of their nationality but of other factors (such as religion, social class, age, education or political beliefs).[13]

This type of role-play encourages participants to think within national stereotypes, both of themselves and

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12 Cf. Littlewood: "(T)he classroom is also a real social context in its own right, where learners and teacher enter into equally real social relationships with each other" (1988:44).

13 The views of a fashion-conscious British teenager on the subject of school uniforms, for example, are likely to differ from those of his or her headteacher, and those of a British Quaker on conscientious objection are likely to differ from those of a British army chaplain.

of others and assumes that nations have one single identity. They may thereby simply seek and find confirmation of prejudices they held before participating in the exercise.

3. The 'cultures' (in Meyer's limited sense of nationality and language) are presented as being in conflict with one another on subjects of which some (school uniforms and food) are relatively trivial. The roles given to the two participants from different cultures determine that they shall be in conflict. Meyer presents these 'conflicts' as being a direct result of the different cultural backgrounds of the dialogue partners: "(T)he German students whose intercultural competence we wanted to evaluate ... were confronted with real situations of intercultural conflict. Thus they had a real chance for intercultural mediation" (Ibid.:140).

The situations are presented in such a way that a national of one country with a particular native language is automatically in conflict with a member of another on a certain issue, a situation Meyer presents as being realistic. Yet, as in any other role-play, the way the designer structures the situation and describes the roles limits the interaction and directs it along a certain course. Meyer himself thus contributes to creating the conflict, yet presents it as an 'intercultural' one.

It is also misleading to imply that differences of opinion are conflicts, as different points of view need not be mutually exclusive, but may simply emphasise different aspects of a situation, due to the different experiences or different interpretations of information from the different perspectives of the participants.

4. Linguistic and intercultural ability are seen as separable.

An ability to mediate is a skill that is by no means exclusively relevant in international or foreign language contexts. Having different views on an issue may have other reasons than nationality or language. The *type* of conflict in Meyer's situations could just as well be part of a monolingual context e.g. a British person and an

Australian could discuss the monarchy, or two British people, one a farmer, the other a city-dweller, could discuss the subject of fox-hunting. Meyer himself regards intercultural competence as having little to do with linguistic competence: "Students with low linguistic competence may be excellent in intercultural mediation, and vice versa" (Ibid:157). At the same time, he distinguishes intercultural ability as one of four dimensions of *foreign language competence* (the others being interlingual, professional and analytic ability).[14]

In focusing on intercultural skills in the exercises outlined above, he by no means underestimates the importance of language skills. Rather, he views both linguistic *and* intercultural competence as integral parts of a learner's competence in speaking a foreign language: "We have to learn foreign languages *and* the cultures of the speakers of these languages if we want to be successful in international communication" (Ibid. 137). He regards both as "part of a broader foreign speaker competence" (Ibid. 137).

At the same time, Meyer suggests that that there is a fundamental difference between *linguistic* competence (which does not necessarily include intercultural competence) and *foreign language* competence (which does).

Meyer's approach to teaching foreign languages at an advanced level may be seen as an attempt to integrate intercultural and linguistic skills. He does not underestimate the difficulty of combining these different abilities, observing that the majority of his students "have difficulty in integrating different kinds of skill"

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[14] "The evaluation of the written and oral parts of the communicative tasks of the students relied on the definition and distinction of four dimensions of foreign language competence: an *interlingual dimension* proper, identifying the command of linguistic material and the use of this material in communication; the *intercultural dimension*, which we discuss in this paper; a *professional dimension* concentrating not only on commercial correspondence, but on action in language in general; and an *analytic dimension* concentrating on what is normally done in the German upper secondary stage - text interpretation, analysis, grammar, argumentation, and so on" (Meyer 1991:140).

and that they prefer to "(isolate) the learning task into 'handy bits'" (Ibid. 156).

This must be attributed, at least in part, to the distinctions made by the German school curriculum between language and *Landeskunde*: "the study of the geography, history and institutions of the country concerned as part of FLT" (foreign language teaching) (Ibid.137).

The particular difficulties in teaching intercultural competence in a foreign-language learning context thus appear to be twofold: firstly, to define cultural competence in a way that explicitly takes account of the role played by language (regardless of whether the language being spoken is a foreign or one's native language) and secondly, to design situations which enable foreign language learners to develop a greater awareness of cultural influences on linguistic interaction in the specific situations in which they are likely to find themselves.

Goodale, a teacher of English at the UN in Geneva, provides a basis for overcoming the first of these difficulties in giving examples of how basic messages can be changed in English to make them more "socially acceptable or effective" (Goodale 1987a:9).[15]

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[15] These are:
"1. Using *would*, *could* or *might* to make what you say more tentative (e.g. 'That would be unacceptable' instead of 'That is unacceptable').
2. Presenting your view as a question not a statement (e.g 'Would it be a good idea to involve the French?' instead of 'It would be a good idea to involve the French').
3. Using a grammatical negative (adding *n't*) to make a suggestion more open and therefore more negotiable (e.g. 'Couldn't we cancel' instead of 'We could cancel').
4. Using an introductory phrase to prepare the listener for your message (e.g. 'To be honest ...').
5. Adding '*I'm afraid*' to make clear that you recognise the unhelpfulness of your response (e.g. A: 'Where's the report?' B: 'I'm afraid it hasn't arrived yet').
6. Using words which qualify or restrict what you say to make your position more flexible (e.g. 'We have had a *slight* disagreement with our German colleagues').
7. Using 'not' with a positive word instead of the obvious negative word (e.g. 'That wasn't a very helpful remark' instead of 'That was a very unhelpful remark').

The second difficulty is one that can be overcome, if not during the exercise itself, then through the facilitator evaluating it with the participants in feedback (see section 2 above).

While Meyer's scenarios do highlight potential difficulties that can arise between cultures, the assumptions underlying them do not lessen them. It is therefore essential to discuss in feedback the oversimplicity of the views that culture is equivalent to nationality and native language, that stereotypical views are representative of a particular nationality, and that differences of opinion are conflicts. Keller, on whose concept of auto- and heterostereotypes Meyer based the exercise, suggests from his experience that intercultural competence does not automatically result from pupils going on trips abroad, as they may simply seek and find confirmation of their prejudices (Keller 1991:120). This weakness can be counteracted by a strong focus in feedback on the issue of stereotyping (see section 2 above on the role of the facilitator). The German students, together with their foreign guests, should explain their motivation for arguing in the way they did and respond to reactions of the representatives of the other cultural group.

If evaluated in such a way, Meyer's exercises can provide an excellent opportunity not only to interact with speakers of the target language, but also to reflect on that interaction together with them. In "focus(ing) on individuals" (Roger and Brown 1989:156) rather than on prejudgements about a particular group of people, it becomes possible to break down pre-existing generalisations.

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8. Using a comparative to soften your message (e.g. 'An earlier delivery date is more helpful' instead of 'An earlier delivery date is helpful').
9. Using a continuous form instead of a simple form to make a suggestion more flexible (e.g. 'We were hoping you'd accept 8%' instead of 'We hoped you'd accept 8%').
10. Using stress as an important way of making the message more effective (e.g. We **have** tried to keep you fully informed)."

(d) Mistaking labels for substance

In my final example, Sawyer-Laucanno describes a simulation he developed as a segment of the Time-Life Business Game called The Mercury Shoe Game, which he refers to as a cross-cultural simulation based on a business situation involving an American and a Japanese firm competing for business.[16] The roles are those of American and Japanese business people, while the participants are probably native speakers of English. Though this simulation is not, therefore, a language-learning but a business exercise, I include it here because the designer's aim was to make participants more aware of cultural differences.

This is an example of a simulation in which cultural differences are no more than a misleading label for a difference of business interest.

Although the designer's intention was for *cultural* differences between Japanese and American people to be highlighted, the only difference between them represented in the simulation is one of *business interest*. Conflict resolution is therefore a question of dealing with differences not of culture but of interest.

In debriefing, "although the cultural issue was in everyone's mind, almost all the participants focused on the business problem" (Sawyer-Laucanno 1987:198). The participants cannot be blamed for this as there is nothing in Sawyer-Laucanno's description to suggest that the differences between the roles labelled 'Japanese' and those labelled 'American' have anything to do with cultural differences beyond the simulation. Since the participants are not necessarily familiar with Japanese or American culture, they can only equate the national labels with the interests of the respective companies. This simulation cannot therefore be seen as an exercise in intercultural relations. It is included here in order

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[16] See appendix.

to illustrate the mistake commonly made by simulation designers of equating specific differences of *interest* (here business-related) with differences of *culture*. Sawyer-Laucanno's exercise could be made into an intercultural one by the teacher actively focusing on this issue in feedback, rather than discussing it only if it is raised by the students themselves.

6. Conclusions

In participating in EFL simulations, non-native learners of the language are doing more than simply practising grammar, vocabulary and functions. They are also helping to create a new operational reality within the framework the designer selects. This framework reflects the designer's general assumptions about English, e.g. as a language in which negotiations are structured rationally (Klarin), a language whose native speakers typically hold different views from one's own (Meyer), or a language that is taken for granted as a medium of communication (Crookall).

One view is shared by most, if not all, simulation designers. Simulations and role-plays, including those used for language learning, are generally based on a cooperative decision-making process: the participants hold different views, discuss them, and find an amicable way of resolving conflicts. Simulations and role-plays can thus be seen as cultural events reflecting Western, democratic values. When participants in a simulation are members of a culture unfamiliar with the process of discussion within such frameworks, it is this aspect which is most conspicuous and it may be an awareness of this which the designer intends participants to experience, as is the case of the games used in Russia. The use of English in such a context underlines the fact that the whole situation is one that is foreign to participants, though from the point of view of enabling participants to experience a different kind of negotiation process to those familiar in Russia, another Western European language would serve the same purpose.

In the case of Meyer's scenarios, both English and German are used and the student has the task of interpreting between them. This involves more than a word for word translation, as the student also has the task of understanding and mediating differences of opinion with a view to finding an amicable solution.

In the case of GERA, the use of English is taken for granted by the designer as the participants' common means of communication and thus serves an integrative purpose of uniting participants in creating a collective operational reality based on assumptions which the designer also takes for granted and which reflect his English-speaking background (e.g. the combination of competition and cooperation).

With increasing globalisation, simulations in which English is used for the collective creation of an operational reality (cf. GERA) or for conflict resolution (cf. Meyer's scenarios) are highly relevant. An awareness of native-speaker cultures is also important (cf. Klarin's example) as these have shaped the language that is used internationally, although native speakers may not themselves be aware of the fact: "The linguistic formulae are the surface indicators of native-speakers' cultural knowledge, which is itself largely unconscious and difficult to articulate" (Byram 1991:23).

Without this knowledge foreigners negotiating in English with native speakers are at a distinct disadvantage. This does not mean that foreigners are required to distance themselves from their own culture when speaking English and to identify with English native-speaker values. The specific cultural content of English language classes (including simulations) and the extent to which identification with native-speaker cultures should be cultivated will depend on the situations in which the learners are most likely to need English in the future. The curriculum should be shaped around these needs, so that students take an active part in the learning process.

For beginners, role-play situations involving one single issue (such as school uniforms) are appropriate, so that learners can be provided with much of the vocabulary they require and suitable expressions beforehand.

For intermediate students, more complex simulations involving several stages can be used. The activity may begin, for example, with reading information on a given problem. It may then proceed to parallel discussions in small groups, followed by an information-gathering session, in which participants talk to and exchange information with members of other groups. It may then conclude with a meeting in which all the groups come together to find a common result (see Leo Jones 1983).

A similar structure may be used with with advanced language students, whereby the subject matter may be of a more complex and specialised nature.

Good practice in the design, use and analysis of simulations for gaining an intercultural understanding in the language classroom includes three aspects, whatever the students' level of linguistic competence:

1. At the preparation stage students are provided with language building blocks which can be adapted so as to be appropriate in specific situations (see Goodale's approach discussed in the context of ESP in the next chapter).

2. At the activity stage native speakers of the target language participate (see Meyer 1991).

3. At the feedback stage there is a strong focus on the issue of stereotyping.

In an ever more globalised world there is a growing interest in including cultural issues in simulation design and feedback in EFL. This interest is likely to grow, as I suggest in the next chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT
WHERE ARE SIMULATIONS GOING?

In this final chapter, I review developments in approaches to simulations for EFL and ESP from the late 1970s up to the present and conclude with an outlook on their future potential.

I begin by examining how, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, language teachers regarded simulations as a means of providing students with practice in applying language structures to situations.

The second section focuses on two parallel developments during the 1980s: designers and teachers began to place greater emphasis on communicative aspects of the situations simulated and also to use simulations to practise English in vocational contexts.

The third section analyses developments in the field of EFL and ESP simulations in the late 1980s and the 1990s. I consider three aspects:

- the synergetic relationship that has formed between designers/teachers and students in specialised vocational language-learning contexts,
- the integration of modern technology into simulation design, and
- the inclusion of cultural aspects of situations in simulations.

Finally, I present likely future developments in the field.

1. Developments in the late seventies and early eighties: Applying language structures to oral practice

At a time when many foreign language curricula still focussed mainly on grammar, pioneers of simulations in

EFL, such as Herbert and Sturtridge, saw the technique as a means of providing foreign language students with "a meaningful way to ... improve their communicative competence" (see Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:6; for a more detailed discussion of their approach, see also Chapter 6, section 2a). They understood the designer's task as being to provide students with practice of language structures within a communicative context. They list a number of elements which simulations could provide an opportunity to practise (Ibid.:8). Some of these, with their emphasis on written work (e.g. note-taking and summary-writing) and grammar items (e.g. prepositions) would not have been out of place in a more traditional, grammar-based course, from which one might surmise that Herbert and Sturtridge designed their simulations for an academic, rather than a vocational context. At the same time, however, their approach reflects the innovative trend in language teaching in the late 1970s and early 1980s towards seeing language as a vehicle for the exchange of "information and suggestions" (Ibid.:6) rather than regarding learning grammar items as an end in itself. Though the communication model implicitly underlying such early approaches to simulations was the relatively simple transmission or code model (see Chapter 6, section 2a), designers such as Herbert and Sturtridge nevertheless regarded the main advantage of simulations as being to provide participants with an opportunity to engage in "realistic communication in English" (Ibid.:55). In the teacher's notes accompanying "Media Simulation" (see appendix), Sturtridge presents the activity as aiming to enable students to use their English to perform a clearly-defined task: they should "know exactly what their task is and what they should be doing" (Ibid.:55).

This approach to the use of simulations in EFL reflected what was at the time a fresh approach to teaching foreign languages, aiming as it did to enable students not simply to learn grammatical structures by heart, but to apply them in a purposeful way to practical communicative situations.

2. Developments in the eighties

(a) Communicative approaches

The process outlined above was taken a step further in the 1980s. Designers increasingly saw the role of simulations as being to provide students with an opportunity to practise their English in communicative situations (see Chapter 6), whereby communication began to be understood as including an ability to negotiate, rather than simply to exchange information. The emphasis on simulations being an exercise in applying grammar structures to communicative situations was rejected. Some hailed simulations as a means of putting power into the hands of the students themselves, encouraging them to make themselves understood with whatever English they knew, however limited (see, for example, Crookall 1984 and Di Pietro 1987). The focus of such designers was on creating a 'realistic' situation, since this was regarded as a prerequisite for students to be able to use 'realistic' language. However, realism was often regarded as meaning 'psychologically credible from the point of view of the participants' rather than as necessarily bearing any close resemblance to the referent situation.

Crookall went so far as to suggest that simply outlining the situation alone would in itself suffice to provide students with a sense of credibility, enabling them to create a social reality within the simulation (see Crookall 1984:264 and, for a discussion of his approach, Chapter 6, section 2c). He saw language as being of secondary importance to, or following on automatically from the situation. An immediate positive, not to say enthusiastic, response by participants was seen as the main barometer of the activity's success. The referent situation was seen as being of secondary importance, if its existence was mentioned at all.

While promoting their improvisation skills, little emphasis was placed on the *appropriacy* or *accuracy* of their language. The designers of "EEC Summit",[1] for example, (Hardisty and Windeatt 1989), while aiming to provide students with practice of "the language of formal meetings" (Ibid:42), proposed a modification for more elementary students which removed any semblance of credibility in the simulation for any observer, if not also for the participants: "The exercises could be carried out ... using more basic language such as Yes!, No!, What!!, etc." (Ibid.:43). The simulation also holds other implausibilities: European summits are not held via computer even when it is foggy, the agenda of such meetings is not drafted at the beginning of the summit itself, but in advance, so that delegates can plan their strategy beforehand, and an interpreting service is provided at such meetings, dispensing with the need for using a foreign language at all. While creating a situation which some students might find psychologically credible may suffice for students to gain confidence in using the English they already know, more than this is required in order for the activity to be regarded as truly communicative. Of course, the use of such simulations as "EEC Summit" can be justified by saying that such activities are very motivating for beginners, who come to realise that they can exchange information successfully in the foreign language. However, complex social situations, such as international summits, require the use of more sophisticated language. If part of the purpose of a simulation is to enable students to communicate *appropriately*, they require some prior understanding of the situation type and of organisational structures. For pupils unfamiliar with procedures at international summits, a discussion of the context would be required as background information before they undertake such a simulation.

The importance of appropriacy came to be recognised by some designers in the eighties. Leo Jones' Eight Simulations (1983) are early examples of simulations in which students are given lists of phrases relating to the

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1 See appendix.

specific kind of situation which is then simulated (see Leo Jones' "The Bridge" in the appendix). Although Leo Jones' lists of phrases were criticised by Cunningsworth and Horner as usually being only "loosely linked to language functions" and only occasionally signalling "their role in discourse (e.g. opening and closing formulae for broadcast interviews)" (1985:217-8), they do represent what was an early attempt to provide students with suitable language relating to a given context.

(b) Early vocational uses

Since the early 1980s the aim of using simulations in EFL and particularly ESP classrooms has been to prepare students for vocational situations in English. Language teachers initially did not feel competent to discuss work-related issues arising from the use of simulations and used feedback to focus primarily on language items. Authors such as Wright (1979 and 1982), while acknowledging that negotiation and presentation skills and the subject of the simulation were of relevance to ESP students, focused only on language aspects of the situation in preparation for and feedback after the simulation, advising that the facilitator "should correct any mistakes in English, but *not* any mistakes in presentation" (Wright 1979:140; see Chapter 6 section 3 for more detail).

In the wake of globalisation, defined by O'Sullivan as "(t)he growth and acceleration of economic and cultural networks which operate on a worldwide scale and basis" (O'Sullivan et al. 1994:130), ever more students have a specific vocational reason for learning English since the *lingua franca* of international business communication is English. Real world demands have thus swept into the language classroom, especially in vocational training contexts.[2] Language can no longer be

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[2] Roman Herzog, the German President, is quoted as having said at the World Economic Forum in Davos that this process is already complete: "When I spoke to this Forum in 1995, the subject was still globalisation. Today

separated from the functions it is used to perform. Thus, these functions must be at least partially understood by language teachers. In seeing himself primarily, if not exclusively as a language specialist, while at the same time recognising that his students also required skill in using the language for specific vocational purposes, Wright marked the beginning of a more synergetic relationship between language teachers and specialist language learners that began to develop in the late eighties.

3. Developments in the late eighties and the nineties

English has become less and less a self-contained world and more and more a subject with an explicit connection to the outside world. In the wake of globalisation, English has over the last decade become an essential qualification, along with computer skills, for most office jobs in non-English speaking countries, particularly in Europe. A casual glance through the newspapers confirms this impression. An article in the jobs section of a local German newspaper, for example, is entitled "Englisch-Kenntnisse gehören bereits zum Standard" (an ability to speak English is now a standard requirement) and bears the subtitle "Großunternehemen verlangen zunehmend Vielsprachigkeit und kulturelle Flexibilität" (big companies increasingly demand foreign languages and cultural flexibility" (Jordanova-Duda 1999). The language most in demand is English. Recent trends in the use of simulations reflect a growing awareness among designers of the need to prepare students for very specific situations with which they are confronted in their daily work.

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we are already speaking of globality: the process has developed into a state" (Die Zeit, 4 February 1999, my translation). See also Chapter 5 section 2 on the importance of English as an international language.

(a) <u>Synergy between teacher and student in vocational contexts</u>

During the last few years demand has grown for specialised vocational simulations in ESP which take a wide range of complex factors into account. Simulations have thus increasingly come to emphasise social or cultural aspects as well as the vocational demands of the simulated situations, rather than focusing only or mainly on linguistic structures or on getting across a message as best one can.

Teachers of ESP in particular have begun to see themselves as forming a complementary partnership with their students, who are likely to be experts in their own fields of specialisation.

The teacher requires the help of his or her students in order to be in a position to create simulations that actually meet their very specific vocational needs. Through asking students about the kinds of situation in which they need to be able to speak English, of which the teacher may well have little or no experience, he or she can better understand what kind of language they require.

As far as the language is concerned, the teacher can provide students with a general framework, such as that presented in <u>The language of meetings</u> (Goodale 1987), in which Goodale presents lists of phrases in a similar way to Leo Jones (see Section 2a above). However, Goodale takes this approach a step further. The functional phrases he presents are not, as in the case of L. Jones' <u>Eight Simulations</u>, intended to relate directly to *one particular situation*, but to prepare learners for *one situation type*: meetings.[3]

While it is something of an oversimplification to suggest, as Goodale does, that the phrases required for such different situations as discussions of nuclear

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[3] He provides a range of phrases for performing the following functions: presenting an argument, giving or allowing others to give opinions, agreeing and disagreeing, interrupting, clarifying, questioning, making proposals, persuading, expressing degrees of importance and certainty and compromising.

warfare and of a housing association gardening project are "the same" (Goodale 1987a:6), his approach is nevertheless a very useful one, in that he suggests how standard features of English can be modified for use in specific situations, making messages "more direct, more tactful, more diplomatic etc." (Ibid.:16). In contrast to designers such as Crookall (see section 2a above), for whom the *situation* was central, Goodale places more power and responsibility in the hands of the students, providing them with language building blocks with which they can implement strategies which are firmly based on their expertise in their specialised field.[4]

b) Integrating technological developments into simulations

Simulations using computer-generated or computer-transmitted data are another category of simulations used in EFL and ESP since the early 1980s.

Simulations in which the computer's role is supportive of, but secondary to, the roles played by human participants, who are required to communicate with one another in order to achieve their aims within the simulation, are the most effective type of computer simulation for providing learners with communicative skills practice. Here, the computer is not itself a 'participant' in the discussion, but "keeps the discussion going by constantly providing new data" (G. Jones 1986:186). It can be used to perform mathematical calculations, required in business simulations used in ESP, or to speed up long-distance, even world-wide transmission of data between participants, but the emphasis is very clearly "on human interaction and on the negotiation of meaning" (Crookall and Martin 1985:61), on "communication between people" (Versluis et al. 1989:82).

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[4] In his separate book of simulations, "Meetings" (1987; see example "Airport 2000" in the appendix), Goodale provides students with examples of meetings in which they can apply the language they have learnt.

A well-known example is ICONS (Crookall 1986),[5] which, although not originally intended for use with language-learners, could be adapted for the language classroom. It is intended for twenty or more teams of international relations students from different countries who communicate with one another via computer screens to resolve an international crisis.

A more recent example is included in what Berlitz language school claimed in advertising material in 1995 to be a new kind of correspondence course. Learners work at their computer terminals, entering an "online classroom" in which they engage in "activities quite similar to the ones you would find in a good (language) class: discussions, role-plays, simulations and debates. You are thus provided with a variety of practice that has never existed before in traditional correspondence courses" (Anon. 1995:2, my translation).

While this may be the case, many online simulations provide practice only or mainly in written communication. ICONS includes oral skills in that students discuss their responses to the given tasks in groups. However, even without an oral element, practice in this kind of task is relevant as practice for international commmunication via electronic mail, particularly for learners who require English for business-related contexts, whereby to be useful, the setting of the simulation should reflect the learners' real-life needs.

c) Becoming aware of culture

Until the mid-1980s, simulations for language learning largely neglected cultural issues. Herbert and Sturtridge mention, but do not distinguish between, the learners' own culture and that of the target language, making the general statement that

> "(t)he closer the simulation can be to reality and to the students' own first language role or new foreign language role, the closer the language that he produced

5 See appendix.

will be to that which he will need to produce in the real situation" (Herbert and Sturtridge 1979:5).

Herbert and Sturtridge here present simulations for foreign-language learning as a means of providing students with an opportunity to transfer the skills they already have in an L1 context to an L2 context, but they do not raise the question of how these skills would have to be modified.

To raise students' awareness of how L1 strategies could be transferred appropriately to an L2 situations, Cunningsworth and Horner (1985) proposed using simulations in which native speakers of the target language were invited to participate (218). The involvement of native speakers in itself was thus seen as serving a corrective function.

Goodale was one of the first simulation designers to make a more formal link between culture and language. He presents generalisable features of meetings in English and ways in which they can be modified for particular contexts (Goodale 1987a). In an introductory chapter, learners are asked to give examples of how basic messages can be modified in their own languages to make them more socially acceptable or effective (Goodale 1987a:9). By analogy, ways of modifying basic messages in English are then presented. Learners thereby gain an awareness of ways in which differences between their own culture and English-speaking cultures are reflected in the respective languages.

Meyer (1991, see outline of tasks in appendix) takes this idea a step further in his innovative role-play exercises in which students require not only an awareness of cultural differences, but also an ability to bridge the gap between them. In evaluating students' intercultural competence on the basis of their performance in role-plays involving a member of their own culture and a member of the culture of the target language (see Chapter 7, section 5c), Meyer highlights the importance of mediation skills in intercultural communication. Students are required to apply Goodale's principle of adapting messages for a target audience in seeking a harmonious resolution of a misunderstanding or difference of opinion between a member of their own culture and a member of a target language culture. Exercises of this kind link language skills with mediation skills, an ever more important combination in a globalised world.

Enabling students to gain an awareness of complex differences of perspective concerning a given situations has attracted increasing attention in teaching English in recent years. Whereas early simulation designers required students to simply apply the same strategies that they would use in their native language situation to a similar situation in English, designers in the eighties and nineties have focused on the importance of students realising that cultural differences exist and taking them into account in adapting the language they use. The ability to see problems from various points of view and to select language appropriate for different target audiences are skills required in any job that involves dealing with people from different backgrounds, even within one single culture. As more and more non-native speakers of English require this skill in English as well as in their native languages, simulations and role-plays focusing on mediating between cultures can offer a means of developing it.

4. Future developments

The euphoria with which some teachers welcomed simulations in the early days of the communicative approach to language learning has given way to a more sober and differentiated evaluation of their usefulness. Students have also become more discerning since the early eighties, when any kind of 'communicative' exercise was felt to be liberating in comparison with the grammar-based approach to language teaching still common in many school curricula. The days of students encapsulating themselves in cosy classroom realities of little relevance in the outside world are also numbered.

The future of simulations lies in the ability of designers to act as consultants for their students. This means to recognise the specific vocational skills learners need to perform in English, to ask the relevant questions in order to have at least a basic understanding of the students' specialist background, to present students with a relevant selection of English language building blocks (e.g. lists of functional phrases) and to provide an intercultural perspective of the simulated situation.

Simulations and role-plays used in EFL and ESP in future are likely in future to increasingly integrate language-learning practice with the development of a range of other skills, such as using a computer, developing strategies for negotiation and mediation, interview techniques and presentation skills.

Widening the range of objectives of simulations and role-plays in EFL and ESP in this way will ensure that they remain relevant in a globalised world in which English has become the lingua franca.

CONCLUSION

In an attempt to meet the diverse and often specialist language-learning needs of simulation participants, designers have drawn on a wide variety of subject areas for ideas. This has contributed to the variety of the exercises that have been produced. Most, if not all the literature on the subject of simulations in language-teaching is based on authors' practical experience of using such activities with students.

This experience is itself influenced by the designers' own social and cultural background and their specialist interests. Generalising from this personal experience, designers have come to different understandings of key concepts such as 'simulation', (and related concepts such as 'game', 'simulation-game' and 'role-play'), 'reality', 'communication' and 'culture', as I showed in Chapters 2 to 5 of this study.

Some of the practical implications of these different understandings of the terminology and weighting of the importance of particular aspects of a situation within a simulation are illustrated in the examples discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

In designing simulations to improve students' communicative competence, some designers aim to provide students with an opportunity to speak in a way that is formally accurate using standardised phrases. Others place the emphasis on creating a situation which students perceive as credible, regardless of the kind of language they use.

Teaching English as a foreign language in itself raises the questions as to which varieties of English rooted in which cultures are to be considered acceptable for international use and the extent to which an understanding of native-speaking cultures is required in learning the language. Various different answers to this question are reflected in simulations intended to improve students' cultural competence. Some designers intentionally include cultural stereotypes as part of the design framework, whereby the aim is for the students either to imitate the cultural behaviour of a foreign culture, or to conform to stereotypes of their own culture. Other designers raise cultural issues unintentionally, basing their simulation on cultural assumptions rooted in their own background, which are not necessarily shared by the participants.

The use of computers to facilitate communication by participants in different places has added a new dimension to the use of simulations.

The variety of approaches to simulations for teaching English as a foreign language, as I have illustrated in this study, is a feature of their current use. Approaches to the technique have undergone the development I illustrated in Chapter 8, from being used primarily for general language practice to being used increasingly for specialist vocational purposes. The fragmented discussion on the subject also reflects designers' and facilitators' different social and cultural backgrounds, the variety of the educational or training contexts in which they work and the cultural backgrounds of their students. These many variable factors make it impossible to arrive at one single definition of simulations for language-learning or to regard simulations as one single activity type.

It therefore appears that designers' accounts of their experience of using simulations cannot be taken at face value, but must be subjected to a meta-criticism that views them within their social, cultural and educational contexts.

Future research on the subject could aim to clarify which simulation structures are best suited to serving which particular language-learning objectives and to come to differentiated definitions of the different types, taking account of the variety of purposes for and contexts in which English is learnt. While such research would inevitably draw on interdisciplinary sources, it would be useful to establish more standardised definitions of exercise types that are more consciously tailored to meeting the particular needs of specific groups of EFL and ESP students.

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APPENDIX

Details of simulations and role-plays discussed in the main text are given in alphabetical order by author in the first part of the appendix. Wherever possible, the actual text of the material is given. Where the *author* given in the reference is not also the *designer* of the simulation(s) referred to, the reference and the text make this clear and provide details of both.

In the second part of the appendix, two frameworks for structuring feedback are given.

Simulations used in the project "Prejudices, discrimination and education".

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Bosnian Crisis Game

In: Clarke, Michael (1978). Simulations in the Study of International Relations. Ormskirk, G.W. & A. Hesketh, pp. 125-155.

A

BOSNIAN CRISIS GAME

This simulation was devised by Dr. Michael Nicholson, Director of the Richardson Institute of Conflict and Peace Research and Maryon (Hogg) Tysoe. It is at present, published by The Open University for use in their Summer School. This is an adaptation of the original and large extracts of it are reproduced by kind permission of the publisher.

For references in the text to this game see p.38, 85-90.

Introduction

This simulation is designed to produce processes of crisis decision-making, communication and the manipulation of power. It is untypical of crisis games, however, in that it is historical, the teams are large, structured for decision-making, and communication is strictly constrained between actors. It concentrates much more than less structured crisis games on the formal problems of decision-making rather than on international interactions at various levels. Power and communication are here cast as aspects of decision-making. This game works well at an introductory level with the Open University, through in a slightly different academic context, but as a crisis of some historical complexity, it could be used at a more specialised level if desired.

I TUTOR INSTRUCTIONS

Role Allocation

Eight actors are involved, though they could be reduced by eliminating Turkey and/or Italy. Total numbers of players can vary from 40 to well over 100. Individual players should not know, formally, who is in any other team. They are taken to their team room, told which country they represent, given their individual governmental roles and sit as a 'cabinet' for the course of play. The specific allocation of roles is given in sections F and G of the Players' Manual. Each team includes the principal members of government, two civil servants, and depending on total numbers, ministers of trade, navy, colonies, chiefs of staff, etc.

Time Table

1 Hour	Initial briefing	
20-30 Mins.	Procedural briefing in teams, teams produce a short list of objectives.	
5 Mins.	Start game by announcing that message in section H of Player's Manual has been received by Russia.	
45-60 Mins.	Game Day 1	6 to 10 days is advisable, though there is no limit. There is no break between game days; controllers remind each team as each new game day begins.
45-60 Mins.	Game Day 2	
45-60 Mins.	Game Day 3	

15-20 Mins.	Announce end of play, teams make a brief group assessment and write it down in three or four main points.
1½ Hours (minimum)	Full debriefing session.

Mechanics of Play
The principal inter-team activity is the flow of messages between them. A message is sent by a civil servant, at any time, bringing to Control a message on an M1 form and an M2 copy. Control keeps the M1 for record and to help with analysis as it includes the intentions questionnaire, and delivers the M2 in the next game day to the recipient. Control can feed material into the game on an M2 form to the appropriate teams. Moves only need to be entered on an M1 form. Control assesses and notes the move, informing other countries if appropriate. Press releases can be made from Control at intervals and read out in each team room.

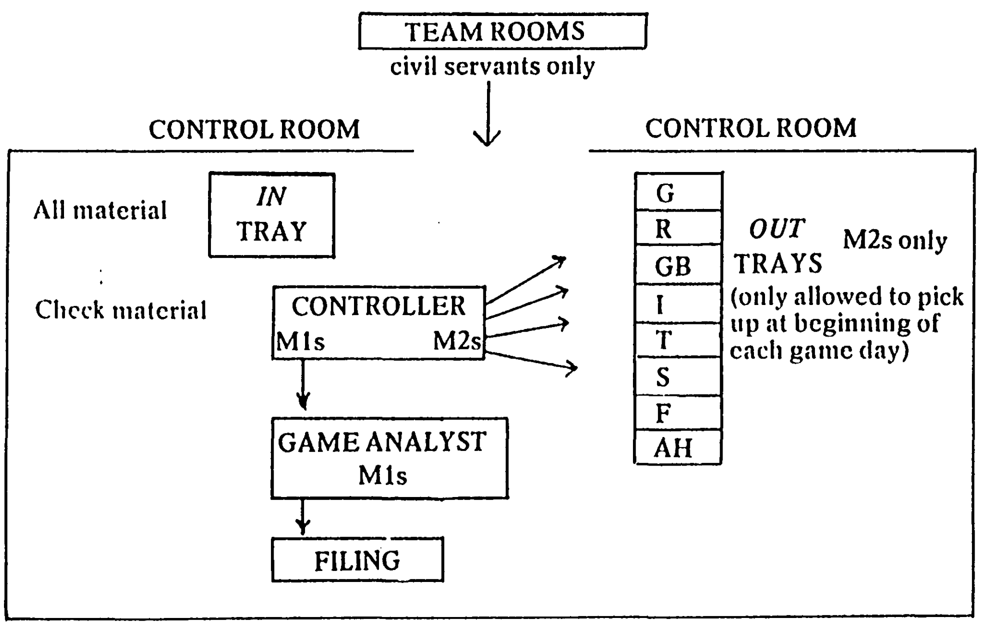
Basic principles of the play are that:

a. Only civil servants leave team rooms to bring and pick up messages from Control;

b. Unless Control decides to exercise discretion in an individual case, all messages may be brought to Control at any time during a game day but will not be received by the recipient until the next;

c. Control organises 'delivery' of messages through a system of 'in' and 'out' trays whereby a controller receives all incoming material in one 'in' tray, checks the message, passes the M1 to the game analyst and puts the M2 in the recipient's 'out' tray.

These principles are shown diagramatically below:



The task of the *analyst* is to be primarily responsible for keeping a close track on
story and shape of the game. The analyst, by the end, will have read all messa
etc., and their contribution to the debriefing session can be made the main fo
for student discussion as to the history and outcome of the exercise. The essen
function of *Control*, apart from the usual ones of running the news syst
providing information, representing the rest of the world, is to handle the flow
paper efficiently since there is normally a great deal of it. Conferences, summ
etc., can be allowed, but they take some days to set up properly, and should t
place under the supervision of Control.

Minimum Requirements
8 team rooms and 1 larger control room
Maps for each team and suitable reference works for Control
300 M1 forms
600 M2 forms
100 Information request forms
200 Press Release forms
40 sheets of carbon paper

The amount of stationery is estimated generously here. Specimen copie
each form are provided below. The M1s should be A4 size, all others should be
that. The M2 form is simply the M1 minus the questionnaire. The forms
illustrated below.

MESSAGE/MOVE FORM

SECRET/OPEN (please delete whichever is inapplicable)

TO: FROM:

Your Country's Code:
Serial No.:
No. of Day of Sending:
If this is a response to a message/move from another country, please state:
a) Code of country which sent that message/move:
b) Serial no. of that message/move:

MESSAGE/MOVE

No. of Day of Receipt:

1) What are your intentions in sending this message/move? (about 10 words)

2) What do you predict the reaction of the recipient of the message/those affected by the move is most likely to be? (about 10 words)

3) Please tick the box which you consider best represents the degree of hostility/friendliness that you intend this message to convey:

−5	−4	−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5

Hostile　　Friendly

4) Please tick the box which you consider best represents the degree of hostility/friendliness that you actually *feel* towards the recipient of this message, if it is different from above:

−5	−4	−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5

Hostile　　Friendly

MESSAGE/MOVE FORM M2

SECRET/OPEN (please delete whichever is inapplicable)

TO: FROM:

Your Country's Code:
Serial No.:
No. of Day of Sendng:
If this is a response to a message/move from another country, please state:
a) Code of country which sent that message/move:
b) Serial no. of that message/move:

MESSAGE/MOVE

No. of Day of Receipt:

6

INFORMATION REQUEST
(to Control)

FROM:
GAME DAY:
INFORMATION REQUESTED:

REPLY FROM CONTROL

PRESS RELEASE
(to Control)

FROM:
GAME DAY:

ITEM

BE BRIEF. BE LEGIBLE. CONTROL WILL EDIT.

II PLAYERS' MANUAL

During the simulation you will play the role of one of the statesmen involved in t Bosnian crisis, which lasted over six months from October 1908 until March 19 The exercise starts at the beginning of the most critical period of the crisis, wh the confrontation between Russia and Serbia on one side and Austria-Hungary a Germany on the other, was most menacing to European peace.

We do not want you to try and 'copy' what actually happened during the ac crisis period in March 1909. In order to gain the most from this exercise you m play the game sensibly and seriously, *but in your own way.* However, there will b number of necessary constraints on your freedom of action.

Control Team
The Control Team is composed of a number of tutors. The Control Room will fully staffed throughout the game. The Control Room is strictly out of bounds players (except if unavoidable for the delivery of messages) otherwise you mi get information about other teams which would not have been available in real and thus make a nonsense of the game. All messages from the role players first

to Control, where an Umpire checks them for validity. This is obviously a somewhat arbitrary process, but the Umpire will only disallow decisions which are clearly impossible. For instance, it will be impossible to transport an army 1,000 miles overnight.

A certain amount of information is provided in Section III (Scenario) and Section V (Notes) about each of the participating countries, including some details about their trade and finance. Within the limited scope of a simulation like this it is impossible to provide complete information, and it is hoped that teams can, for the most part, manage with what there is. The Control Team may be able to give you further specific information on request, and will always be willing to further elucidate the rules of the game.

The Control Team will be God and Nature — they will be the final authority for the purposes of the exercise. They will also be capable of introducing new factors.

Team organization
Eight countries are normally represented in the simulation: Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, Serbia and Turkey. Each nation team will have one room to itself. You will not be informed which country you are representing until you are in the appropriate room, as by trying to reduce the chances of knowing who is in the other teams we hope it may cut down illicit 'after hours' bargaining.

It may sometimes be necessary to eliminate one or two countries from the exercise if there are not enough rooms.

Information about all the countries is to be found in the Scenario and the country briefs. As regards the power structure of the teams during the simulation, the final authority will be held by the Head of State in all countries except Britain and Italy, where the Head of Government holds it. You will find further details in the country briefs. However, we are not trying to represent the *exact* formal and informal power structure of the countries and there is nothing to stop members of teams working independently of the others if they wish. Thus, in 1908, Izvolsky made an agreement with Aehrenthal without the knowledge of the Tsar and Stolypin who were furious. Decision-makers usually cannot be demoted or removed from office during the simulation by their colleagues, and such a move should have Control permission.

Role-playing
You will each be given the role of the statesmen involved in decision-making during the Bosnian crisis. You will be told your role after you have been assigned to one of the nation teams. We do want you to try and behave as you think the real person would have done, be *yourself* in his position. This is most important. You have a good deal of latitude to develop your own strategies within the constraints of the given political, military and international framework. This applies to both individuals and teams. We have given you the real names of the particularly important characters purely for interest's sake. We have more or less standardized the titles of the positions (e.g. Minister of Foreign Affairs).

Starting the exercise
The simulation begins when you receive a message from Control informing you that Russia has received Germany's message, sent on the 21st March, 1909 in real life, the actual text of which is reproduced at the end of this package. Then it will be up to you to react to this message as you think fit, and pursue your policies in general.

Communication
Communication between teams will be carried out as it was generally in the situation by written messages which would normally involve a delay of some between the sending and receiving of messages. For the purposes of the game delay has necessarily been shortened to about a 'day'. Associated with message, you will have a brief four item questionnaire to complete. T questions will explore your intentions in sending a message, and the degre hostility/friendliness you feel for its recipient. Together they will help you buil a picture of the country concerned.

Civil Servants
Each nation team will have one or more Civil Servants assigned to it whose jot be to enable the team to get down to the important business of making decisior screening incoming messages, drafting outgoing messages, keeping the mes files up to date and other important operational tasks. Civil Servants must wri messages in block capitals in biro for legibility and keep a copy of all the mess and moves sent. In particular, it is essential that Civil Servants ensure that al details at the top (e.g. the serial number) are correctly filled in. Civil Servant as couriers to take messages from a team to Control for scrutiny. Whilst this ma done at any time, it is important that one of the Civil Servants goes to Control a start of each Game Day to pick up any messages for his country that were se other countries. If anybody in the team wants to communicate with Control must ask a Civil Servant to pass on their request.

A Civil Servant acts as a Minister of State within the Department of Fo Affairs, and is next in seniority within that Department to the Minister of Fo Affairs himself. As such, he is as important a decision maker as anyone else i simulation exercise, and with the unique advantage of being in closest touch the team's outgoing communication. Should Civil Servants feel that operational role constricts their ability to participate fully in the game, they sl devolve some of the more routine operations (i.e. making additional copi messages) to other members of the team.

Instruction for Making Moves and Sending Messages
The Sender

1. *Messages:* These can be sent to one or more countries, and are to be writte the 'message/move forms'. The clerical procedure is to write the top copy o large forms (i.e. those including the questionnaire) and to take *two carbon copi* the smaller message form (i.e. without the questionnaire). When the message go to more than one country *an additional carbon should be made for additional country.* To distinguish messages from moves, the word 'move' sl be scored out wherever it appears on the form.

Messages can be sent either individually or as a team, and they can be se either individuals or teams. This is filled in in the 'to' and 'from' spaces. message can be 'secret' or 'open'. If it is 'secret' to one person, it will only be by that person, and if it is 'open' the whole team may see it. Messages to all t can be sent as press releases to be read at the beginning of each new Game D a member of Control.

You must also fill in your own country's code (the first letter of its name e for Britain which is GB), and the serial number of the messages. All message moves must carry serial numbers which should make no distinction between t

'Number of day of sending' refers to the Game Day on which it was delivered to Control.

If the message is a response to a message/move from another country, you are asked to fill in the code of that country, and the serial number of the message.

A Civil Servant must take the original (i.e. the large form with questionnaire attached) to Control together with all carbon copies except that one which the team keeps on file.

Where a message originates from one member without the knowledge and consent of the other members of the team, that member must ask a Civil Servant to fill in all the necessary details at the top of the form (serial no., etc.) and then complete the message and questionnaire himself. The message should then be folded and given to a Civil Servant for delivery to Control.

If a message is from the whole team, there should be consensus as to how the questionnaire is filled in but the Head of Government will have final authority where there is disagreement.

2. *Moves:* These announce a physical move (e.g. mobilization of forces). They must be addressed to Control, and are to be written on the 'message/move forms'. The clerical procedure is to write the top copy on the large forms (i.e. those including the questionnaire) and to take *one carbon copy* on the smaller form. To distinguish moves from messages, the word 'message' should be scored out wherever it appears on the form. Otherwise, the necessary details should be filled in as for messages ('secret' on these forms means you would rather Control did not tell anybody about it, 'open' means that you do not mind. However, you should be warned that in the real world the best-kept secret is frequently uncovered, and that, therefore, Control at its discretion may give such information out to other countries even though you had hoped it would not be revealed).

In the case of moves it is unnecessary to fill in questions (3) and (4) of the questionnaire. Once you have completed the form, the top copy should be delivered to Control and the carbon retained for filing.

3. *Information requests:* In the 'from' space put your country's code, or your role name and country's code. The Civil Servant will take the form to Control who will fill in the information and return it to sender as soon possible. *No carbon is required.*

Conferences
It is possible to communicate with other nations by holding a conference but as in real life organization of these is difficult, cumbersome and lengthy. However if a conference is required send this request to Control on an information request form and they will decide whether to allow it. But before a conference can take place:

1. all the relevant participants must agree on the agenda in advance, and send Control a copy.

2. each participant should prepare a brief (copy to Control again) setting out his aims and tactics,

3. each participant should prepare a short conference report afterwards listing what he thinks he has gained (or lost) and justifying any departure from his brief. This has to be done in real life and can be discussed in the debriefing. Again a copy of each report should be given immediately to Control. Remember, conferences are

difficult to organize, especially if they are meant to be attended by several nation
No unscheduled face-to-face meeting between role players of different countries allowed during the simulation.

Mobilization
Mobilization (or demobilization) are the likeliest sorts of 'move' you might mak
As a general rule you can assume that mobilization times would be as follows:

Austria-Hungary	two months
France	six weeks
Germany	one month
Great Britain	one month
Russia	several months

You can of course declare war and commence hostilities before mobilization complete, but you will not be able to actually start fighting during the time span the exercise. Military and naval manoeuvres are other possibilities.

You should not decide to mobilize without considering for what use you inter your armed forces and what the effect on other powers will be. Remember on mobilization has started it cannot be hidden from other powers for more than two three days.

At the end of the exercise
When you have been told to stop, there will be a period before the gener debriefing. In particular, you should address yourself to the following question Did your team manage to fulfil the policy programme it set itself? If it did, by wh means was it successful? If it did not, why not? Did you find your perceptions of th other teams altered by the ongoing communication? Did you find increasin accuracy of perception of the other teams' likely reactions? Did you find increasin success of your intentions due to increased knowledge of the other teams?

III SCENARIO

INTRODUCTION TO THE BALKAN SITUATION
By Article 25 of the Treaty of Berlin 1878 it was agreed that Austria-Hungar should occupy and administer Bosnia and Herzegovina, the two most north westerly Provinces of the Empire of the Turks (Ottoman Empire). In effect Austria Hungary or the Dual Monarchy received an international mandate to govern an restore peace and order in the two Provinces where there had been revolts in 187 However, the Turkish representatives to the conference refused to sign until th Austro-Hungarian representatives made a declaration stating that the Sultan Turkey's ultimate authority over the Provinces would not be affected by the fact occupation which was to be considered provisional. Turkey wanted to hold on to pretence of controlling the Provinces. All the other representatives at the tin thought privately of it as a permanent occupation and any semblance of Turkis sovereignty over the area was systematically removed by Austria-Hungary. F practical purposes the Provinces became an integral part of the Hapsburg domain and the Dual Monarchy from an early date wanted to convert the occupation in an annexation. The nationalism of the Slavs (who were in the south of Austri Hungary, the Balkans and Russia), and Russia's traditional role in the Balkar brought Russia and the Dual Monarchy into conflict as we shall see, and because the alliance structure of Europe it also threatened to involve several other countri as well.

Development of the crisis

The Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, Aehrenthal, took office in 1906 and was determined to revive the sagging international prestige of the Monarchy by a bold diplomatic programme. The Balkans, where Turkey's power had been waning for centuries, offered many opportunities. At the same time, Austria's southern borders were menaced by the growing Pan-Slav nationalism and the agitation of Serbia which had territorial ambitions. Aehrenthal decided to 'place the centre of gravity' of Slavic nationalism within the Empire and so reduce the influence of Serbia. To do this he decided to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina.

27 October 1907: Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, Aehrenthal, discusses this plan with the Joint Cabinet of Austria and Hungary. The plan aimed at reducing the influence of independent Serbia by annexing Bosnia-Herzegovina and, eventually, incorporating Serbia into the Monarchy, preferably with Serbia's consent. The purpose of this was to attain secure frontiers to the south in the event of the collapse of Turkey in Europe and regain the economic control over Serbia which had recently been lost. However, the Magyars (the Hungarians) were opposed to transforming the Empire from a Dual to a Tripartite Monarachy since they thought such a move would lessen their influence.

1 December 1907: Aehrenthal obtains consent in principle from the Joint Cabinet for the annexation. He begins to develop his plan of getting the consent of Turkey and of the powers which had signed the Treaty of Berlin by offering to renounce military use of Sandjak of Novi Bazar which had no value, but was regarded in Europe as the springboard for further Austrian advances in the Balkans.

27 January 1908: Austria-Hungary obtains concession from Turkey to build a railway from the Bosnian frontier passing through Sandjak to Mitrovitsa. The line was of no military or economic importance and Aehrenthal may have thought the line would enhance the value of the renunciation in the eyes of the Powers. Russia, however, is alarmed and sees the railway as a threat to Serbia and a violation of the *status quo.*

Aehrenthal decided to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina, at about the same time as Izvolsky, the new Russian Foreign Minister, was also seeking to revive Russian fortunes which had taken a battering in the 1905 revolution and the humiliating war against Japan. Like Aehrenthal he was ambitious and clever and saw the Balkans as the most likely area of diplomatic advance. He decided to pursue the old question of the opening of the Straits (the Dardanelles) to Russian warships. He thought that success in this would be a great triumph for him, the Straits being of great importance for the Russian expansionist policy, by giving them a 'window' into the Mediterannean sea.

2 July 1908: Russian Foreign Secretary, Izvolsky, makes what is considered to be a 'bewildering move' by which he was unwittingly opening a new chapter in European history. Izvolsky wrote to Aehrenthal, clumsily offering a deal, Austrian support for the opening of the Straits to Russian warships in return for Russian consent to the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, an offer which Aehrenthal took advantage of for his own ends.

24 July 1908: Revolt of Young Turks, Aehrenthal decides time for annexation may be short since a rejuvenated Turkey would put up more resistance, and Serbian propagandists were getting in touch with the Young Turks, with the intention of making trouble for Austria-Hungary.

9

27 August 1908: Aehrenthal replies to Izvolsky's note of 2 July and asks Ru maintain a 'friendly and benevolent' attitude towards Austria-Hungary in the of annexation and restates her intention to withdraw from the Sandjal Aehrenthal skilfully avoids linking the annexation with the opening of the S 'a trap into which Izvolsky was eventually to fall'.

15 and 16 September 1908: Aehrenthal and Izvolsky, (Aehrenthal with the s of the Joint Cabinet, Izvolsky with the sole authority of the Tsar) meet at B for an informal conference but the accounts of what was decided differ. Iz certainly gave his approval to the annexation, but he maintained that this require a conference of the Treaty of Berlin powers, who he thought, would asked to approve the opening of the Straits. No written official documents what was decided passed between the two men and whether by accident or (by Aehrenthal) confusion arose. Aehrenthal's view of what happened is as fo

1. That Russia would maintain a friendly and benevolent attitude towards A Hungary over the annexation.
2. That Austria would observe the same friendly attitude if Russia took s obtain of the Straits to single ships of war.
3. That Austria firmly opposed any Serbian frontier rectifications as compe for the annexation.
4. That if Izvolsky could promise that Serbia would behave correctly Austria not oppose her (Serbian) expansion in the Balkans.
5. That the revision of the Treaty caused by the annexation should be settled Cabinets, followed by a conference to confirm the agreements already made.
6. That he told Izvolsky the annexation would be early in October.

Izvolsky's view of what happened was:

1. That Aehrenthal maintained the annexation was the concern only of A Hungary and Turkey.
2. That he (Izvolsky) replied that the annexation was the concern of all the of Berlin Powers, so a conference to discuss it was necessary, at which they not oppose Austria-Hungary, but the annexation without a conference violation of the *status quo* and of the Treaty.
3. That he maintained that the annexation risked setting the Balkans alight.
4. That he had not understood the annexation to be imminent. He ex Aehrenthal to announce his plans rather than to present Europe with *accompli.*

Izvolsky thought the annexation was many months away and went for a in Bavaria and then on a leisurely tour of the European capitals to sound out on the deal. Meanwhile, Aehrenthal went ahead with his plans at full speed.

29 September 1908: Izvolsky visits Tittoni, the Italian Foreign Secretary, a tinues to emphasize the international implication of any annexation. Titton ever, has already been told by Aehrenthal that Russia had agreed to the ann being the concern only of Austria-Hungary and Turkey. Tittoni s Aehrenthal's view, a fact which was to cause him severe embarrassment Italian Parliament when the annexation took place, in view of Italy's interes Balkans.

6 October 1908: Bulgaria proclaims independence from Turkey prompted by Aehrenthal although he denied it. Aehrenthal wanted to strengthen his hand by making sure Bulgaria would throw in her lot with Austria-Hungary by herself breaking the Treaty and so increase Austria's influence in the Balkans. Under the Treaty of Berlin Bulgaria was made an autonomous principality under the ultimate control of the Sultan. Emperor Franz Josef proclaims the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, or as he wrote to the Powers: 'The position of the provinces has been regularised'.

7 October 1908: Day of the annexation.
The annexation caused a revolt of opinion in Russia where there was a very strong popular and elite feeling against what was construed to be the sacrifice of Slav territory to the Hapsburgs (the dynasty of Franz Josef). Izvolsky had not consulted his cabinet colleagues about the deal with Aehrenthal and the outcry forced him to try to get some concessions on the Straits, but his French and British allies would not support him. The Straits question was one which aroused little public interest in Russia at this time and St Petersburg thought the annexation was a new arbitrary move on the part of Austria-Hungary to which Russia was not prepared to submit. Izvolsky then tried to get the annexation discussed by a European conference but Aehrenthal would not support him and retorted that the conference was not in their agreement. He refused to accept the conference unless it merely registered the *fait accompli*. Izvolsky finds himself in an embarrassing and dangerous position.

The Serbs were furious since they thought of the two provinces as their rightful heritage and felt that the Dual Monarchy would seize them as soon as possible. They refused to accept the annexation and ordered mobilization. The Narodna Obrana (National Defence) was founded to further the interests of Slav patriots in the annexed provinces.

Turkey was in no real position to argue but she protested to the Powers at:

1. The proclamation of independence by Bulgaria and
2. The annexation. There was a boycott of Austrian goods in Turkey and Austria suffered serious losses.

In Germany the annexation at first caused the Kaiser some anger since his Chancellor, Bülow, did not tell him completely what was brewing, and also because he feared German interests in Turkey would be harmed in favour of England, since his best ally had annexed part of Turkey's Empire and the Young Turks were turning to Britain anyway as the home of constitutional as opposed to tyrannical government. However, Bülow persuaded the Kaiser of the need to support Austria because of the Triple Alliance, while seeing that the Austrian express did not collide with the Russian. Bülow objected to the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 which in fact founded the Triple Entente and wished to humiliate Izvolsky and to prevent a strong Triple Entente between Britain, Russia and France, though this was soon to become a reality.

The controversy became more complicated and more heated with Izvolsky and Aehrenthal accusing each other of lying over the terms of the agreement. Aehrenthal's version was accepted by Germany, Izvolsky's by France and Great Britain.

Involved negotiations began between Turkey and Austria-Hungary over material compensations for Turkey in which Turkey was supported by Great Britain and Austria-Hungary was under pressure from Serbia and Russia. These

negotiations dragged on until February 1909 when Austria paid Turkey £2.5 mi
for annexing the Provinces.

29 October 1908: Izvolsky tells the Serbian envoy that Russia could not go to
over the annexation and that Serbia would be attacked by Austria if she oppose
annexation. Germany and Austria he stated, formed a solid block and the
powers only wanted peace. Serbia had no hope of getting territorial compensati

30 October 1908: Bülow writes to Aehrenthal to tell him to press his demand t
a European conference be held it should merely *confirm* any agreement bet
Austria and Turkey. He gives Aehrenthal what amounts to a blank cheque and
fails to act as mediator between Izvolsky and Aehrenthal as had been suggeste
the German Ambassador Metternich, in London, on 11 October.

Izvolsky knew that Russia could not count on France and Britain for aid in
against Austria-Hungary while Aehrenthal had the blank cheque from Gern
Russia was weak militarily and certain sections of the Austro-Hungarian Go
ment were pressing for a decisive military strike against Serbia.

31 October 1908: Aehrenthal's Ambassador in Russia, Berchtold, tells Izv
that the secret letter of 2 July and the terms of the Buchlau agreement wou
published, unless he refrains from criticizing the annexation, accepts this
fait accompli and withdraws his demand for a European conference. Izvols
worried but he refuses to give up the idea of a general conference; it wou
absurd to have a conference merely to sanction a *fait accompli!*

17 December 1908: Izvolsky continues to maintain that the annexatio
'eminently a European concern and not of a nature to be settled by a sep
understanding between Russia and Austria-Hungary'. Izvolsky wants prelim
negotiations between the Powers for possible adjustments to the *status*
Austria-Hungary merely wants the Powers to meet to give their formal conse
the *fait accompli*. But, primarily Aehrenthal wants consent of the Powers with
conference.

19 December 1908: Izvolsky, in a note to the Powers, demands a revision o
Treaty of Berlin so that Bosnia-Herzegovina would be autonomous!
immediately produces new friction between him and Aehrenthal.

24 December 1908: Aehrenthal rejects any new status for the Province
releases documents showing how Izvolsky has compromised himself, bu
including the 2 July letter.

30 December 1908: The Tsar writes to Emperor Franz Josef in protest and de
that since a confidential relationship was impossible all communications be
the two countries would be of a formal nature. He also voices apprehension
future: 'I cannot but ask myself whether this policy (Austria's) will stop short
disturbance it has already caused or whether we are on the eve of complicatio
more threatening to the general peace'.

Early 1909: Moltke and Hotzendorf (military chiefs of Germany and A
Hungary) transform the nature of the alliance. This is because of the feelin
in a war between Russia and Austria, Italy might be neutral. It was agreed
Austria were to attack Serbia and Russia were to mobilize, then Germany

order the mobilization of her whole army and this meant war against France and Russia. The men in Berlin did not realize that by this step Germany was transforming the defensive alliance created by the German Chancellor Bismarck in 1879 into an offensive alliance. Bismarck had not been prepared to give Austria-Hungary a blank cheque to cover adventures in the Balkans which might annoy Russia. But now a local war in the Balkans could become a general one involving the whole of Europe.

19 February 1909: Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, proposes a discussion among the powers to avert action by Austria against Serbia. Russia, France and Italy agree, but Germany refuses, claiming that the trouble was caused by Serbia not Austria.

20 February 1909: Aehrenthal writes to Bülow that he intends to inform Serbia that the Serbs have no complaint over the annexation; Serbia must not harbour aggressive intentions, renounce claims to compensation and cut back her armaments expenditure. If a satisfactory declaration was not forthcoming from Serbia, Austria would give an ultimatum. Aehrenthal and Franz Josef had no real desire for a war with Serbia and were convinced that Russia was ready to do anything to avoid being involved in a war.

8 March 1909: Aehrenthal instructs Berchtold (Austrian Ambassador in Russia) to tell Izvolsky to influence Serbia to stop agitating and accept the Austrian-Turkish compensation agreement or else face the publication of the 2 July letter.

10 March 1909: Serbia tells the Powers that she would not go to war with Austria, that she would maintain a good neighbour policy with Austria-Hungary, that she renounced claims for compensations and that she put her trust in the wisdom of the Powers. This did not satisfy Berlin or Vienna since there was still the possibility of a conference which they wanted to avoid and Serbia had not mentioned disarmament. While negotiations were taking place between Grey and Aehrenthal over the wording of a new Serbian declaration, which Serbia might make and which would satisfy Austria, Germany intervened. Dismayed, Izvolsky had asked Bülow to persuade Aehrenthal not to publish the 2 July letter. The price demanded by Bülow (15 March) was that Russia would restrain Serbia and give her consent to the sanction of the *fait accompli* by the Powers without a conference.

20 March 1909: Izvolsky replies to Bülow's demands and states that if Vienna sent a note to the Powers asking for their formal sanction to the *fait accompli* the Russian Government would back it, but that this did not rule out the necessity for holding a conference.

As the simulation begins in the latter part of March 1909, Izvolsky is still trying to salvage what concessions he can from his painful diplomatic encounter with Aehrenthal. Serbia is thirsting for revenge, the Russian public is incensed at the Austro-Hungarian annexation of Slav territory and the Germans and Austrians are both hoping for a resounding diplomatic victory at Russia's expense.

Turkey is more or less satisfied with the cash compensation paid to her by Austria-Hungary, which the Turkish authorities see as something of a victory. Italy is annoyed with Tittoni for backing Aehrenthal's plan and Tittoni now wishes to retreat with dignity and at least try to arrange a conference to sanction the *fait accompli* of the annexation. Britain and France will not give much help of any kind

to Russia. As far as they are concerned the annexation cannot be reversed an
wish to see the whole business smoothed over as soon as possible.

21 March 1909: Germany sends to Russia the note printed on p.153. From n
history is up to you!

IV NOTES ON ALLIANCES

By 1908, the continent of Europe had been divided into two opposing c
through the existence of two rival systems of alliances: *The Triple Allia*
Germany, Austria and Italy was counterbalanced by *The Triple Entente* of F
France and Britain. Both were initially conceived as defensive alliances, but i
the German and Austrian governments altered the nature of the Triple Allian
an offensive agreement. Under the new terms, if Austria *attacked* Serbi
Russia mobilized, Germany would also mobilize her forces. Such a move wo
course, under the terms of the Triple Entente, cause France to mobilize, an
make war almost inevitable.

The Triple Alliance

From 1882 this alliance bound Italy, Germany and Austria-Hungary toget
an agreement of mutual support. If Italy was attacked by France, Germar
Austria-Hungary would offer support. If Germany was attacked by France
Italy would offer reciprocal assistance. Further, if any of the signatories
attacked by two or more of the Great Powers the others would come to her
1909 this alliance was transformed into an offensive agreement (see above).
however, was not aware of this development, and regarded the alliance as be
a solely defensive nature.

Triple Entente

In 1907 the Triple Entente came into being through an alliance of Russia, l
and Britain, designed as a counterbalance to the forces of the central p
Britain throughout remained the weakest partner in this grouping, for traditi
her major interests lay with the colonies and not with the continent of Europ
paramount concern was to prevent a continental war, rather than offer p
support to any territorial ambitions her partners may have. Military arrange
between France and Russia were rather more firm. Their agreement was that

1. 'If France is attacked by Germany, or by Italy supported by Germany, l
will employ all the forces at her disposal to attack Germany. If Russia is attacl
Germany, or by Austria supported by Germany, France will employ all the fo
her disposal to combat Germany'.

2. 'In the case in which the forces of the Triple Alliance or of one of the P
forming part of it were mobilized, France and Russia at the first announcem
the event and without need of preliminary agreement will immediatel
simultaneously mobilize the whole of their forces and move them as n
possible to their frontiers'.

The articles laid down that the forces to be employed by Russia a
Germany would consist of 700,000 to 800,000 men and the forces employ
France would be 1.3 million.

V. NOTES ON EACH COUNTRY

Obviously you will concentrate on the information which is given about yo
particulary country. However, the information below would be generally kn
diplomatic circles and you should take account of it.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

General

Austria had acquired Hungary from the Turks as early as 1699. In the revolutions of 1848-9 Hungary tried to get away but failed and there followed a period of explicit Germanization. The situation was restless though and in 1867 the Dual Monarchy was set up as described in the Constitution. It was more Austrian than Hungarian, however, and the Hungarians were the poor if proud relations from a political point of view — ethnically they were not even relations and felt it.

Constitution

The Constitution is rather strange, Austria and Hungary are independent of each other having their own constitutions, legislative power, and executive departments for most branches of state affairs. The two countries share the same Sovereign (Emperor Franz Josef) whose sanction is needed before any Bill passed by the Parliaments can become law, and they also share departments of foreign affairs, military affairs and finance which relates to common affairs, which of course are critical for the present situation. However, the legislative power relating to common affairs, including the voting of money for common purposes, is exercised by the Parliaments of both states. The duty of examining the requirements as needed belongs to the Delegates. The Delegates of Austria-Hungary are summoned by the Emperor from the Parliaments of both Austria and Hungary. There is both an Upper and a Lower House, the Upper House being hereditary or appointed by the Emperor, the Lower House is elected by the people. The Premier is the head of the Lower House and elected by its members.

Military data

The peace-time Army comprises about 382,000 officers and men. On a war footing the Army is over one million strong. The Navy is mainly a coast defence force, though with 9 modern battleships.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £3,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports		Exports	
	Raw cotton (£9,779,875)		*Sugar* (£9,445,833)
	coal, coke and patent fuel		eggs
	wool		wood
	silk and manufactures		lignite
	machinery		cattle

FRANCE

General

France was still one of the more important powers of Europe both industrially and militarily. It was still smarting under the defeat of 1870 at the hands of Prussia but had nevertheless recovered economically remarkably quickly. Ambitious colonially, it had run into trouble with the other colonial powers and at the end of the nineteenth century a war with Britain seemed a possibility. Relations improved and with the formation of the Entente Cordiale (see separate note) the relationship with Britain was quite good. The direct interest in the Balkans was not great but anything that Austria and Germany did was looked at with great suspicion. The alliance with Russia strengthened this interest.

Constitution

The Constitution vests the legislative power in the Chamber of Deputies a the Senate, and the executive power in the President of the Republic and Ministers. The President is elected for seven years by an absolute majority of vo by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, united in a National Assembly. President promulgates the laws voted by both Chambers and ensures th execution. The President concludes treaties with foreign powers but treaties wh affect the territorial area of France or her colonies must be approved by legislature. The President cannot declare war without the previous assent of b Chambers. Every act of the President has to be countersigned by a Minister. Council of Ministers wields the executive power (with the President) and responsible for the general policy of the government. Each Minister has direction of one of the great administrative departments.

Military Data

The peace-time Army is about 525,000 (630,000 including forces in colon territories), and the war Army 1.2 million (including forces in colonial territori She has a powerful Navy, including 16 new battleships and numerous sma ships.

Main Commodities traded (1908)

Over £5,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports	Exports
Wool (£19,360,000)	*Cotton textiles* (£11,244,000)
raw silk	woollen textiles
raw cotton	silk textiles
wood	wine
hides and furs	raw silk and yarn
oil seeds	raw wool and yarn
coal, coke and patent fuel	

GERMANY

General

Still a relatively new state based originally on Prussia, which had swept under wing the host of tiny states which had earlier comprised the territory. Germany one of the most powerful and effective military machines in Europe. She was a li late in the colonial race but was trying to make up for lost time. German he industry was very advanced and provided the basis for the growing naval challe to Britain.

Constitution

The supreme direction of the military and political affairs of the Empire is ves in the Kaiser, who can declare war, if defensive, and make peace, as well as en into treaties with other nations and appoint and receive Ambassadors. When wa not merely defensive the Kaiser must have the consent of the Bundesrat and Reichstag. The Bundesrat represents the individual states of Germany and Reichstag the nation as a whole. The laws of the Empire, passed by the Bunde and the Reichstag, must be promulgated by the Emperor in order to take eff The promulgation, like all other official acts of the Emperor requires the cou signature of the Chancellor of the Empire.

The Ministers are the imperial authorities, they do not form a Ministry or Cabinet, but act independently of each other, under the general supervision of the Chancellor. Acting under the direction of the Chancellor of the Empire, the Bundesrat represents also a supreme administrative and consultative board.

All the members of the Bundesrat have the right to be present at the deliberations of the Reichstag.

Military Data
The peace-time Army is about 621,000 officers and men and the war-time Army is very large and well trained — about 2.5 million. The German Navy is growing rapidly in size and strength. She has 20 modern battleships, the latest being extremely well-armed and fast.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £30,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports
- *Agricultural and animal products etc.* (£249,816,000)
- raw minerals, mineral oil

Exports
- *Textile substances, ornamental feathers etc.* (£60,188,150)
- base metals and wares thereof
- machines, electro-technical work, boats
- agricultural and animal products, etc.

GREAT BRITAIN

General
Had been, and still seemed to think it was, the leading industrial power in the world. However, the Germans had, by the beginning of the century, become a serious industrial rival. Britain had the largest Empire which at that time seemed very stable and the British had little doubt of their supremacy. However, anything which affected the possibility of an alteration in the balance of power in Europe was looked on with considerable concern and the more sophisticated of the politicians (of whom there were many) were not disposed to under-rate the serious threats which could face Britain in Europe.

Constitution
The Supreme legislative power of the British Empire is vested in Parliament. The executive government of Great Britain and Ireland is vested nominally in the Crown, but in practice power lies with the Cabinet, whose existence is dependent on the possession of a majority in the House of Commons. In 1909 the Government was Liberal and reformist with a large majority. The Crown (Edward VII) was much more influential than it is today but power was nevertheless firmly in the Commons though the House of Lords (solidly Conservative) could do more in practice than today.

Military Data
The peace-time Army at home comprises about 130,000 officers and men, and the peace-time Army overseas is about 117,000 strong. The war-time Army is about 850,000. The British Navy is the most powerful in the world. There are 41 modern

battleships, among them the first of the Dreadnoughts — an extremely pow
well-armed and fast warship.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £30,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Exports
- *Cotton yarns and textiles* (£95,055,513)
- coal, coke and patent fuel
- iron and steel and manufactures
- machinery

Imports
- *Grain and flour* (£72,733,334)
- meat
- other food and drink
- raw cotton
- wool

ITALY

General
Italy had been a collection of states frequently under the control of va
European powers for a long time. Unification took place under the leaders
Piedmont in the north and was not really completed until the acquisition of Ro
1870. The concept of Italy as a unity was therefore still new in Europe.

Constitution
The King has the final executive power, but this is exercised for him by respo
Ministers who form a Council. Legislative authority is exercised by the Kin
Parliament the latter consisting of two Chambers. The King has power to di
the lower house at any time but is bound to order new elections.

Military Data
The peace-time Army comprises about 288,000 officers and men. The wa
Army is nominally about 2 million, but this over-emphasizes the size of the fig
strength of the force. The Italian Navy is not large, but there are 7 modern b
ships and various smaller but powerful boats.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £4,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports
- *Raw cotton* (£11,412, 420)
- coal, coke and patent fuel
- boilers and machinery
- wheat
- wrought iron and steel
- timber

Exports
- *Raw silk* (£19,957,540)

RUSSIA

General

Russia was of all the countries the most disorganized. The abortive 1905 revolution had resulted in some reforms but it was still a very autocratic state and the anathema of the more liberal elements in Europe who, in Britain and France in particular, did not like the association they had with her. Industry was developing nonetheless and the beginnings of an industrial state were becoming visible. Russia had considerable imperial ambitions. Russia proper is only a part of what is more loosely called Russia and in Central Asia and the Far East the Russians had made considerable conquests—the British had been intermittently concerned over a possible threat to India. In the Balkans there was perpetual Russian interest under the guise of Pan-Slavism, that is, the notion that the Slavs were one nation and should be in one state. Many of the Slavs in Eastern Europe were less keen on the idea, however, and only small groups were particularly interested in replacing Turkish domination with Russian. St Petersburg (later Leningrad) was the capital at this time, though Moscow was an important town and had from time to time been capital in its turn. The Russians were permanently interested in the Dardanelles which were controlled by Turkey.

Constitution

The Government of Russia is a constitutional hereditary monarchy but, in fact, the whole legislative, executive and judicial power is united in the Tsar whose will alone is law and the monarch continues to bear the title of Autocrat. Following the revolution of 1905, a Duma was elected, and there is also a Council of the Empire half of whom are appointed by the Tsar and half are elected. Before a measure can be submitted for the Imperial sanction it must be approved by the Council and Duma who share legislative power equally. However, the actual administration is still entrusted to great boards or Councils possessing separate functions representing justice, religion and politics. One of these is the Council of Ministers the President of which is Stolypin. This is the most important board of government.

Military Data

The peace-time Army is about 1.2 million and the war-time Army about 1.8 million. Although the Russian forces are supposed to be organized on the German model of 1874 the organization has never been very efficient. In fact, together with the vast extent of the Russian Empire, its vulnerable western frontier and the poor railway communications it is impossible for Russia to bring the whole weight of her military power to bear in any one direction. Under favourable circumstances 1.2 million might perhaps be assembled in a single theatre. The Russian Navy comprises 6 modern battleships and various smaller boats, but they had been humiliated by the Japanese in 1905 which left bitter memories and lack of self-confidence.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £10,000,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports
- *Textiles* (£22,626,200)
- articles of food and animals
- ores, metal and metal goods

Exports
- *Corn, flour, buckwheat, etc.* (£37,562,300)
- timber and wooden goods
- raw and half manufactured goods

SERBIA

General

The Serbs had won their independence from Turkey in 1804 and perpet struggled to maintain it. They were continually and understandably worried a the Austrians resulting in some agitation and they also harboured some territ ambitions. At the time of the crisis the pro-Russian Radical Party was in power.

Constitution

The executive power is vested in the King, assisted by a Council of Ministers, are individually and collectively responsible to the nation. Legislative authori exercised by the King in conjunction with the National Assembly, which is el by the people.

Military data

The peace-time Army is 36,000; war-time 175,000. The state possesses onl steamer which is used for military purposes.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £100,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports
- *Cotton tissues* (£290,020)
- cotton yarn

Exports
- *Wheat* (£460,710)
- prunes
- maize
- preserved plums
- barley
- meat
- raw hides
- copper

TURKEY

General

In the late seventeenth century the Turks were very powerful in the Balkan had nearly captured Vienna. However, the Turkish Empire had weakene though the nominal masters of much of the Balkans they kept such control as did by the cruel but not always successful suppression of rebellions in an ethn very diverse region. By the early twentieth century the Ottoman Empire wa sorry state with an increasingly dissatisfied and partly westernized bourge who were beginning to get very annoyed by the backwardness, corruption a efficiency of the state, resulting in what is known as the 'Young Turk' r Though aimed at making a more efficient as well as a better Turkey the imm result was a great degree of disorganization and uncertainty.

Constitution

The will of the Sultan is absolute in so far as it is not in opposition to the acc truths of Islam as laid down in the sacred book of the prophet. The legislativ executive authority is exercised, under the supreme direction of the Sultan, b high dignitaries, one of whom is head of the temporal government and sentative of the Sultan (The Grand Visier) and the other the head of the Cl

Both are appointed by the Sultan. The Grand Visier is assisted by the Privy Council.

Military Data
The peace-time Army is about 375,000 and another 400,000 can be mobilized in an emergency. The Navy is weak; there are 5 old battleships, 2 modern cruisers and a small number of old and not terribly effective smaller boats.

Main commodities traded (1908)

Over £700,000 worth of each commodity was traded.

Imports
- *Sugar* (£2,322,790)
- rice
- flour
- petroleum
- linen
- coffee
- woollen stuffs

Exports
- *Silkworm cocoons* (£995,393)
- raw silk
- coffee
- figs
- mohair

VI ADDITIONAL NOTES

Population

Austria-Hungary (1908)	45,405,267
(Bosnia and Herzegovina)	(1,898,044)
France (1906)	39,252,245
Germany (1909)	64,925,993
Great Britain (1908)	44,538,718
Italy (1909)	34,270,000
Russia (1908)	155,433,300
Serbia (1905)	2,688,025
Turkey (1907)	24,813,700

Revenue and Expenditure

	Revenue	*Expenditure*
France	£158,656,200	£160,822,000
Germany	£122,946,645	£134,137,300
Great Britain	£156,537,690	£151,812,094
Italy	£103,387,880	£100,112,640
Russia	£261,866,786	£265,668,280
Serbia	£3,832,930	£3,830,490

Austria-Hungary common finance
There is an agreement between the states that the net proceeds of the co[illegible] customs shall be applied to the common expenditure, and that Hungary sha[illegible] 36.4 per cent as its quota and Austria 63.6 per cent.

In 1908 the position was:

Net expenditure £17,071,292
Revenue from Customs £5,708,042
Proportional contributions of both parts of the monarchy to cover expenditure, Austria £7,229,125; Hungary £4,136,208.

Turkey
The Turkish Government publishes neither financial accounts nor estima[illegible] revenue and expenditure.

Turkey is, however, heavily in debt. Of debts which are not loans, important is the balance of the Russian war indemnity, amounting to £22,061,[illegible] 1898. An instalment of £315,000 towards the payment of this debt falls annuall[illegible]

There is a Council which specifically administers the paying off of det[illegible] means of the excise duties, the Bulgarian, Eastern Rumelian and Cyprus tr[illegible] and from the tax on Persian tobacco. The revenue of debt administration in 1[illegible] was £3,772,520. The total debt in the middle of 1908 was £94,274,100.

Imports and Exports in 1908

Total imports and exports for each country

	Imports	*Exports*
Austria-Hungary	£99,916,000	£93,966,000
France	£243,632,000	£202,028,000
Germany	£403,854,650	£324,072,650
Great Britain	£592,953,487	£377,103,824
Italy	£116,530,980	£69,170,430
Russia	£99,830,000	£91,270,000
Serbia	£3,025,420	£3,019,960
Turkey	£23,145,300	£13,577,400

The amount of imports and exports between the countries are shown in the table below.

The figures in millions of pounds sterling are to the nearest £100,000.

Imports

Exports	Austria-Hungary	France	Germany	Great Britain	Italy	Russia	Serbia	Turkey
Austria-Hungary		2.7	37.6	1.3	12.0	2.5	1.3	3.7
France	3.4		21.0	48.1	11.1	3.5	0.1	3.0
Germany	41.4	24.3		38.0	20.8*	32.0	0.9	1.7
Great Britain	9.0	31.7	34.8		20.0	12.1	0.4	8.0
Italy	4.9	6.6	11.8	3.4		1.3	0.1	2.2
Russia	5.3	9.6	47.2	28.2	5.1		—	2.2
Serbia	0.6	0.1	0.6	—	0.1	—		0.5
Turkey	1.7	3.3	2.4	5.1	0.9	0.7	0.1	

A dash means that the value of the goods traded is less than £50,000.
*For example, Italy imports £20.8 million worth of goods from Germany. Equally, of course, Germany exports £20.8 million worth of goods to Italy.

Navies

	modern battleships	old battleships	armoured cruiser	protected cruiser	ordinary cruiser	torpedo gunboats	destroyers	torpedo boats	submarines
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY	9	3	3	0	5	4	9	18	0
FRANCE	16	5	12	12	16	14	61	311	49
GERMANY	20	4	9	31	0	0	81	47	2
GREAT BRITAIN	41	13	32	52	0	24	149	98	57
ITALY	7	6	8	14	0	13	13	73	6
RUSSIA	6	3	4	8	0	7	66	50	22
TURKEY	0	5	0	0	2	4	5	38**	0

*modern **15 modern

In addition

SERBIA—1 steamer
TURKEY—a variety of small gunboats

16

Distances Between Capitals

These are the approximate distances in miles, as the crow flies.

V-Vienna	(Austria)
Bu-Budapest	(Hungary)
P-Paris	(France)
Ber-Berlin	(Germany)
L-London	(Great Britain)
R-Rome	(Italy)
SP-St Petersburg	(Russia)
Bel-Belgrade	(Serbia)
C-Constantinople	(Turkey)

	V	Bu	P	Ber	L	R	SP	Bel
V								
Bu	140							
P	670	810						
Ber	360	460	580					
L	800	940	220	600				
R	490	520	710	780	920			
SP	1030	1000	1410	830	1360	1520		
Bel	320	210	940	670	1100	460	1180	
C	800	680	1440	1110	1610	890	1360	500

VII PRINCIPAL ROLES IN BOSNIAN CRISIS SIMULATION FROM 21 MARCH 1909 ONWARDS

			Ministers of:			
Nation	Head of State	Head of Govt.	Foreign affairs	War	Interior	Finance
Austria-Hungary	Emperor Franz Josef I	Bienerth-Schmerling/ Wekerle	Aehrenthal	Schönaich	Härdtl/ Andrassy	Burian
France	Fallières	Clemenceau	Pichon	Picquart	Clemenceau	Caillaux
Germany	Kaiser Wilhelm II	Bülow	Schön	Rothmaler	Bethmann-Hollweg	Sydow
Great Britain	King Edward VII	Asquith	Grey	Haldane	Gladstone	Lloyd George
Italy	King Vittorio Emmanuele III	Giolitti	Tittoni	Casana	Giolitti	Lacava
Russia	Tsar Nikolai II	Stolypin	Izvolsky	Rodiger	Stolypin	Kokovtsoff
Serbia	King Peter I	Novakovich	Milanovich	Zhivkovich	Protich	Protich
Turkey	Sultan Abdul Hamid II	Hilmi	Rifaat	Riza	Hilmi	Rifaat

VIII INDIVIDUAL ROLE BRIEFS

You have been given the names of some of the main participants for interest's sake. Do not feel that you have to try to be that particular person, be *yourself* in that position.

The dates of appointment, however, *should* be noted. The length of time you have been in office indicates your level of experience in that position.

Your roles as decision-makers necessitate your great involvement in the crisis.

The Ministers of Foreign Affairs, War, the Interior and Finance should refer to the *Responsibilities of the Chief Ministers* section for an amplification of their roles.

Refer to the *Constitutions* in the country for details of the power structure.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Head of State: Emperor Franz Josef I
You acceded to the throne in 1948. You are the hereditary ruler. You have a great deal of influence, but not ultimate power.

Head of Government (*Austria*): Baron Richard von Bienerth-Schmerling.
You were elected Premier on 15 November 1908, i.e. close to the crisis. You are important because of Austro-Hungarian joint foreign policy.

Head of Government (*Hungary*) : Dr Sandor Wekerle.
You were elected in 1906. You are parallel to, but somewhat weaker in terms of influence, than your Austrian counterpart.

Ministers:
You are all Ministers for Austria-Hungary as a whole (except the Ministers of the Interior, who are each responsible for one of the two countries):

Foreign Affairs: Baron Alois von Aehrenthal (appointed 1906).
A critical figure in the whole affair. Clever and willing to take risks.

War: General Baron von Schönaich (appointed 1905).
Directly responsible for the Navy as well as general military matters.

Interior: Baron Guido von Härdtle (Austria: appointed 15 November 1908), Count Gyula Andrassy (Hungary: appointed 1906).
You work closely together—not surprisingly given the internal strains — and are highly influential on matters of joint policy.

Finance: Baron Stefan von Burian (appointed 1903).
The approval of both Parliaments had to be given for common expenditure.

Though the rest of the departments of governments were separate we are treating Austria and Hungary as a single entity in the exercise, for in foreign affairs there was no distinction.

FRANCE

Head of State: Armand Fallières
You were elected President of the Republic in 1906.

Head of Government: Georges Clemenceau.
You were appointed Premier in 1906. You preside over the Council of Ministers and you have also retained the post of Minister of the Interior.

17

Ministers:
You are all members of the Council of Ministers. You were all appointed in 1

Foreign Affairs: Stephen Pichon.
War: General Georges Picquart.
Finance: Joseph Caillaux.

GERMANY

Foreign Affairs: Wilhelm von Schön (appointed 1907)
War: General Karl von Einem von Rothmaler (appointed 1903).
Interior: Dr Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg (appointed 1907).
Finance: Reinhold von Sydow (appointed 20 February 1908).

GREAT BRITAIN

Head of State: King Edward VII.
You acceded to the throne in 1901. You are the hereditary ruler.

Head of Government: Herbert Henry Asquith.
You were appointed Prime Minister on 7 April 1908.

Ministers:
You are all members of the Cabinet:

Foreign Affairs: Sir Edward Grey (appointed 1905).
War: Richard Burdon Haldane (appointed 1905).
Interior: Herbert John Gladstone (appointed Home Secretary 1905).
Finance: David Lloyd George (appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer 1
1908).

ITALY

Head of State: King Vittorio Emmanuele III.
You acceded to the throne in 1900. You are the hereditary ruler.

Head of Government: Giovanni Giolitti.
You were appointed in 1906. You are President of the Council of Ministe
Minster of the Interior).

Ministers:
You are all members of the Council of Ministers.

Foreign Affairs: Tommaso Tittoni (appointed 1906).

War: Severino Casana (appointed 2 January 1908).

Finance: Pietro Lacava (appointed 1907).

RUSSIA

Head of State: Tsar Nikolai II.
You acceded to the throne in 1894. You are the hereditary ruler.

Head of Government: Piotr Arkadeivich Stolypin.
You were appointed in 1906. You are president of the Council of Ministe
Minister of the Interior).

President of Duma: N. A. Chomyakov.

Ministers:
You are all members of the Council of Ministers.

Foreign Affairs: Aleksander Patrovich Izvolsky (appointed 1906).

War: General Aleksander Feodorovich Rodiger (appointed 1905).

Finance: Vladimir Nikolaievich Kokovtsoff (appointed 1906)
The financial situation is serious — Russia is very heavily in debt.

SERBIA

Head of State: King Peter I.
You acceded to the throne in 1903, after a revolution and the murder of King Alexander of the Obrenovitch dynasty. You are of the House of Karageorgevich which has ruled in the past.

Head of Government: Stojan Novakovich.
You were appointed on 22 February 1909. You are President of the Council of Ministers.

Ministers:
You are members of the Council of Ministers:

Foreign Affairs: Milovan Milovanovich (appointed 6 July 1908).

War: General Mikhail Zhivkovich (appointed 5 January 1909).

Interior and Finance: Stojan Protich (appointed 22 February 1909).

TURKEY

Head of State: Sultan Abdul Hamid II.
You acceded to the throne in 1876. You are the hereditary ruler.

Head of Government: Hussein Hilmi Pasha.
You were appointed Grand Visier on the 14 February 1909. You retained the post of Minister of the Interior.

Ministers:
You are members of the Privy Council.

Foreign Affairs and Finance: Rifaat Pasha (appointed in February 1909).
The financial situation is serious — Turkey is very heavily in debt.

War: Ali Riza Pasha (appointed 14 February 1909).
NB Pasha is the title of the principal civil functionaries.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CHIEF MINISTERS OF ALL THE COUNTRIES

Foreign Affairs:
You are responsible for your country's international policy and thus you have a major responsibility for its role in the crisis. You work in close co-operation with your permanent secretary.

War:
You are responsible for all matters concerning war and defence.

Interior:
You are responsible for the internal affairs of your country, but you are also highly influential in matters of international policy due to your position in the chief body of Ministers.

Finance:
You are responsible for the nation's finances, and must be prudent in their allocation.

Minister of Trade:
You are a member of the chief body of Ministers. You are responsible for national trade.

Minister of the Navy:
You are a member of the chief body of Ministers.

Minister of the Colonies:
You are a member of the chief body of Ministers. Your position and your expe in international relations necessitates your active participation in your cou decision concerning the crisis, particularly those with wide-range consequenc

Chief of the General Staff:
You are responsible for the Army, being, however, answerable to the Minister. (Austria-Hungary: Hotzendorf; Germany: Moltke).

Second-in-Command to the Minster of Foreign Affairs (Civil Servants):
You are the permanent secretary of the Foreign Office. This is a most influ post and you work closely with the Minister of Foreign Affairs. You are al Civil Servant responsible for the actual communications sent and received the crisis.

Heads of the National Desks at the Foreign Office:
You are Head of the *X* Desk (i.e. Department) at the Foreign Office. You a senior official responsible for your country's diplomatic relationship with have a good deal of influence. *X* represents one of the countries involved crisis.

IX THE FIRST MESSAGE OF THE EXERCISE

The German counter-reply to Russia is despatched on 21 March 1909. It i Bülow to Izvolsky, via Count Pourtalès, the German ambassador in St Peter It is a most important document and constitutes the message which initiat simulation exercise.
This is the full text:

I[Bülow] request your Excellency [Pourtalès] to tell M. Izvolsky that we lear satisfaction that he recognizes the friendly spirit of our proposal and a willing to fall in with it.

You will then inform M. Izvolsky that we are ready to propose to the A Hungarian government that it should ask the Powers, on the basis of the A Turkish agreement already communicated to them, to consent to the elimina Article 25 of the Treaty of Berlin. But before we make such a proposal to A Hungary, **we must know definitely that Russia will answer the Austrian note affirmative and declare, without any reservation, her formal agreement abolition of Article 25. Your Excellency will therefore say to M. Izvolsky in a s manner that we expect a precise answer — yes or no; we shall have to consid evasive, conditional or unclear answer as a refusal. We would then draw ba let matters take their course; the responsibility for all subsequent events then fall exclusively on M. Izvolsky,** after we have made a final sincere ef help M. Izvolsky clarify the situation in a manner acceptable to him.

If you should find M. Izvolsky receptive, you can allow it to be seen that support him on a proposal emanating from him for adjusting formally the question of the recognition of Bulgaria.

You will not yourself advert to the complaints raised by M. Izvolsky against the Austrian policy towards Serbia. If this is done by the minister, I request you to remind him that even on the Russian side the Serbian reply has been recognized as unsatisfactory and that he himself has repudiated responsibility for it. In that connection recall to him the unsuitable language of the Serbian government.

In any case say to M. Izvolsky that in face of the increasingly provocative attitude of the Serbs matters press for a decision and that we therefore expect an immediate clear answer to our question.

The question of a conference has nothing to do with our démarche; the decision whether it is necessary or useful will have to be reserved, now as before, to an exchange of views among the Powers. We should have to regard dragging it into the specific question now under discussion as an attempt at observation and consequently as a refusal of our proposal.

And from now on it's up to you!

ICONS

This simulation was designed by Jon Wilkenfeld and Dick Brecht (see last paragraph). The description below is taken from

Crookall, David (1986). CALLS: Computer-assisted language learning simulation. In: Cameron, K. C. et al. (eds.). Computers and modern language studies. Chichester, Ellis Horwood, pp.113-121.

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3 ICONS

3.1 Overview

ICONS (International COmmunications and Negotiations Simulation), employs a powerful methodology: some twenty university teams round the world participate in month-long international relations simulations. Each team represents a different nation in the scenario; a certain number represent their own country; at the moment they are to be found in: Argentina, Canada, England, France, Israel, Japan, and USA. The majority of the country-teams are currently located in the USA, but more non-US teams will be joining in as the simulation develops.

The communication process involves each team sending its messages in the language of the nation it represents, and therefore receiving messages in foreign languages. Thus, ICONS provides a natural laboratory both for the development of foreign languages as a vital instrument of communication, and for the exploration of culturally defined (often divisive) issues. Teams representing their own country provide a culturally authentic perspective, while those representing other than their own country are forced to see the world in a new cultural light.

Communications between these country-teams are assured by a variety of computer technologies, which allow the simulation to run in real time. Local microcomputers (equipped with word processors, telecommunications software and modems) are linked via international telecommunications data networks (national packet switching systems connected by satellite) into a central mainframe (situated at the University of Maryland and equipped with sophisticated and easy-to-use software).

Simulation sessions last about one month; at the moment there are two sessions a year: one in the Spring, and one in the Autumn. A scenario, which launches the game, outlines the state of the world, inspired by present-day facts, but includes new data. For instance, in the May 1985 scenario, situated in the simulated October of 1985, Iraq had mined the Straits of Hormuz. Throughout the simulation, an electronic newspaper, "The Diplomat", projects new data into the simulation, and also plays its role as an ordinary newspaper: interviews, commentary, etc.

ICONS was developed by Jon Wilkenfeld and Dick Brecht at the University of Maryland [8] and is based on POLIS, pioneered by Bob Noel at the University of California at Santa Barbara [9]. European coordination for ICONS exercises is provided by David Crookall at the University of Toulon.

GERA

This simulation may be found in

Crookall, D. (1984). 'The use of non-ELT simulations'. English language teaching journal 38 (4), 262-273.

Airport 2000
In: Goodale, Malcolm (1987). Meetings. Hove, Language Teaching Publications, pp. 31-39.

Document 1

Airports – the social costs

David Hamilton

The problems of congestion would be eased if there were more airports, or greater space for existing airports. The size and weight of conventional airliners now in service, and the noise of their engines, forces airports to become larger. New ones have to seek sites further away from the cities they are meant to serve. Already someone flying between, say, central London and central Paris spends less than a quarter of the average total time of about five hours actually in the air. The rest is taken up passing through the airport formalities and travelling between airport and city centre. A large jet airliner weighing around 145,150 kg (320,000lb) on takeoff needs about 2700 m (9000ft) of runway to work up to its take-off speed of about 220-330 km per hour (145-225mph). At international airports the standard length of the main runway is 3050 m or so (10,000 ft). It is no easy thing to find the required land in a place where the residents will not object too volubly. The presence of the airport exacts a substantial penalty on the social and economic balance of its neighbourhood.

Until recently airlines were free to travel where and how they liked. Now they are starting to have to bear the costs of 'sociological factors', including aircraft noise, which involves airlines in costs for the insulation of buildings as well as the settlement of legal actions over noise; this is aggravated by the booms caused by supersonic aircraft. Although there are generally noise regulations in force at airports, and manufacturers are aiming to make new generations of airliners much quieter from the outset, the efficacy of the procedure is in doubt so far as the residents around airports are concerned: the planes themselves may be less noisy, but there will be more of them as air traffic increases. And in any case it will not mitigate the effect of the sonic boom. Though a great deal of effort is going into methods of reducing boom intensity, nothing has yet appeared that looks practicable. The other major sociological factor is the need to ease pollution from jet engines by introducing smoke-reduction and other devices.

All these modifications to the aircraft to make them less of a social nuisance have to be paid for. It is up to society to say how the 'social costs' are allocated between the manufacturers, the airlines and the public.

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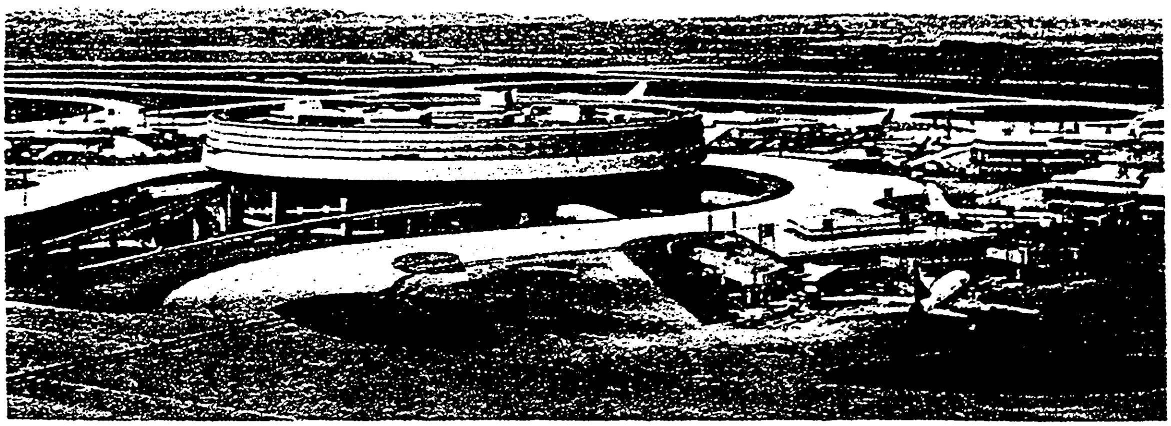
Where to put a new airport

Spencer Thomas



Charles de Gaulle Airport, Paris.

The photograph shows one of the newest and most modern airports in the world. Charles de Gaulle airport 24km. north of Paris was opened in 1974. The striking architectural style of the main building has been likened to a drum on stilts, a ripe Camembert cheese and a wedding cake. Inside it is a machine for moving the passengers effortlessly to the aircraft. The traveller drives up to a kiosk, unloads the baggage onto a conveyor, collects a boarding pass, parks the car in one of 4000 spaces and then steps on a conveyor which carries passengers through a giant tube to within a few paces of the aircraft.

It is built on 3000 hectares but only 25 people had to be relocated. Some 500 in surrounding villages may have to move from the area if noise levels become intolerable. The French were fortunate to have such a large space so close to the capital to complement the other two airports, Orly and Le Bourget. The new airport is necessary to meet the growing demand for air transport in Paris which is expected to rise to 60 million passengers by 1985.

From *The Developed World*

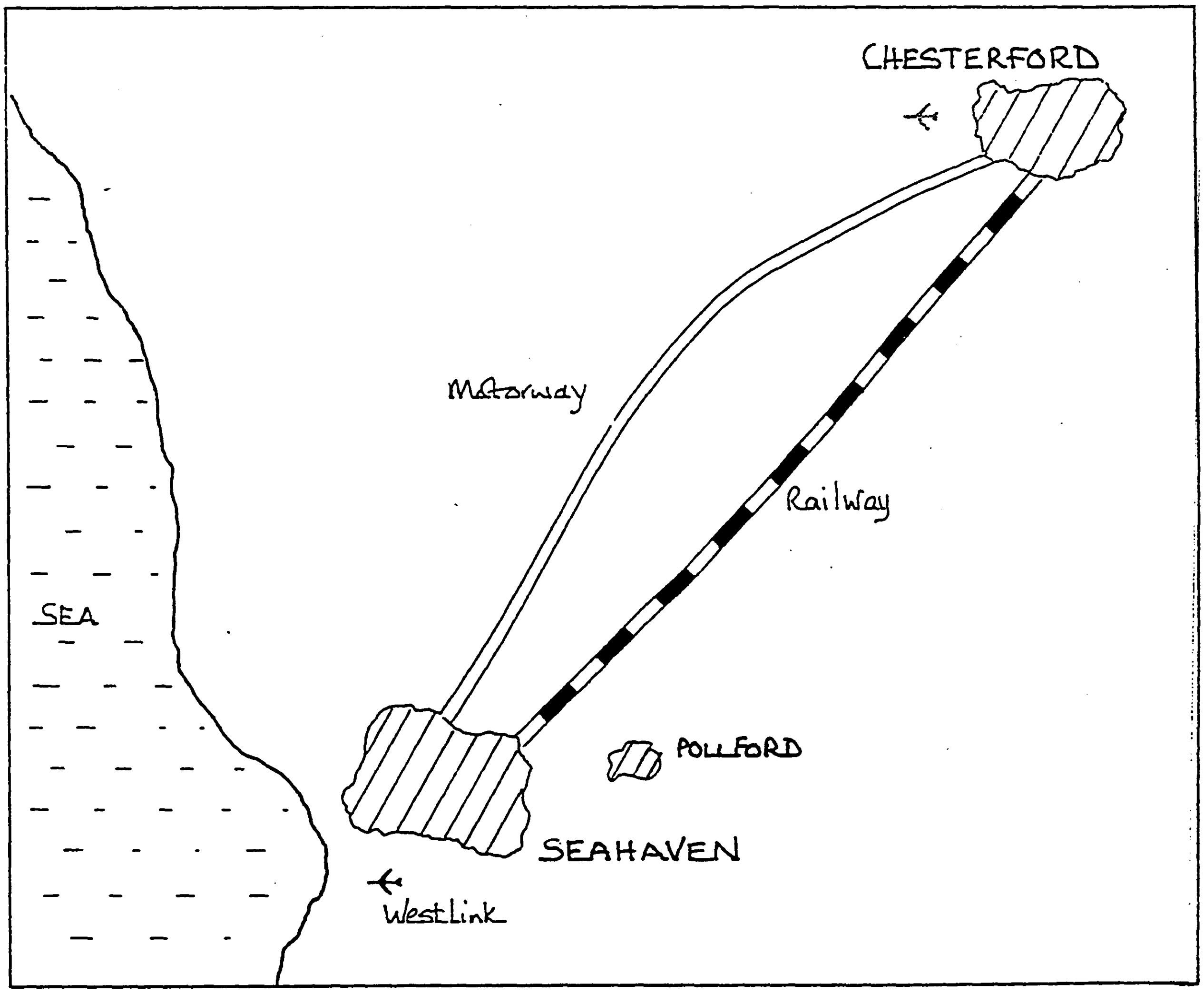
Discussion

In groups of 3 or 4 make a list of possible problems that may arise in any project concerned with a choice of site for a new airport. Use both the information contained in the background reading and your own knowledge. When you have finished you list, rank the problems in order of importance.

POSSIBLE PROBLEMS	ORDER

Owing to the projected increase in the number of passengers using Arcadia's airports and the present congestion of the capital's airport, Westlink, an investigation of possible solutions was requested by the government. A summary of this report is given below. The report, which was prepared by an impartial and independent body, dismissed the proposal to develop Chesterford Airport as unrealistic. Chesterford is Arcadia's second largest city.

In reply the Regional Development Board, which consists of members of parliament and representatives of Chesterford's business community, has published its own report on airport policy. Their views have a large following in parliament as it is felt that the north of Arcadia has too often been disadvantaged as far as development is concerned. Consequently, a meeting has been arranged to discuss the recommendations made in the two reports.



DISTANCES

Seahaven to Chesterford — 300kms
Seahaven to Westlink — 20kms
Seahaven to Pollford — 55kms

The number of people seeking to use Seahaven's airport facilities is projected to rise from 15 million next year to 29 million by the end of the century; and for the regional airport at Chesterford the figure will rise from 5 million to 9 million. This approaches 100 per cent in both cases. This report was commissioned to determine Arcadia's airport policy for the future. The following proposals were considered:

- The expansion of Westlink
- The construction of a new airport at Pollford
- The expansion of Chesterford Airport

The Expansion of Westlink

This is inevitable as no other short-term solution exists. At the moment Westlink handles 12 million passengers which means it is already being used to full capacity with planes landing or taking off every two minutes during peak times. There are thousands of passengers jamming the terminals and the trains and roads that serve the airport.

A new terminal would expand Westlink's capacity to 20 million within 10 years. This would also involve the provision of better road and rail links including the extension of the Underground system. The aircraft noise around Westlink (300,000 people affected) is a problem but there will be substantial improvements in the future.

The Construction of a New Airport at Pollford

The envisaged large-scale airport at Pollford is aimed at establishing a balanced airports system for Arcadia well into the 21st century. Only Pollford can provide the additional capacity to meet demand in the next decade. The necessary planning permission to enable Pollford Airport to be built to carry a capacity of 5 million passengers per annum should be granted as expeditiously as possible. The ultimate capacity should not exceed 10 million.

The number of people likely to be affected by the noise at Pollford would be small (11,000 people); there are, therefore, no grounds for the noise consideration to prevent the construction of Pollford. There is little difference between 5 million passengers a year and 10 million as far as noise is concerned.

However, there should be a government undertaking that there will be no further expansion of Pollford above the 10 million mark. To develop the airport further would lead to an unprecedented and wholly unacceptable major environmental and visual disaster.

The economy around Pollford would benefit from the airport. At first an additional 3,500 houses will be needed rising to, at the most, 6,000. The loss of agricultural land should not stand in the way of Pollford's construction.

The Expansion of Chesterford Airport

Chesterford is currently being expanded to cope with 9 million passengers by the end of the century. There is no evidence that the growing congestion in the south-west could be relieved by the further development of Chesterford Airport. The overriding fact is that 80% of the passengers who use Westlink are beginning or ending their journeys in Seahaven or the south-west. However congested Westlink is, to these passengers, it is preferable to flying into or from the regional airport at Chesterford. The only solution to the problem of congestion in the south-west lies in the south-west itself.

Conclusion

The necessary additional capacity cannot be provided other than at Westlink or Pollford, or both. The complementary capacity contributions to be made by development at Westlink and construction at Pollford will provide a flexible and well-balanced capability in the country's airports system well into the 21st century.

The Regional Development Board's Report on Airport Policy

Chesterford Airport is big and successful. Last year 5 million people used it. Its single runway can take jumbo jets and could easily handle up to 20 million passengers a year. Expansion at Chesterford would be a boost to the economy and would relieve to a large extent the economic problems of the north-east of the country.

The expansion of Chesterford would create 15,000 jobs. It would help to create hi-tech industries and would be of enormous benefit to the business community. The airport currently employs 6,000 and generates an estimated 20,000 more jobs in related firms. The airport is one of the few growth areas in a region where unemployment stands at around 15% against a national average of 13.4%, an average of 9.95% in the south-west, and an average of only 8% in the Pollford area.

The cost of increasing the number of passengers at Chesterford by 15 million a year could be achieved at a third of the cost of building Pollford and extending Westlink. The money should be spent on improving the north-east's infrastructure rather than in the rural south-west on a plan that most of the locals oppose on environmental grounds. The Westlink area residents resent the threat of even more air traffic and the Pollford residents are appalled at the prospect of the pollution of their countryside.

We are concerned to achieve a balanced economic growth throughout the country; we feel that a national airports policy is needed, not just one for the south-west.

Guidelines for Representatives

Government Representatives

As far as you are concerned, the report's recommendations are conclusive. Any further development at Chesterford would be unlikely to solve the problem of congestion in the south-west. You do, however, have sympathy for the economic problems of the north. The Regional Development Board also has a lot of support in parliament and you may have to make concessions in order to ensure that the government is not defeated in parliament. Study the two reports and the map and fill in the table provided.

Regional Development Board Representatives

For you the government report is another example of the south-west being favoured over the north. You see the development of Chesterford Airport as the key to the economic recovery of the north. You believe that you may be able to find enough support to block the government in parliament if they ignore your arguments. Study both reports and the map and then fill in the table provided.

Your View

SUPPORTING ARGUMENTS	EVIDENCE

ANTICIPATED OBJECTIONS

COUNTER-ARGUMENTS	EVIDENCE

POSSIBLE COMPROMISES

Example of preparatory material

In: Goodale, Malcolm (1987). The language of meetings. Hove, Language Teaching Publications, pp. 59-64.

6 Clarifying

Language Awareness

How do you:

1. Check what someone has said?

____

Is your phrase too direct?

2. Ask someone to repeat what they've said?

____

Is your phrase acceptable in all situations?

3. Tell someone they haven't understood you?

____

Is your phrase diplomatic enough?

4. Say you're going to repeat yourself in different words?

____

Asking for Confirmation

[1]Would I be [2]correct in saying that . . . ?

If I've understood you correctly, you're saying that . . . ?

[1]Correct me if I'm wrong, but . . .

[1]Am I [2]correct in assuming that . . . ?

When you say . . ., do you mean that . . . ?

Are you saying that . . . ?

[3]Basically, what you're saying is . . .

One way of avoiding misunderstandings is by checking what someone has said. It is very difficult to react in an appropriate way if you are not clear about what has been said. It is also important in that, by rephrasing their position, you show that you have not only listened to them, but also that you attach importance to what they have said.

1. This invites a correction and therefore shows your openness.
2. ▷ right.
3. Can show impatience, especially if the previous speaker was not very clear.

Asking for a Repetition

I'm afraid I'm not [1]quite clear what you mean by that.

I'm sorry, I didn't [1]quite [2]follow what you said about . . .

I'm afraid I don't understand what you mean.

I'm afraid I didn't [1]quite [3]get your last point. Could you go over it again please?

Helps in three ways:

a. if you don't understand someone who is not clear, but it is impolite to say so.
b. if you don't understand because of your or the speaker's limitations in English — a repetition gives you another chance to understand.
c. if you **have** understood, but need time to think.

1. Completely. Suggests you've understood nearly everything when, in fact, you may have understood very little.
2. ▷ catch.
   ▷ understand.
   ▷ get.
3. ▷ understand.
   ▷ catch.

Correcting Misunderstandings

I'm afraid there seems to be been a [1]slight misunderstanding.

[2]We seem to be talking at cross purposes.

I think you've misunderstood me.

That isn't quite what I meant.

[3]With respect, that is not what I said.

All of these phrases would normally be followed by a phrase from re-phrasing below.

1. Suggests there has not been a "complete" misunderstanding (see page 12).
   ▷ some.
2. This is used when someone has misunderstood you and has reacted to his/her impression of what you said.
3. Even though you are using the phrase "with respect", you should still be careful not to offend.

Re-phrasing

Perhaps I haven't made myself clear. [1]Basically, what I'm trying to say is . . .

Sorry, I'm probably not making myself clear. Let me put it another way . . .

Perhaps I should make that clearer by saying . . .

Allow me to rephrase that.

To be more specific, . . .

Put simply, . . .

These phrases can either be used in reply to a request for clarification, or as a way of reinforcing your point by putting it in other words. Notice that it is more polite and diplomatic to say that it is your fault even if it isn't. Avoid phrases like *You didn't understand*.

1. *Here* means you are attempting a simplification of your previous point.

Check Yourself

Here are the most important expressions. Fill in each blank with an appropriate word. It is best to do this orally without writing in your book as you may want to check yourself again later.

You can use this page as an *aide memoire* while taking part in the Mini-Meetings.

Asking for confirmation

1. ____________ I be ____________ in saying that . . .
2. If I've ____________ you ____________, you're saying that . . .
3. ____________ me if I'm ____________, but . . .
4. Am I ____________ in ____________ that . . .
5. ____________ you say . . . . .. do you ____________ that . . .
6. Are you ____________ that . . .
7. ____________, what you're ____________ is . . .

Asking for a repetition

8. I'm afraid I'm not ____________ clear what you ____________ by that.
9. I'm sorry, I didn't ____________ ____________ what you said about . . .
10. I'm ____________ I don't ____________ what you mean.
11. I'm afraid I didn't ____________ ____________ your last point. Could you ____________ ____________ it again please?

Correcting misunderstandings

12. I'm afraid ____________ seems to have been a ____________ ____________.
13. We seem to be ____________ at ____________ purposes.
14. I think you've ____________ me.
15. That isn't ____________ what I ____________.
16. With ____________, that is not what I ____________.

Rephrasing

17. Perhaps I haven't ____________ myself ____________. ____________, what I'm ____________ to say is . . .
18. ____________, I'm probably not ____________ myself ____________. Let me ____________ it ____________ way . . .
19. Perhaps I should make that ____________ by ____________ . . .
20. ____________ me to ____________ that.
21. To be more ____________. . . .
21. Put ____________. . . .

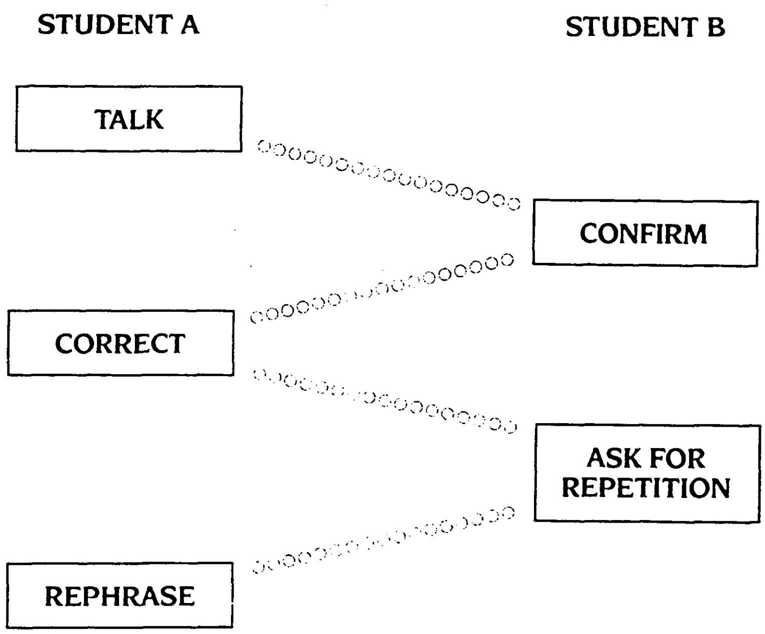
Mini-Meeting 1

PART 1 Work in groups of 2. Think of two subjects you can talk about without having to think too much. When you've finished your first subject, change roles with your partner. Then change roles again until all four subjects are finished.

PART 2 Change partners but use the same subjects.

Reminder

In all these mini meetings you can use your **own** topics, or any of the topics suggested in any unit of the book. There are two or three topics in each unit for variety — but use **any** topic. The important thing is the *language of meetings.*



Nuclear Energy

Conventional sources running out	Enough coal and oil
Alternative sources insufficient	Alternative sources renewable
Cheap and clean	Danger of accidents
Relatively safe	Waste disposal

Marriage

Provides stability	1 in 3 ends in divorce
Encourages responsibility	Just financial contract
Most divorcees get remarried	One partner not realistic
Good for children	Not flexible enough

If you're not confused you're not paying attention.

I have suffered from being misunderstood, but I would have suffered a hell of a lot more if I had been understood.

To deceive a diplomat speak the truth: he has no experience of it.

Mini-Meeting 2

Your teacher is going to choose a topic and tell you about it. As well as choosing a subject which will be both difficult and complicated, your teacher will speak at normal speed making no allowances for a non-native audience. You should ask for clarification whenever you don't understand.

Possible topics: Cricket
The Class System in England
The British or American Political System

PART 2 Choose a subject, perhaps something about your country which is not easily understood by foreigners, perhaps one of your hobbies or a sport. Think about your subject for a couple of minutes and then form groups of 2 and repeat the exercise.

PART 3 Work in groups of 2. Choose conflicting parts of the views below. As you give "your" views on the subject, your partner will interrupt to clarify what you are saying as much as possible. When you reply use the phrases in CORRECTING MISUNDERSTANDINGS and REPHRASING. When you've finished, change roles.

Traditional Family

Stability for children
'Normal'
Makes a stable society
Morally correct

Denies wife many possibilities
No mobility
Restricts development of individuals
Out-of-date

EEC Summit

In: Hardisty, David and Windeatt, Scott (1989). CALL. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

AIM To practise the language of formal meetings by simulating a summit conference

LEVEL Intermediate onwards

TIME 75 minutes

PREPARATION

Hardware
One computer per group, linked together into a Network.

Software
An electronic conferencing facility to allow simultaneous transmission of messages.

Knowledge
Teacher and students — using the program to type messages.

PROCEDURE

Pre-computer work:

1 Revise language forms for agreeing, disagreeing, stating an opinion, and interrupting.

2 Announce that there is going to be an EEC summit (adapt as suitable to the country in which you are working).

3 Inform students that fog has meant that the leaders cannot travel to the summit, so it has to take place using computer terminals. Put the students into groups at a machine, and assign a nationality to them. Make one machine the chairperson of the meeting.

4 Give students a few minutes to pool their knowledge of their country. The group who will be the chairperson can work out their rules of conduct for the meeting.

5 Tell students that it is time to submit items for the agenda. Elicit suitable topics for discussion from the students.

6 Allow students a few minutes to decide on their strategy in relation to the topics on the agenda.

Computer-work:

7 The chairperson starts the meeting and introduces the topics. The other groups participate, and the summit is held. The teacher can move round the groups and discreetly encourage the use of the target language.

Post-computer work:

8 The students analyse the aspects which caused most controversy and the effect of the meeting through having it 'on line'.

MODIFICATIONS

Level
The exercise could be carried out by more elementary students using more basic language such as *Yes!, No!, What!!,* etc.

Hardware
Your hardware may not allow simultaneous broadcasting to all machines, in which case there will have to be short pauses between comments. The facility for different stations to write in different colours is extremely useful. Each group can use a colour from their country's flag.

Software
A facility to record the conversation, so that it could be printed out at the end, would be very useful.

Procedure

This lesson is not suitable for self-access. Writing up the summit as journalists, using a word-processor, in self-access, however, would be a possible follow-up.

The students at the machines should change round from time to time. This could be done in the context of General Election results. It is important that the group acting as chairperson is chosen carefully. Where necessary, help the group to keep the discussion going, and allow only one country at a time to make a comment.

Media Simulation*

In: Herbert D. and and Sturtridge, G. (1979). Simulations. ELT Guide 2, London, British Council, pp. 55-65.

Introduction

This simulation was inspired by Radio Covingham (see page 68) and first adapted for the EFL classroom by Janet McAlpin and Marion Geddes. Radio Covingham is a simulation intended for use by native speakers in British secondary schools and it is not suitable as it stands for most foreign learners of English. The published materials, however, gave rise to an idea for a simulation for EFL learners set in a radio studio, a TV studio and a newspaper office. The task is the production of a radio and a TV programme, each 15 minutes in length, and a newspaper of 2 pages. All the news is researched, reported, produced and recorded by the students themselves and based on information given to the General Editor for each group.

In the Media Simulation described here the teachers worked as a team and put all their students together — 52 in all. The students then worked in 3 mixed-proficiency groups with one team working on the radio programme, one team on the video recording of the TV programme and the third on the production of the newspaper. However, a teacher who has not got access to all the equipment could choose one of the media, such as radio, and the students could work on the radio programme only.

The objective of the Media Simulation is to provide an opportunity for students to organise their time and work towards a common goal. During the simulation the teacher is there to give advice, answer questions and possibly be available for interview by reporters. The challenge to the teacher lies in the organisation, preparation and briefing of the students so that they know exactly what their task is and what they should be doing. The value of this exercise to the students lies not simply in the end products themselves but in the amount of realistic communication in English required in their creation.

Radio Portland	this radio station produces a news programme called "News and Views at 2".
Portland Television	this television network produces a programme called "News View".
Portland Portfolio:	this is the local newspaper.

The Institute in London where the Media Simulations took place is in a street named Portland Place and this is how the newspaper, radio and TV stations got their name. The teacher can invent imaginary titles for his own simulation using the names of streets or towns known to the students.

* Teacher's notes by Gill Sturtridge

Equipment

In an **ideal** situation the following equipment is recommended:

Portland Portfolio:	a typewriter, carbon paper, paper, stencils, some form of duplicator, and stapler.
Radio Portland	2 tape-recorders (one of them portable), microphones, microphone stands, tapes, sound effects, and a stop watch.
Portland TV:	video recording and playback equipment, card and paper for visuals and captions, a stencil for lettering, tapes for sound effects and a tape-recorder for playback, a stop watch.

All three of the media can share a "Reuter Room" or corner, where the reporters can listen to recorded news flashes on a tape-recorder.

Obviously this range of equipment is not available in many teaching situations and the teacher must use the equipment he has; a version of Radio Portland can be satisfactorily produced with one tape-recorder and a microphone.

The News Items

'The news' consists of: telegrams referring to news stories; reports; letters from readers or listeners; advertisements and tape-recordings of news reports from news agencies. These are the raw materials from which the students produce their programmes and newspaper.

With the exception of the tape-recordings the news is given to the General Editor of each group. He sorts through the news and distributes it to the relevant Sub-Editor's desk; stories about overseas news go to the Sub-Editor, Foreign News, while letters from readers and advertisements go to the Sub-Editor, Public Relations.

The tape-recordings belong to the News Agency or Reuter Room; the reporters come and listen to the recorded news and report the stories back to their Sub-Editors. The news in this particular example of the Media Simulation was all imaginary. It was collected and created by the teachers for a particular group of students; the relevance and topicality of the news is the secret of the simulation's success. All the news items refer to jokes or information that the students and teachers are familiar with. For example, one student has become very interested in ballroom dancing and one of the news items is a report that he has won an International Competition for ballroom dancing and is therefore going to give up his career as an economist. The reporters interview the student and a story develops. With this type of news input some items in the programmes and the newspaper can be made very lighthearted. If it is felt that the students would prefer to work on more serious news, then articles from current newspapers and journals, or recordings taken from news broadcasts, can be used.

The Roles

	The Portland Portfolio	Radio Portland "News and Views at 2"	Portland Television "News Views"
The General Editor	1		
The General Editor/Producer		1	1
The Assistant Producer			1
The Assistant Producer (Technician)		1	
The Sub-Editor: Foreign News	1	1	1
The Sub-Editor (Printer)	1		
Foreign News Reporters	4	4	4
The Sub-Editor: Home News	1	1	1
Home News Reporters	4	4	4
The Sub-Editor: Public Relations	1	1	1
Public Relations Reporters	4	4	4

Further roles could include a Sub-Editor for the Arts or for Sport and the reporters for those sections.

Setting up the Simulation

Put a label 'RADIO PORTLAND' on the classroom door so that the students see it when they arrive. Set up the room with desks for the different sections with a card on each, for example 'HOME NEWS'. If all 3 media situations are being used at the same time, give different coloured badges to the different groups, for example, an orange badge marked 'REPORTER - RADIO PORTLAND'. If only one media is being used, for example radio, it is useful to give distinctive colours to each of the news desks. In this way the participants can easily identify each other.

Give the General Editors and Sub-Editors in-trays and out-trays for their news. Try to make all the letters, telegrams and memoranda look as authentic as possible.

Procedure

Select the students who are to be the General Editors for each group and arrange to see them before the simulation takes place. Discuss their role-cards with them and give them time to read 'the news'.

When all the students arrive for the lesson, explain what is going to happen and give out the role-cards and badges. Give out the General Memorandum to all Production Staff. The Memorandum tells students more about what they are to do and makes them feel that they are part of the organisation. It also presents them with a reading passage from which they have to extract the main points quickly. While the students are studying their role-cards and the memorandum, the General Editors will have sorted out the news and distributed it to the correct news desks for the Sub-Editors to begin work. The students can then go to their allotted news desk and begin their discussions.

The sample materials shown here relate to one particular Media Simulation (radio version) and obviously would have to be adapted before being used.

RADIO PORTLAND

MEMORANDUM

To Production staff of 'News and Views at 2'

From Station Manager, Radio Portland

I've received a rocket from the national network about over-running. Last Friday we were cut off in mid-sentence so that the network could come in at precisely 14.15.

'News and Views at 2' is a fifteen minute programme. That does not mean fifteen minutes and fifteen seconds, or even fifteen minutes and one second. So please keep an eye on the clock.

We can, of course, under-run a bit, even by as much as half a minute, which can be filled in with a continuity announcement or trailer. But aim to come out somewhere within the last ten seconds before the national network comes in. This can be done if you check the timing during rehearsal, and if you can have one or two optional items near the end of the programme which can be broadcast or not according to the time available.

Reporters - excellent work in the Camden Town floods last week. We beat the news agencies by more than half an hour. However, do remember that you should try to avoid asking questions in interviews which can be answered by 'yes' or 'no'. Begin the questions with letter 'H' or 'W' - how? why? what? And follow up interesting answers. Listen to what the person is saying.

'News and Views at 2' now has a wide audience in the area, and CD(ODM) made complimentary noises last week about your output. Keep up the good work.

Maria E Horan.

MARIA E HORAN

role cards

GENERAL EDITOR

You are the General Editor of the daily radio programme NEWS & VIEWS AT 2.

This involves:

1 looking through all the communications in your in-tray

2 passing on the relevant communications to your 3 sub-editors

3 discussing the proposals for handling the news suggested by each sub-editor

4 deciding how much time each sub-editor can have for his section of the programme

5 making final decisions on the order of items

6 supervising the production of the programme and making sure it runs for no more than 15 minutes

7 ensuring that the programme is ready for broadcast at 2 pm

Your sub-editors will expect you to be available to give advice and make decisions during the planning of the programme. During programme production you will have the full support of technical staff.

SUB EDITOR — Public Relations

Your department is responsible for answering all correspondence from listeners.
This involves:

1 reading all letters received

2 deciding which ones to answer on the programme

3 deciding whether to read the letter in full or to summarise it on the programme

4 giving an answer in the way you think most interesting to your listeners.

You will have to consult the GENERAL EDITOR to find out how much time you can have for letters today, and in which part of the programme they should come.

SUB EDITOR — Foreign News

Your department is responsible for processing the day's foreign news.

This involves:

1 reading all press releases and listening to reports from abroad

2 following up potentially interesting stories

3 deciding what news should be included in the programme

4 deciding what form the news should take and what the order of the items should be

You will have to consult the General Editor to find out how much time you can have for foreign news, and when it should appear on the programme.

SUB EDITOR — Home News

Your department is responsible for processing the day's home news.

This involves:

1 reading all memos and news items concerning Britain

2 following up potentially interesting stories

3 deciding what news should be included in the programme

4 deciding what form the news should take and what the order of the items should be

You will have to consult the General Editor to find out how much time you can have for home news, and when it should appear on the programme.

ASSISTANT PRODUCER

You are the Assistant Producer of the daily radio programme NEWS & VIEWS AT 2

This involves:

1 helping the General Editor look through the news

2 helping the reporters with their recording equipment

3 finding sound effects to go in the programme

4 making sure that the studio is ready for recording

5 helping the General Editor wherever possible

6 ensuring that the programme is only 15 minutes long and that it is ready for broadcast at 2 pm.

REPORTER — Foreign News

Your department is responsible for processing the day's foreign news.

This involves:

1 following the Sub-Editor's advice on which stories to follow

2 listening to reports from abroad in the Reuter News Room and taking notes

3 reporting the overseas stories to the Sub-Editor

4 interviewing and making recordings of people in the news, using a tape-recorder

sample news item

To: 1 General Editor, Radio Portland	From: Telex Room
2 'News and Views at 2'	Date: 25.8.77
3	B.F. to on
4	P.A.
FILE REF:	SUBJECT:

We have just received the following telex from our correspondent in Ankara, Turkey :

FEARS GROWING HERE FOR HEALTH AND SAFETY OF TURKISH OLYMPIC SWIMMER STOP
LAST NEWS FROM BRIGHTON AT START OF ATTEMPT TO SWIM ENGLISH CHANNEL
STOP PLEASE INVESTIGATE

18 August 1977.

The Editor

Dear Editor

I understand that there is a wide range of newspapers and magazines, including ones which cater for minority interests, in Britain.
Could you give me more information please?

Yours sincerely

Chu Chin Mi

16 Temple Road
Santiago
Chile
19.8.77

Dear Sir

I am writing a book of recipes that is to be called <u>Sweet and Salt around the World</u>. I will be in London during the week of August 22nd and wonder if you would be able to tell me about any English recipes on your famous programme <u>News + Views at 2</u>. I'm sure some of your othe listeners would be interested too.

I am interested only in recipes that combine salty foods (eg. salt, meat etc.) with sweet foods (eg sugar, fruit etc.)

Yours truly
M. Harold.

Caracas,
Venezuela
20th August 1977

The Editor,

Dear Sir,
I am a Venezuelan student and I am going to study at a college in London soon. My friends here in Caracas who have been to London say that it's very difficult to find accommodation.

I should be very grateful if you could give me some advice.

Yours faithfully,

Berta Fuenzalida S.

WINTER WARMTH CO LTD., 2 Cold Lane, London EC4

23 August, 1977

Dear Sir

I have pleasure in enclosing our latest brochure, illustrating our latest designs in woollen underwear. I think you will agree that this year's models succeed in combining elegance with warmth.

I understand that a large number of your listeners are from overseas, many of them from countries where the local temperatures require them to wear only the minimum of cotton clothing. They are therefore unaware of the practical advantages that could be derived from the wearing of some of our products. For the health and benefit of your listeners you may wish to bring their attention to our products.

Yours truly

A J Winter Esq

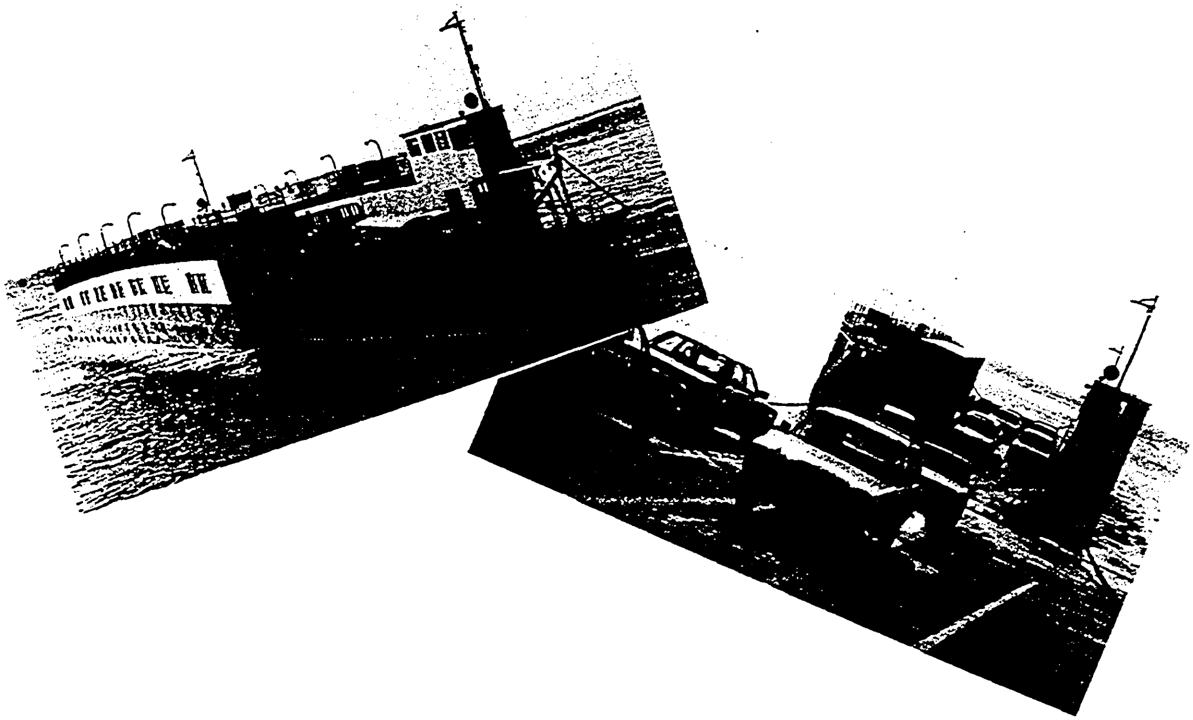
The Editor
News and Views at 2
Radio Portland
11 Portland Place
London W1

The Bridge

In: Jones, Leo (1983). Eight Simulations. Participant's Book. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 15-22.

What the simulation is about

The local government is planning to replace the old chain ferry across the mouth of Meryton Harbour by building a new suspension bridge. You and the other participants represent different members of the community, who support the plan, oppose it or are undecided. The supporters and opponents of the plan try to persuade the undecided members of the public to attend the Public Meeting at the end of the simulation and to vote for or against the plan. The simulation ends after a vote has been taken.



Talking points

Have you ever been on a ferry like the one in the photograph? Describe it.

What might be the consequences of building a new bridge to replace the ferry?

If a new bridge, tunnel, road or motorway is built, should its use be free or should users pay a toll?

15

Useful language

At various stages in a discussion you may be presenting a point of view, disagreeing with someone's point of view and presenting a counter-argument or raising an objection. Or you may simply not be able to make up your mind one way or the other. Here are some expressions we use in a discussion:

presenting a point of view
Don't you agree that . . .?
I firmly believe that . . .
As I see it . . .
It's quite clear to me that . . .

disagreeing
No, I'm afraid I don't agree, because . . .
Do you really think so? Why's that?
I can't accept that I'm afraid, because . . .
The main reason I disagree is . . .

presenting counter-arguments
Well, yes, but isn't it also true to say that . . .?
All right, but surely you accept that . . .
Yes, but you must admit that . . .
That's true, but don't forget that . . .

raising objections
Surely it depends on . . .
That's an interesting point, but you don't seem to realize that . . .
I agree on the whole, but I just can't accept that point you made about . . .

if you're undecided
I'm in two minds about it because . . .
I haven't made up my mind about it because . . .
I'd rather not commit myself on that because . . .
I can see both sides of the argument.

Decide how you would finish the incomplete sentences above.

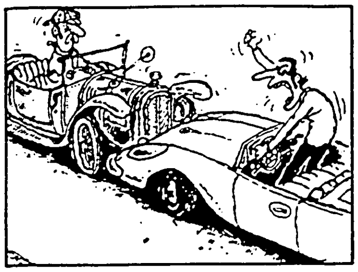
Practice activities

In groups of 3 or 4

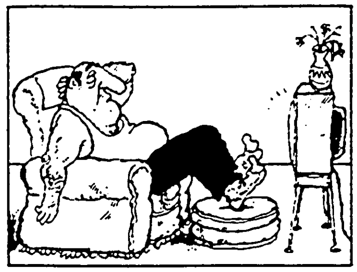
1 Using the expressions suggested above, discuss each of the topics shown opposite. Work like this:

First Student A presents a point of view,
then Student B disagrees,
then Student C presents a counter-argument to A's point of view,
then Student D (or B in a group of 3) raises an objection to A's point of view,
finally Student A justifies his or her point of view.

Take it in turns to present the points of view, so that in each subsequent discussion, Student A becomes B, B becomes C and so on.



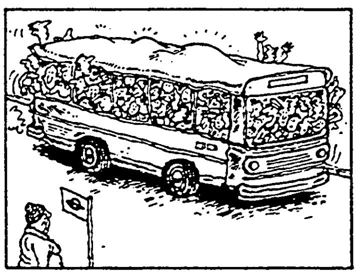
'Britain should drive on the right, like the rest of the world.'



'Watching TV is a waste of time.'

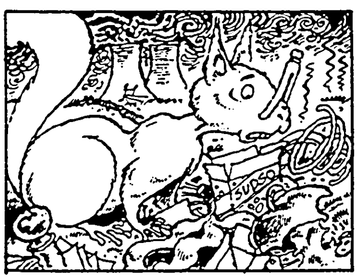
'Strikes should be made illegal.'

'Marriage is out of date.'

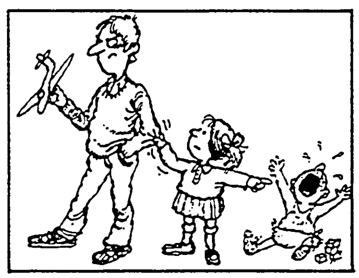


'Public transport should be free.'

'Violent criminals and murderers should be locked up for life.'



'Pollution is destroying our country.'



'Children are boring and a nuisance.'

In groups 2 Decide together on your point of view about a topic in the news at the moment. Work out how you can justify it. When you're ready, try to convince the people in a different group that you are right.

If you're listening to someone else's point of view, don't agree with them too readily – perhaps remain undecided!

Before the simulation begins

On the next four pages you'll find some essential information which you'll need for the simulation. There are newspaper articles on pages 18 and 19 and some important facts and figures on pages 20 and 21. Make sure you are familiar with this information before you start the simulation.

Deptford warbler breeds again

The very rare Deptford warbler was believed extinct in this country until last week when it was reported that several pairs have nested and succeeded in breeding this year at the Netherfield Heath Nature Reserve.

These very beautiful but extremely shy little birds, have been driven away from all other nesting sites in this country by noise and pollution from motor traffic.

A spokesman for the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds said that the Deptford warbler now has a reasonably good chance of re-establishing itself here.

OLD HARRY

comments:

The floating bridge is old and slow
But there's no other way to go.
The cars drive on, they're saving miles,
The captain says 'Hallo!' and smiles.
Some people say its day is past,
But I stand up beside the mast
And feel I'm on an ocean liner.
The air is fresh, there's nothing finer.
So please:
Don't let them take our dear old ferry.
Without it life wouldn't be so merry!

Record year for floating bridge

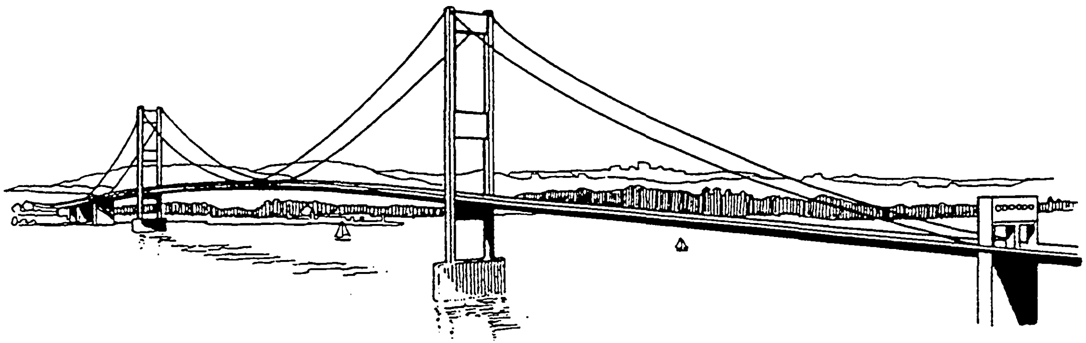
The chain ferry between South Point and North Point had a record year last year. Numbers of vehicles carried were up by 10% on the previous year and numbers of foot passengers were up by 50%.

Particularly in the summer season and on fine weekends, there were long delays for cars waiting to cross the 700 metre channel.

The alternative route via Westleton adds 32 kilometres to the journey from Meryton to Longbourne-on-sea.

One angry motorist delayed for several hours by a long queue at the ferry told our reporter: 'One of the main attractions of the area is the beach at North Point and the country-side around Netherfield. No one wants to have to queue up for hours to get there. Next year I'll be taking my holiday at Brighton, where at least the roads are good.'

Toll bridge to replace toll ferry



A plan was announced today to build a bridge across the entrance to Meryton Harbour. This would replace the floating bridge which has been in operation since 1923.

The proposed bridge would be high enough for yachts and shipping to pass under it even at high tide.

The chairman of the County Planning Committee told our reporter: 'The total cost of building the bridge would be in the region of £5 million. This would be paid for by the rates but there would be a toll for vehicles and pedestrians using the bridge.

'The amount of the toll would be calculated so that the bridge would pay for itself in ten years. After that the use of the bridge would be free.

'Work could start in a few months and the existing ferry would remain in operation until the bridge is open to the public.'

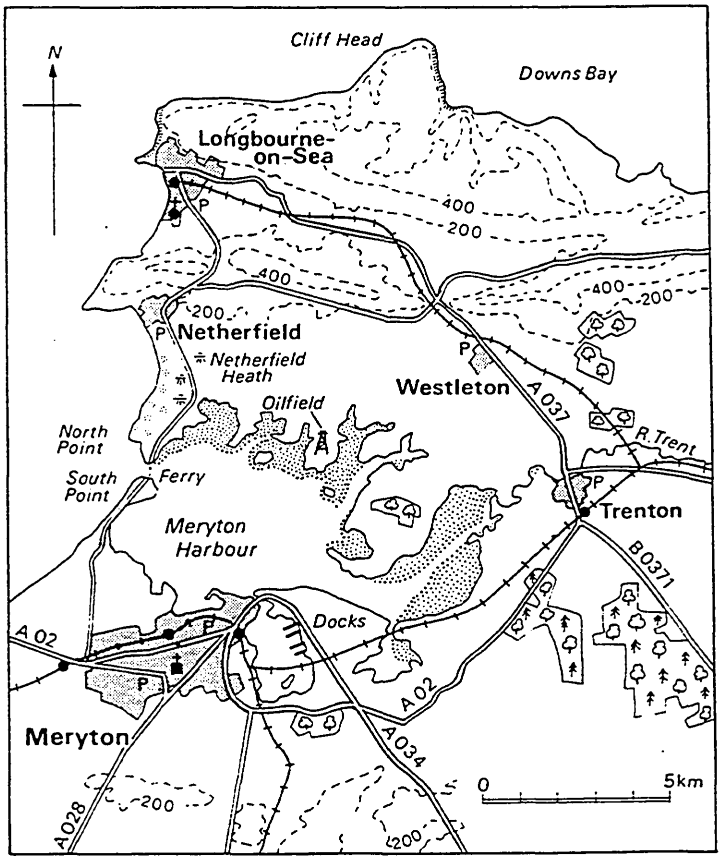
Suspension bridge

The design of the new bridge is extremely elegant with pre-stressed concrete towers supporting two enormous cables from which the roadway is suspended.

There are two footpaths, one on either side of the roadway, and because of its elevation there would be a magnificent view over Meryton Harbour and the Netherfield Nature Reserve.

The toll house would be on the northern approach to the bridge to avoid inconvenience to local residents in the South Point area of Meryton.

Local environmentalists, particularly bird-watchers, are understood to be opposed to the scheme.



North Point Floating Bridge Ferry Company

Numbers of cars and passengers carried

This year:	Cars	65,792
	Passengers	291,072
Last year:	Cars	58,542
	Passengers	145,000
Previous year:	Cars	47,107
	Passengers	183,000

Income from vehicles and passengers carried

This year:	Passengers @ 7p.	£20,375
	Cars @ 50p.	£32,896
	Buses	£ 5,000
	other	£ 7,543
	County Council subsidy	£25,000
	Total	£90,814
Last year:	Passengers @ 6p.	£ 8,700
	Cars @ 45p.	£26,343
	Buses	£ 4,000
	other	£ 6,819
	County Council subsidy	£20,000
	Total	£65,862
Previous year:	Passengers @ 5p.	£ 9,150
	Cars @ 40p.	£18,842
	Buses	£ 3,500
	other	£ 6,127
	County Council subsidy	£18,000
	Total	£55,619

County Treasurer's Department

Summary of costings for North Point Bridge

1. Total cost of building bridge : £4,922,000
2. Tolls to be set at 10p for passengers and pedestrians and £1 for cars and all other vehicles.
3. Estimated income, based on traffic survey and market research indicating a 40% increase in traffic and pedestrian crossings each year :

1st year	500,000 passengers @ 10p	£ 50,000
	200,000 vehicles @ £1	£200,000
	Total	£250,000
2nd year with 40% increase in traffic		£350,000
3rd year		£490,000
4th year		£686,000
5th year		£960,400
6th year		£1,344,560
7th year		£1,882,384

The building costs of the bridge will have been covered after 7 years. The tolls would be maintained until the end of the 8th year to cover the cost of maintenance, toll collectors' wages and interest payments.

8th year	£2,635,337

County Engineer's Department

From County Engineer

To Chairman of County Planning Committee

RE : NORTH POINT BRIDGE

The Engineer's Department has given serious and detailed consideration to each of the plans we were asked to consider. Of the plans submitted, that of Messrs Collins and Sons Ltd, is the most suitable from a design point of view. There would be adequate clearance for vessels of all types to pass beneath and maintenance costs for the bridge would be low. In view of the fact that their work for the County in the past has been excellent and that they have an excellent record of finishing projects on schedule and employing local labour, I consider that they should be offered the contract to build the bridge on the basis of their estimate of £4,922,000.

James McInnes

J. McInnes
County Engineer

Follow-up discussion

When the simulation has finished, consider your answers to these questions:

How active were you personally?
Did you manage to put over your point of view to the people you met?
What difficulties did you encounter?
What would you do differently if you could do the simulation over again?
Are there any similarities between the problems you discussed and any real life problems you know about?

Written work

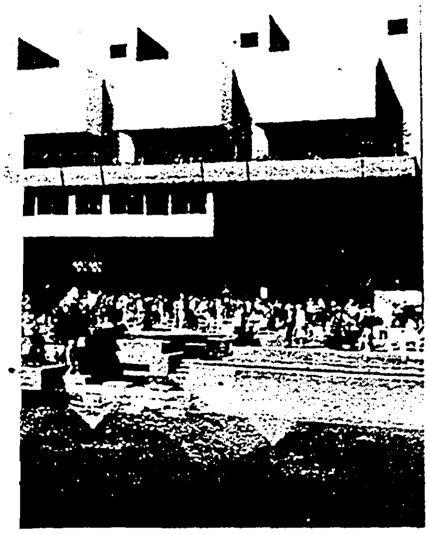
1 Write an account of the day's events. Imagine you are still the person whose role you were playing.
2 Write a letter to the Editor of the *Meryton Evening News* giving your opinion about the outcome of the public meeting.
3 Write a summary of the advantages and disadvantages of building the North Point bridge.

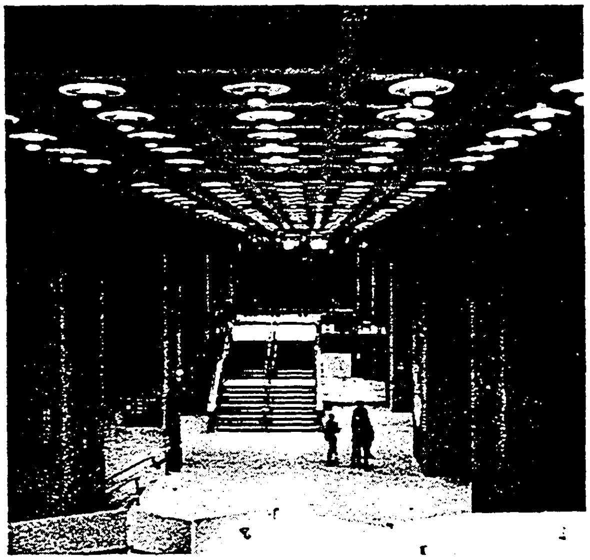
The Arts Centre

versity Jones, L. (1983b). <u>Eight Simulations, Participant's Book</u>. Cambridge, Cambridge Press, pp. 39-46.

What the simulation is about

You and the other participants are divided into small groups, each of which represents different groups of staff at the Arts Centre. The Arts Centre organizes a varied programme of events, which include plays, films, concerts and other activities. The Centre itself consists of a theatre, a cinema, a concert hall and restaurant. There are also bars and rooms available for exhibitions and other activities. Each group of participants plans the programme of events for the next six months, paying particular attention to its own specialist area.





Talking points

Which of these entertainments do you prefer for a night out and why?

theatre	meal in a restaurant
concert	drinks with friends
opera	dancing
ballet	cinema

Which do you like least?

Describe in detail your favourite play, piece of music, band or group, opera and so on.

Useful language

When talking about entertainment, you need to be able to use the right vocabulary to refer to the different people involved, the equipment they use and the different services and varieties of entertainment they offer. Look at the lists below and make sure you know the meaning of all the words.

	PEOPLE	EQUIPMENT	ENTERTAINMENT and SERVICES
Cinema	director	camera	film with sub-titles
	cameraman	projector	dubbed film
	producer	screen	English-language film
	star		Hollywood musical
	projectionist		cartoon
	usherette		thriller
Music	pianist	piano	orchestral music
	violinist	violin	chamber music
	rock musician	sound system	rock music
	conductor	baton	folk music
	folk singer	instrument	jazz
	soloist		country and western
Theatre	producer	stage	tragedy
	actor	auditorium	light comedy
	actress	stalls	musical comedy
	designer	sets	pantomime
	stage manager	lighting	show
	dramatist	circle	whodunit
Restaurant	chef	menu	starters
	head waiter	wine list	main course
	wine waiter	à la carte	dessert
	kitchen staff	set meal	cold buffet
	waitress	service charge	sweets trolley
			cheese board

And because most entertainment depends on having customers who pay for their entertainment, you will also be considering finance and publicity when you do the simulation. Look at these lists, too:

Finance	sponsor	in the red	box office
	accountant	in the black	subscription
	official receiver	to break even	sponsorship
	creditor	to make economy cuts	a subsidy
Publicity	advertising manager	poster	word of mouth publicity
	public relations officer	handouts	special attractions
	publicity manager	mailing list	TV commercials
	critic	brochure	press reviews

Practice activities

1 The lists above give you only some of the relevant vocabulary to talk about each of the subjects. Suggest more words that can be added to each list. If you don't know the English word, use a dictionary or ask your teacher.

2 Divide up the different lists opposite between you and test each other on your vocabulary. Like this:

A: *In an orchestra what do you call the person who stands in front?*
B: *He's the conductor! And in a restaurant, what do you call the thing that tells you what wines there are?*
A: *Er, well, I can't remember.*

Before the simulation begins

Have a good look at the next four pages. You need to be familiar with the information given there before you start the simulation.

This simulation has *rules*. They are given below. Make sure you understand the rules before the simulation begins.

Rules of the simulation

1 You are only allowed to speak to the staff immediately above you or immediately below you in the hierarchy of the organization. But you are allowed to communicate in writing with anyone.

2 The only exception to Rule 1 is that Union Representatives can arrange a meeting with the individual director responsible for their department, but only on a one-to-one basis.

3 The Controller must be informed before a meeting of any kind takes place.

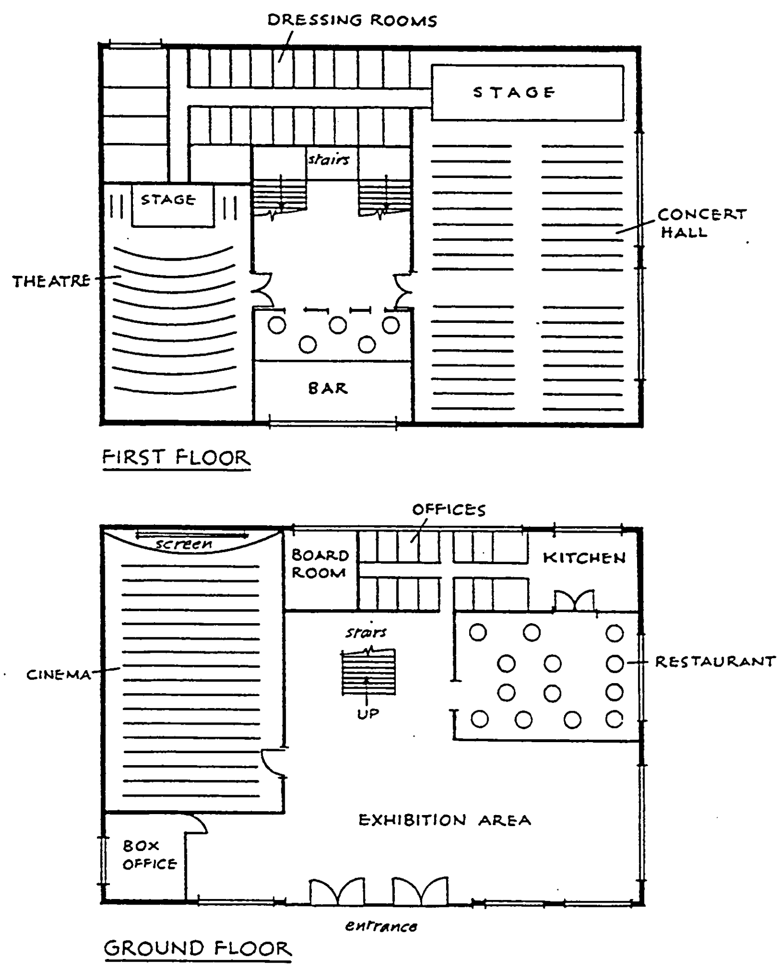
4 The Controller must be informed of the outcome of any meeting, even if no important decisions have been made.

Framley Arts Centre

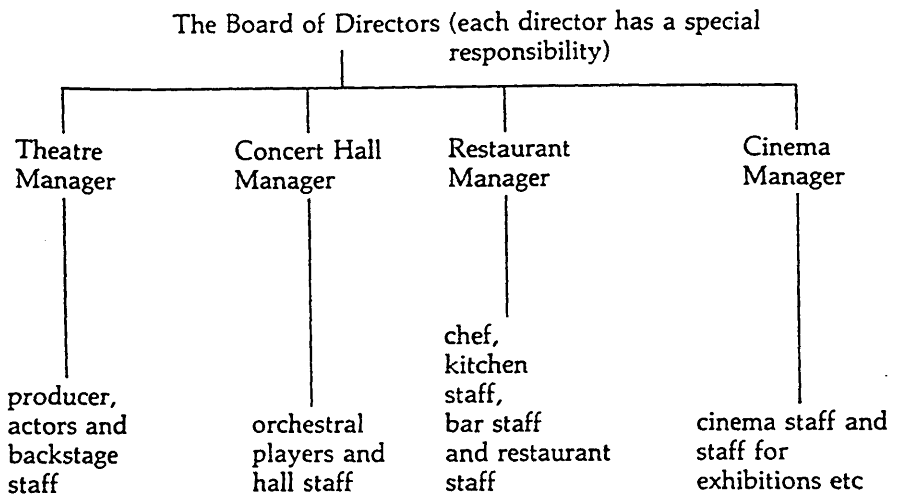
This leaflet describes the aims and organisation of the Arts Centre.

1 Our aims

The Arts Centre houses the only theatre and concert hall in the county. There is also a cinema but there are several commercial cinemas in the area too. The aim of the Arts Centre is to stimulate the cultural life of the county and to act as an entertainment centre for the entire population of the area. It must attract all classes of people: young and old, rich and poor, highbrow and lowbrow. Although the Centre is subsidized by the County Council, this subsidy only covers 40% of its costs—the rest must be made up with profits.



2 Our organization



The financial side of the operation is controlled by our *Board of Directors.* The Board is responsible to the County Council for the efficient running of the Centre. One of the conditions of the Council's subsidy, which last year reached £1 million for the first time, is that the Centre must break even.

The day-to-day running of each Department of the Centre is the responsibility of the *Management*. There are 4 Departments: Theatre, Concert Hall, Cinema and Restaurant. Each manager has to ensure that his own Department attracts enough patrons to break even. He also has to deal with complaints and suggestions made by patrons.

Theatre Dept consists of the producer, the actors and the back-stage staff of the theatre.

Concert Hall consists of members of the Orchestra, as well as the other staff of the Hall itself.

Restaurant is the staff of the catering side of the Centre, including the chef and his staff in the kitchen and the restaurant and bars.

Cinema Dept is the staff of the Cinema. This department is also responsible for staffing special exhibitions and several other activities.

This month's Programme at THE ARTS CENTRE

	in the CONCERT HALL (all concerts begin at 20.00)	in the THEATRE	in the CINEMA
1			
2			
3 Su	Ballroom Dancing	**KENT OPERA**	
4 M	ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE BAND	20.00 Verdi: Otello	Continuing our **ALFRED HITCHCOCK SEASON** (Daily at 14.30 and 19.00) **'PSYCHO' + 'THE BIRDS'**
5 Tu	BOURNEMOUTH SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA: Elgar concert	20.00 Verdi: Otello	
6 W	LOCAL TALENT NIGHT	20.00 Mozart: Magic Flute	
7 Th		20.00 Mozart: Magic Flute	
8 F	UNDER 16's DISCO	20.00 Britten: The Turn of the Screw	
9 Sa	Country and Western Night	15.00 Verdi: Otello 20.00 Mozart: Magic Flute	
10 Su	Ballroom Dancing	**EAST WINTON OPERATIC SOCIETY** in: **'The Sound of Music'** –Rogers and Hammersteins well-loved musical. (19.30 nightly – Wed-Sat)	(Daily at 14.15 and 19.15) **'NORTH BY NORTH WEST' + 'VERTIGO'**
11 M			
12 Tu	DIRE STRAITS in Concert		
13 W	LOCAL TALENT NIGHT		
14 Th	RED ARMY SONG AND DANCE ENSEMBLE		
15 F	UNDER 16's DISCO		
16 Sa	Country and Western Night		
17 Su	Ballroom Dancing	Sunday only (20.00) Local Poets read their poetry	
18 M	Allegri String Quartet BRAHMS QUARTETS	**DIRECT FROM THE WEST END** (19.30 nightly Tues-Sat) **'The Mousetrap'** by Agatha Christie	**INTERNATIONAL CINEMA SEASON** (Daily at 14.45 and 19.30) Francois Truffaut's 'Day for Night' + 'The Man who Loved Women'
19 Tu	THE THREE DEGREES in Concert		
20 W	LOCAL TALENT NIGHT		
21 Th	London Symphony Orchestra BEETHOVEN CONCERT		
22 F	UNDER 16's DISCO		
23 Sa	Country and Western Night		
24 Su		**THE ROYAL SHAKESPEARE COMPANY** in William Shakespeare's 'KING LEAR' (19.45 nightly Tues-Sat)	(Daily at 14.40 and 19.40) **Luis Bunuel's 'Belle de Jour' + 'The Discreet Charm of the Bourgeoisie'**
25 M	Ballroom Dancing		
26 Tu	GENESIS in Concert		
27 W	LOCAL TALENT NIGHT		
28 Th	UNDER 16's DISCO		
29 F	SPECIAL GUEST APPEARANCE OF SACHA DISTEL!!!		
30 Sa	Country and Western Night	14.00 Meet the cast 19.45 See the play	

the RESTAURANT

(open 12.00 – 23.00)
Monday – Saturday

12.00–14.00
Business Lunch £3.50
MINESTRONE SOUP
LASAGNE AL FORNO
or SPAGHETTI BOLOGNESE
CASSATA SICILIANA
or FRESH FRUIT
(one free glass of CHIANTI
with every meal)

THIS MONTH IS
ITALIAN
MONTH
Come and enjoy
our à la carte Italian
specialities

DROP IN
to the BAR anytime

CALL FOR COFFEE
at the Coffee Shop
(open 10.00–22.00)

"KIDS STUFF"

Saturdays
in the Concert Hall

All children (5-15)
WELCOME

10.00 **The Super Fun Club**
Come and dress up, sing, act,
dance – ENJOY YOURSELF.

Sundays
in the THEATRE (15.00)
(under 6's only)

UNCLE BOB'S CLUB
fun and games for under 6's
and their Mums and Dads

14.00 **Walt Disney Season**
9th 'BAMBI'
16th 'THE JUNGLE BOOK'
23rd 'DUMBO'
30th 'ONE HUNDRED AND ONE DALMATIANS'

FRIDAY NIGHT IS
DISCO NIGHT

UNDER 16's DISCO every Friday
in the Concert Hall 20.00–22.30

THE ARTS CENTRE IS YOURS let us know what you think about our programme.

Follow-up discussion

When the simulation is over, consider your answers to these questions:

What exactly happened in your group?
Did anything go wrong?
What was the most difficult part of the simulation for you?
If you could start the simulation over again, what would you do differently?
In what ways are any real life situations you know similar to the events in the simulation?

Written work

1 Write an account of what happened during the simulation. Imagine you are still the person whose role you were playing.
2 Explain what you expected to happen in the simulation and what actually happened.
3 Describe your favourite form of entertainment or art form and explain why you appreciate it.

Games on social skills

Klarin, Mikhail V. (1994). Games on social skills: A cross-cultural course for Russian/English speakers. In: Armstrong, Roger et al. (eds.). Interactive learning. The simulation and gaming yearbook, Vol. 2. London, Kogan Page, pp. 111-114.

Presentation games like MY NEIGHBOUR IS . . . (Bond, 1986), MY GOOD/BAD POINTS and NEGATIVE REMARKS are used as starting points to build up (and for some of the players actually to discover!) positive self-communication patterns.

Self-expression games like AUCTION OF PET HATES (Bond, 1986) or LANGUAGE OF EMOTIONS (Klarin, unpublished) give high output of emotional energy that can be directed and used further. They also have the common quality of expressing feelings and/or attitudes in a rule-regulated way. Thus their content and course of activity is in contrast with the attitudes prevailing in the native culture of the players, who are more used to dealing with sudden uncontrolled outbursts of emotions, than to a controlled and self-reflective way of recognizing and describing feelings. The debriefing of these games gives rise to insights about the missed personal cultural opportunities of both the 'language of emotions' and the language of self-expression.

Relativity games like TRUTH AND DECEPTION (Bond, 1986), GOOD OR BAD and GUESS WHO'S LYING (Klarin, unpublished) are lively and enjoyable games, enhancing the feelings of freedom in communication. They are followed by debriefing, stressing the relativity of personal judgements. This gives players the experience of flexibility in communication process.

THE PERSONAL/DEVELOPMENTAL MEANING OF GAMES: DIALOGUE THREADS

The content of the training course (including the actual games, their suggested interpretation, and trainer's responses) is based on two major threads of dialogue.

Direct experiential/emotional dialogue thread
Based on the 'here and now' of the group:

- intrapersonal (trainee encountering own experience)
- interpersonal (trainee encountering other trainees' and trainers' experiences and responses)

Indirect, meta-dialogue thread
Both experiential and quasi experiential: encounters of trainee's own culture style of self-image construction, interaction patterns with 'foreign' mentality and manner of communication. The direct dialogue thread is designed along the following lines:

- Actualizing past personal emotional experience (building up personal involvement base), interpreting it in terms of 'the language of emotions'
- constructing self-image, interpreting self-image in terms of suggested created 'self-concept language'
- experiencing the impact of the language patterns on one's own mentality
- increasing flexibility in the choice of communication mode (exercises with 'stressed relativity' meanings)
- development of skills in effective (active) listening
- practising positive supportive communication.

Supermarket Magic

In: Ladousse, Gillian (1991). Role Play. Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp. 160-169.

The simulation is a meeting to decide whether to introduce subliminal messages onto taped supermarket music or not, in an attempt to fight shop-lifting.

LEVEL

Upper intermediate to advanced. It is also feasible with a lively intermediate class.

TIME

2 hours

AIM

To develop discussion skills.

LANGUAGE

Functions: expressing points of view, persuading, agreeing and disagreeing.

ORGANIZATION

Groups of five to eleven. The notes to participants indicate which roles can be doubled up.

PREPARATION

Make enough photocopies of the notes to participants opposite, and prepare role cards for the whole class. Make sure there are multiple copies of the extract from the Home Office report, the newspaper articles, and the article from *Supermarket Management*, to form the 'library'.

WARM-UP

Ask the class what they know about shop-lifting, and if they have any anecdotes to tell. If this is not productive, move straight into the simulation.

PROCEDURE

1 Distribute the notes to participants and talk through the situation with your students to make sure everyone understands what is involved.

2 Distribute the role cards. Either let your students choose their own cards, or give them out according to which role fits which student.

3 Set up the 'library' on a table in the corner of the room, and explain to the students that they may need to consult some of the documents in the 'library' to help them in their role, but not necessarily all of them.

4 If you have a large class, several groups can carry out the simulation simultaneously.

5 If this is the first time you have carried out a simulation, do not be discouraged at the length of time needed for the participants to familiarize themselves with the problem.

6 Once the simulation begins, you should only be concerned with problems of organization, and should not intervene in the process of decision-making.

7 When the allotted time is up (probably about $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours), stop the simulation and bring the class together.

8 Conduct a feedback or debriefing session on:

- how the final decision was reached;
- any language problems that arose which you think need correcting.

NOTES TO PARTICIPANTS

You are about to take part in a meeting at which a decision will be taken on whether or not to introduce subliminal messages onto taped supermarket music in order to discourage people from shop-lifting. The people taking part in the meeting are as follows:

- Mr/Ms Brand, Managing Director of the ABC chain of supermarkets.
- Mr/Ms Jones, Manager of the Rington branch of ABC Supermarkets.
- Mr/Ms Smith, Assistant Manager of the Rington branch of ABC Supermarkets.
- Mr/Ms Stacey, representative of Marketing Magic Ltd (company which sells tapes of canned music to supermarkets).
- Mr/Ms Edmonds, President, National Consumer Association.
- Mr/Ms Powell, Managing Director of Security Risks Ltd.
- Mr/Ms Robinson, a regular customer at the Rington branch.

You will find all the information you need on your role cards, and in the documents in the 'library' that you may consult freely. It is the Managing Director's job to start the meeting, act as chairperson, and finally to make sure that a decision is reached. Only Mr/Ms Brand, Mr/Ms Jones, and Mr/Ms Smith take part in the decision-making. It is up to the other participants to influence this decision in their own interest.

Mr/Ms Stacey, Mr/Ms Edmonds, Mr/Ms Powell, and Mr/Ms Robinson may be played by one or two people according to the number of people taking part in the simulation. It is also possible to leave out Mr/Ms Smith.

Library documents

- Extract from Home Office report on shop-lifting.
- Recent articles on shop-lifting from the *Evening Post*, the *Daily Record*, and *The Echo*.
- An article from *The Gazette* on subliminal messages in supermarkets in America.
- An article on 'How to keep shop-lifters at bay' from *Supermarket Management*.

ROLE CARD A

Mr/Ms Brand, Managing Director of the ABC chain of supermarkets

You are extremely worried about a recent proposal by one of your managers to introduce subliminal messages onto the canned music played in your supermarkets. Your chief worry is that the press could make a scandal out of this by considering it to be immoral and manipulative. Journalists would suggest that it is open to all sorts of abuses, such as selling products that people do not really need, and influencing their behaviour generally. This would not only do irreparable damage to the image of your supermarkets, which you consider respectable, fair-dealing, family-orientated places, but also to yourself as you have played a prominent role in many civil rights campaigns, and you have the reputation of being an extremely moral and straight-dealing person. However, your supermarkets are not doing too well at the moment, and your policy is to encourage managers to keep up a good profit margin.

You have asked the manager in question, Mr/Ms Jones, to arrange a meeting at which you may inform yourself better on the following aspects of the problem:

- What in fact is the subliminal message, and how does it work?
- What is customer reaction likely to be?
- What is consumer association reaction likely to be?

When you have heard all the points of view, you should reach a decision with you manager, Mr/Ms Jones and his/her assistant, Mr/Ms Smith.

ROLE CARD B

Mr/Ms Jones, Supermarket Manager, Rington branch
Mr/Ms Smith, Assistant Manager, Rington branch

You are very keen to introduce this new system of subliminal messages. Your supermarket has not been doing very well lately. This is not good for your promotion prospects, and your bonuses have been meagre. One of the problems is shop-lifting which has reached the alarming proportions of 9.5 per cent of your total sales, far above the national average. You have tried other methods of discouraging shop-lifters over the past few years, but do not like any of them, for example:

- Random or systematic searches of customers create a bad image, and discourage business.
- More security guards are very expensive, and eat up the profits.
- Complicated electronic surveillance equipment is expensive, and probably not very effective anyway.

Tapes carrying subliminal messages are obviously the cheapest and most effective way of getting over this problem, but recent newspaper articles have been suggesting that there is something immoral in using what they call 'manipulative techniques'.

Your Managing Director, Mr/Ms Brand, has asked you to organize a meeting with the following people:

- a representative from Marketing Magic Ltd, the company marketing the tapes;
- a representative of a consumer association;
- a typical regular customer;
- a security advisor.

In order to convince your Managing Director to let you go ahead with the project, you will need to argue that things can only get worse (as a couple of articles in the local press seem to indicate). You will also need to play down the moral aspect of the issue.

ROLE CARD C

Mr/Ms Stacey, representative of Marketing Magic Ltd.

You work for a firm that sells canned music to supermarkets, restaurants, and offices, etc. Your most recent 'product' is a tape containing subliminal messages to discourage shop-lifting in supermarkets.

You have been invited to attend a meeting of the ABC Supermarkets in order to present the product to the Managing Director of the chain of supermarkets, and the Manager and Assistant Manager of the supermarket in which the use of a trial tape is being envisaged. Your product is the one described in the article in the *Daily Gazette*.

You are not very interested in the moral aspects of subliminal messages. You are simply marketing a product that works. Your arguments are:

- There is irrefutable evidence coming from the United States that subliminal messages do lessen the number of shop-lifting incidents.
- The music you put out is already designed to influence customers and make them buy more. Including subliminal messages is not more manipulative than this.
- You explain that nobody is aware of the message unless it is amplified, so the public need not even be told about the technique.

In order to be sure of gaining an opportunity to market this new product you must listen carefully to any objections and answer them as best you can.

ROLE CARD D

Mr/Ms Edmonds, President, National Consumer Association

You have been invited to a meeting organized by the ABC Supermarkets to consider whether or not they should introduce subliminal messages onto the canned music played in the supermarket. You are there to advise on the moral aspect of the problem as, at the moment, there is no legislation concerning subliminal messages, but you do not take part in the decision-making.

Your role is to protect the consumer, and so the questions you must ask yourself are:

- Is the consumer being manipulated?
- What are the alternative means available for controlling shop-lifting?
- Are these just as effective and morally more acceptable?

In the absence of any legislation, you can refer to the document on shop-lifting issued by the Home Office.

ROLE CARD E

Mr/Ms Powell, Managing Director of Security Risks Ltd

You have been advising ABC Supermarkets on all aspects of security for a number of years. Your company provides store detectives to watch customers, a policy that has been used periodically by ABC Supermarkets. You have been invited to attend a meeting at ABC Supermarkets to advise on the effectiveness of subliminal messages on the supermarket's canned music tapes.

You are there in an advisory capacity and take no part in the decision-making process. Your own interests are at stake, for if the supermarket chain adopted the solution of subliminal messages and it worked, it would have far less use for your services. You should refer to the alternative means of reducing shop-lifting described recently in an issue of *Supermarket Management*. It is in your interest to defend the solution which will involve the most sales of security equipment, or which will use the most manpower.

ROLE CARD F

Mr/Ms Robinson, Customer

You are a regular customer at the ABC Supermarket. The Manager has asked you to come along to a meeting to discuss the introduction of subliminal messages onto the canned music that is played in the supermarket. You are being asked simply to give your opinion as a regular shopper and not to participate in any decision-making.

Firstly, you must find out more about subliminal messages by reading a recent article in the press (the *Daily Gazette*). You know several people who have been involved in shop-lifting cases, a middle-aged friend, and one of your children's schoolfriends. You have read of similar stories in the *Evening Post* and *The Echo* recently. A short while ago you witnessed an incident when a customer, suspected of shop-lifting, was searched at the check-out. His bag was full of goods, but the Manager let him go. The incident created quite a scene.

You must make up your mind whether subliminal messages amount to manipulation on the part of the supermarket. You have heard a lot of rumours about subliminal messages in pop music, and how these affect young people. Some people even believe that this is the main reason that sects such as 'Moon' have such a strong influence on young people. Decide whether you think there is any danger in subliminal messages, and convince the supermarket management of your point of view.

HOME OFFICE REPORT

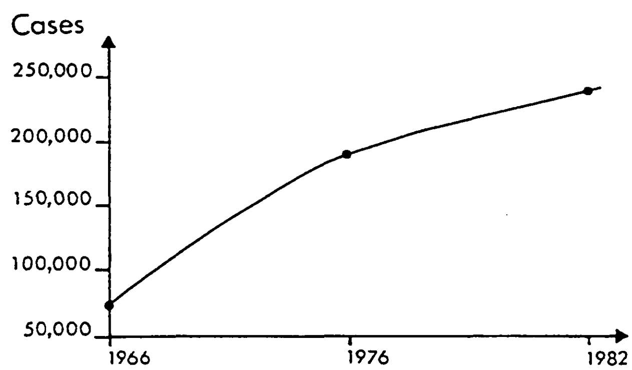
Extract on shop-lifting

1 The reduction in stock between delivery and sale (including breakages) is known as shrinkage, and estimated at a total of £1,000 million per annum in the UK.

2 Shop-lifting and thefts by staff normally average between 1 to 3 per cent of sales. Anything less than 2 per cent should be considered acceptable and inevitable.

3 Shop-lifting is lowest in January and August and greatest in November and April.

4 Shop-lifting is increasing - in 1966 there were 68,288 cases in the UK. In 1976 there were 180,993, and in 1982 there were 242,300.



5 Shopkeepers cannot continue to blame the customer for shop-lifting if they carry on designing supermarket layouts that do not take shop-lifting into account. Placing expensive, but unnecessary items on open display, and placing sweets where children can help themselves are two examples of such strategies.

6 About 28 per cent of all shop-lifters caught are under the age of sixteen.

Let off with a caution

Fourteen year old Samantha was lucky this time. Caught by a store detective with a bottle of hair conditioner, eye-lash dye, and a copy of *Young Generation* hidden in her bag, she found herself in a van being driven to the police station. Even more upset than Samantha was her Mum. She was as white as a sheet when she went to collect Samantha from the police station, and burst into tears.

Samantha says, 'I was lucky. Two policemen came and looked at my home, which is very middle class and respectable. I think that's why they let me off. They even asked to see my school books.'

After two years of regular shop-lifting, Samantha has decided to go straight from now on. She says she did it mostly out of boredom, and not to impress her friends as a lot of youngsters do. But she feels she's grown out of it after the fright she got the other day, and has decided to look for other interests.

[*The Evening Post*]

Shop-lifting gangs

Big London stores do not like discussing changing patterns in shop-lifting, presumably for fear of alarming their customers. One store says it never reveals information about customers or staff. Another says it does not keep records of violent incidents relating to shop-lifting and is unable to comment. However, security officers in some of the stores have revealed that violence has become increasingly common when dealing with shop-lifters.

The security officer of one London branch has been assaulted six times by shop-lifters, suffering a broken nose and a dislocated jaw in separate incidents. He says that if you go after the gangs, they go after you. Sometimes, you can recover the goods, but usually the gangs are too well-organized to hang around until the police get to the scene. This kind of incident is definitely on the increase. An efficient deterrent must be found.

[*The Daily Record*]

TRAGIC DEATH OF RADIO PERSONALITY

Irene Bartlet, the well-known radio personality, was found dead in her flat in Kingswell this morning after taking an overdose of sleeping tablets.

The tragedy occurred less than a month after she had appeared in court on a charge of shop-lifting in a department store. It was claimed that she had taken goods worth £7.65 when she was arrested outside the store. She was sentenced to a fine of £100, and was given a two-week suspended sentence.

Mrs Bartlet was for many years a well-loved personality on the popular 'Gardening Today' programme, but for the last seven years had withdrawn from public life and was living by herself. Friends say that they did not think she was unhappy, but that she may have been a little bored after such an active public life. It was of course a great shock when she was arrested for shop-lifting. Local feeling was that the magistrate had been far too severe, a feeling that can only grow after yesterday's tragic incident.

[*The Echo*]

Farewell to shop-lifting

Great anxiety is being expressed by consumer associations about recent trends in supermarket management. In an attempt to discourage shop-lifting, two major chains of supermarkets have already introduced subliminal messages onto their tapes of sickly canned music that are an inevitable accompaniment to any shopping expedition nowadays. It is thought that many other supermarkets will shortly follow suit.

Widely used in America, these messages are claimed to produce spectacular results. Drops in shop-lifting losses of up to 45 per cent have been reported. The shopper cannot consciously hear the message, as to be audible to a human ear, it must be amplified considerably.

Marketing Magic, one of the firms that makes these tapes recently allowed me to listen to an amplified version. Beneath the romantic voice of Frank Sinatra singing 'Strangers in the Night' (at a particularly slow pace to ensure a leisurely stroll on the part of the shoppers), the message came over only too clearly. A low and gentle voice was saying at regular intervals, 'Do not shop-lift. Shop-lifting is wrong. Do not shop-lift. Shop-lifting is wrong.'

'Where's the harm?' says Tom Bruce, Marketing Magic's top executive. 'The supermarket is happy – there is less shop-lifting. Potential shop-lifters are happy – they are protected from their own vice. And the ordinary shopper just never knows anything is going on.'

However, consumer associations fear that unscrupulous supermarkets could use advertising messages in the same way. In any case they claim that this type of procedure is manipulative and therefore immoral. As such it contravenes the Fair Trading Act (1976). 'Supermarkets are not the place for music', says Consumer Association Chairperson, Susan Brown.

[*The Daily Gazette*]

How to keep shop-lifters at bay

Still a favourite arm in the war against shop-lifting is the closed circuit TV device. Although the initial expense of acquiring the equipment is fairly high, the supermarket manager will soon recover the outlay by being able to spot regular offenders and identify them as soon as they enter the shop.

TVs placed strategically around the store can also discourage small-time or would-be shop-lifters, at least for the first six months after installation. Unfortunately, beyond this period, shoppers get wise to the screens or simply forget them, and employees watching the screens become more lax so that the long-term effects of such deterrents are not always significant.

Many shops are beginning to mark all their goods with a special ink which will trigger an alarm when removed from the shop, unless cancelled at the check-out. This is obviously the solution for the future, as the equipment is inexpensive and the surveillance technique unobtrusive and inoffensive for the shopper. However, marking the products uses up considerable store labour, and the problem of in-house theft remains.

It does not look as if the traditional store detective is out of a job yet, though. This is obviously an expensive solution in terms of manpower, but in the words of Dan Smith who has been in the store detective business for 30 years, 'You just can't miss them. When they start watching you, you watch them. I can tell a shop-lifter the moment he steps into the shop, just by the way he walks.'

[Extract from *Supermarket Management*]

Role play exercises

Littlewood, W. (1988 and 1990). Communicative language teaching. An introduction. Cambridge University Press, pp. 12-14 and 51-59.

2.5 Relating language to social context

The activities discussed so far have helped learners to link language forms with (a) communicative functions and (b) specific functional meanings which correspond to aspects of nonlinguistic reality. Students must also learn to relate language to the social meanings that it carries and to use it as a vehicle for social interaction. To this end, it is necessary to increase their sense of performing in a meaningful social context, rather than simply responding to prompts.

An initial step in this direction is to free the activity from dependence on the teacher or tape, so that learners begin to *inter*act as equal partners in an exchange, rather than merely *re*acting to stimuli. For example, after an initial period when they learn to make and reject suggestions under the teacher's control (as in preceding sections), they may be asked to interact in pairs. One learner may then have a set of cues indicating what suggestions he has to make, while the other responds either according to personal preference, or from a second set of visual cues.

The stimulus for interaction in pairs may be provided by asking learners to obtain information to complete a questionnaire. For example, it may be a question of discovering each other's preferences between various pairs of items ('S' = 'student'):

(S1 has to complete a questionnaire)

S1: Which do you prefer, tea or coffee?
S2: I prefer tea.
or I prefer coffee.
or I like them both.
or I don't like either.

(And so on, for other items on the questionnaire).

At a later stage, two exchanges may be combined to form a longer conversational sequence. The cues in the following activity might be a list of general and specific alternatives, from which the partners would select their suggestions and preferences:

(The list of alternatives would include:

cinema: detective film, love film
meal: Indian meal, Chinese meal
drink: beer, coffee
concert: jazz concert, classical concert)
S1: Shall we go to the cinema?
S2: No, I'd rather go to a concert.
S1: What kind of concert?
S2: I'd like to hear some jazz.

If the exchange is provided with a beginning and an end, it becomes a coherent dialogue in a recognisable social setting:

(Using the same list of alternatives for cues)

You and your friend have been studying together in the library all afternoon. One of you is now tired of working.
S1: Let's go out now, shall we?
S2: Where to?
S1: How about going for a drink?
S2: Oh – I'd rather have a meal.
S1: What kind of food would you like?
S2: I'd like a Chinese meal.
S1: Good idea. Let's go then.

When learners have acquired adequate command of a suitable repertoire of items, they may use them to perform in an 'open dialogue'. This requires them to identify more strongly with a social role, in order to create whole responses during a piece of social interaction:

You are visiting a friend, Peter.
Peter: Let's have a drink. What would you like, tea or coffee?
You:

Peter: I'll put a record on first. Do you like jazz?
You:
Peter: What do you feel like doing afterwards?
You:
Peter: All right. Well, I'll go and make the tea/coffee.

A similar effect may be achieved through a 'cued dialogue', in which learners interact on the basis of a series of cues. These specify the communicative function to be expressed, but otherwise leave learners to create the interaction themselves, by selecting appropriate language from their repertoire. Learners may have separate role-cards so that, at least the first time the dialogue is performed, there is an element of uncertainty and spontaneity about the interaction:

Partner A	*Partner B*
You meet B in the street.	You meet A in the street.
A: Greet B.	A:
B:	B: Greet A.
A: Ask B where he is going.	A:
B:	B: Say you are going for a walk.
A: Suggest somewhere to go together.	A:
B:	B: Reject A's suggestion. Make a different suggestion.
A: Accept B's suggestion.	A:
B:	B: Express pleasure.

Through these activities the language has become increasingly embedded in a context of social interaction. Gradually, too, the learner's performance has become less controlled by specific linguistic prompts and more controlled by the need to produce language in response to the functional and social demands of social interaction. With open dialogues and cued dialogues, we begin to enter the realm of creative role-playing, which will be discussed in chapter 5.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has been concerned primarily with training learners in the 'part-skills' of communication: enabling them to acquire linguistic forms and relate them to communicative function, nonlinguistic reality and social context.

There are no set formulae to determine the teacher's selection from among these activities. His choice can only be determined by his understanding of the ultimate goal and by his judgment of where the learners stand in relation to it. In the early stages of a course, he may expose learners to the same basic linguistic material in sequences of activities similar to the one followed in this chapter, so that they can move gradually towards the ability to participate in meaningful interaction. Later, learners will have achieved greater independence in their learning and use of language. They will therefore be able to move more swiftly from the initial learning of new language to the point where they have integrated it into their repertoire and can use it in more independent forms of interaction.

Open dialogues and cued dialogues already require the learner to develop a moderate degree of independence in using the language he has learned. The next three chapters will discuss activities which provide learners with opportunities to develop further in this direction.

The example used in chapter 2 can be repeated here.

Learner A	*Learner B*
You meet B in the street.	You meet A in the street.
A: Greet B.	A:
B:	B: Greet A.
A: Ask B where he is going.	A:
B:	B: Say you are going for a walk.
A: Suggest somewhere to go together.	A:
B:	B: Reject A's suggestion. Make a different suggestion.
A: Accept B's suggestion.	A:
B:	B: Express pleasure.

Now that we are considering the potential of cued dialogues as simple role-playing activities rather than as controlled language practice, a few additional observations are necessary.

Learners will normally have their cues printed on separate cards. This gives the interaction some of the uncertainty and spontaneity involved in 'real' communication: each learner must listen to his partner before formulating a definite response. On the other hand, the cues enable them to predict a large proportion of what the other will say and, of course, to prepare the general gist of their own responses. This makes it easier for a learner to draw on language forms that he would have difficulty in using with complete spontaneity. The teacher can therefore use cued dialogues to elicit forms which he has just taught or which his learners would otherwise avoid. This use of the forms in a 'semi-communicative' context helps to prepare learners to use them later in fully spontaneous interaction.

Three factors place tight restrictions on the range of language that can occur appropriately in a cued dialogue:

- The cues control the functional meanings that learners have to express.
- The social situation and relationship determine what kind of language is appropriate for expressing these meanings.
- Particularly in the early stages, it is unlikely that the learners' repertoire will contain a wide variety of alternative forms to express a particular communicative function.

It is therefore not difficult for a teacher to prepare learners for a specific activity, by equipping them with suitable forms. After the activity, too, he can give clear feedback about what forms they might have used.

The teacher may, however, vary the learners' scope for creativity, in two main ways:

- The cues may be more or less detailed in the functional meanings they specify. Thus in the example above, 'make a different suggestion' controls the communicative function but allows the learners to choose a topic; 'suggest you go to the cinema' would have controlled both function and topic.
- He can vary his instructions to the learners. We have so far assumed that the learners have been instructed to regard the cues as providing the sole basis for interaction. However, they may be encouraged to regard them as constituting only a minimal framework for interaction. This then gives learners – particularly the more skilled learners – scope to create their own variations and additions, and moves the activity some way further along our continuum from 'maximum control' to 'maximum creativity'.

Role-playing controlled through cues and information

In cued dialogues, two sets of cues must interlock closely, in such a way that no cue produces an utterance which conflicts with what follows. This places tight limits on the amount of creativity that is possible within that format.

A more flexible framework is created if only one learner is given detailed cues. The other has information that enables him to respond as necessary. Here, for example, two learners play the roles of a prospective guest at a hotel and the hotel manager(ess):

Student A: You arrive at a small hotel one evening. In the foyer, you meet the manager(ess) and:
Ask if there is a room vacant.
Ask the price, including breakfast.

Say how many nights you would like to stay.
Ask where you can park your car for the night.
Say what time you would like to have breakfast.

Student B: You are the manager(ess) of a small hotel that prides itself on its friendly, homely atmosphere. You have a single and a double room vacant for tonight. The prices are: £8.50 for the single room, £15.00 for the double room. Breakfast is £1.50 extra per person. In the street behind the hotel, there is a free car park. Guests can have tea in bed in the morning, for 50p.

The main structure for the interaction now comes from learner A's cues. A can thus introduce variations and additions without throwing B into confusion. For the most part, B's role requires him to respond rather than initiate, though he may also introduce topics himself (e.g. by asking whether A would like tea).

This kind of framework is obviously best suited to those situations where there is a natural initiator, whose cues can control the interaction. These are mostly situations where one person needs to gather information or obtain a service, for example: in a travel agency, where one learner needs to find out train times and fares, and the other has timetables and brochures; in a bank, where the manager has to obtain personal information about a client who wants to borrow money; interviews for jobs; interviews for news reports; and so on. Because of the information-gathering element, this type of role-play may often be very similar to some of the functional communication activities discussed in chapter 4, notably those which involved the learner in 'discovering missing information' (4.2). Here, however, there is greater emphasis on the social context in which the information is obtained. This may be illustrated by the following example, taken from *Approaches:*

Student A: You are staying in London. It's the weekend and you're fed up with the Tower, Buckingham Palace and picture postcards. But there's more to see in Britain than just London, and you decide to explore the outside world. You might go to: The Berkshire Game Park; the Boating Regatta; the Railway Exhibition; the Horse Show Choose one of these. Your partner works at the station information desk. Find out from him:

Which town to go to: ....
How frequent trains are: ....
How long the journey takes: ....
Train departure times (from London): ....
Train arrival times (at your destination): ....
Whether you have to change: ....

Student B: Pretend that you work in the information office at Paddington Station in London. Give your partner the information he asks for using the table below.

London (Paddington)	09.00	09.20	09.40	10.00
Slough	09.20	09.40	10.00	10.20
Twyford (for The Berkshire Game Park)		09.50		10.30
Reading (for the Boating Regatta)	09.35	09.55	10.15	10.35
Didcot (for the Railway Exhibition)	10.00		10.40	
Oxford (for the Horse Show)	10.15		10.55	

As the teacher's control becomes looser and the learner's scope for creativity increases, some important pedagogical consequences begin to emerge:

- The teacher is less able to predict in detail what the learners will want to say. He is therefore less able to equip them with the language forms that they will need. It follows that learners will increasingly find themselves attempting to say things for which they have not yet acquired the most effective or appropriate language.

  This does not matter in itself: there will always be gaps in the learners' repertoire, and it is important that they should have practice in compensating for them, for example by the use of paraphrase. It also means, however, that the teacher will often wish to conduct a 'review' or 'debriefing' session after the main activity. This enables both teacher and learners to point out any difficulties or inadequacies that emerged, and to discuss ways of remedying them. The teacher may then devise more controlled activities, perhaps of the kind discussed in chapter 2, so that learners can practise language forms that they needed but lacked.
- The language produced by every pair or group will be different. On the one hand, this offers welcome scope for learners to perform at their own level of ability. On the other hand, it means that the teacher cannot give clear feedback after the activity about what language the learners should have used. Nor, obviously, can he observe every pair or group in order to give individual feedback. This means that learners will sometimes produce inappropriate or incorrect language which will never be corrected.

  Unnoticed errors are an inevitable price to pay for the more intensive and individualised practice that becomes possible when learners perform in pairs or groups. It is not an unacceptable price. The emphasis in these activities is on practising the *process* of communicating rather than on evaluating its *product*. Indeed, when a learner has been concentrating on the communication of meanings, it is unlikely that he will remember what specific language forms he produced. It is also unlikely that a ritual correction of these forms will benefit his future performance.

The teacher will, however, often become aware of deficiencies in his learners' repertoire. As I mentioned above, he may use these as the input to pre-communicative language practice, in which the learner's attention is focused on the forms he needs to learn. This practice will be all the better motivated because it is based on actual language needs that have emerged during the learners' own attempts to communicate.

These results of looser control and increased creativity apply with even greater force to the activities discussed in subsequent sections of this chapter. They will not be mentioned again, in order to avoid unnecessary repetition, but the reader should bear them in mind.

Role-playing controlled through situation and goals

All the activities in the previous sections provide a framework of specific cues for the learners. These enable the teacher to control the interaction and to ensure that learners express a particular range of meanings (in addition to any variations they may introduce). The cues also provide learners with a supportive framework which relieves them of some of the responsibility for creating the interaction themselves.

As learners progress, the teacher will not necessarily abandon the use of specific cues. He will still sometimes want to produce a particular kind of interaction and elicit a particular range of functional meanings and forms. There will also be increasing scope, however, for providing a looser structure, which gives learners greater responsibility for creating the interaction themselves. The control now determines not so much the specific meanings that learners express. It is directed at the higher level of *situation* and the *goals* that learners have to achieve through communication. For example:

Student A: You wish to buy a car. You are in a showroom, looking at a second-hand car that might be suitable. You decide to find out more about it, for example how old it is, who the previous owner was, how expensive it is to run and whether there is a guarantee. You can pay up to about £900 in cash.

Student B: You are a car salesman. You see a customer looking at a car in the showroom. The car is two years old and belonged previously to the leader of a local pop group. It does about twenty miles to the gallon. Your firm offers a three-month guarantee and can arrange hire purchase. The price you are asking for the car is £1,400.

During the activity, the learners' attention might be focused on a picture of the car in question, in order to add realism and avoid misunderstandings about its appearance.

In this role-play, learners are initially aware only of the overall situation and their own goals in it. They must negotiate the interaction itself as it unfolds, each partner responding spontaneously to the other's communicative acts and strategies.

As a further example on a somewhat larger scale, we might take the published role-playing activity *Detective*. This involves up to six participants: five 'suspects' and one 'detective'. Each suspect has (a) an identical plan of a house where a murder was committed, showing where and when the body was found; (b) information relating to his own role: his identity, attitudes towards the dead man and the other suspects, movements on the previous evening, and so on. One suspect's card states that the holder is, in fact, the guilty person.

The detective has similar information about the circumstances of the crime. When the suspects are assembled, he has to interrogate them and eventually arrest the one he believes to be guilty. Although his instructions are in the form of cues, they are at such a general level that the actual course of the interaction is unpredictable.

Ask them about their names and identity.
Ask them about their movements from 9.00 to 9.30 last night.
Ask them for their ideas about the murderer.
Arrest the murderer.

Once the activity is in progress, it is the detective who exercises general control over the interaction, by virtue of his role and the authority it gives him. This 'internal control' is a convenient way of ensuring that the interaction follows a reasonably ordered course – that everybody speaks, that the proceedings are terminated (through the 'arrest'), and so on. It becomes especially necessary as the teacher reduces his own direct control over the activity and as the participants become more numerous.

The learners' increased responsibility also makes it more important to ensure that they have adequate shared knowledge about matters essential to the interaction. Otherwise, they may form conflicting assumptions which make them talk at cross-purposes. For example, in the car-showroom activity, learners could easily reach an impasse if one assumed the car to be small and modern, while the other assumed it to be large and old. It is only through intuition and experience that the teacher can decide about (a) knowledge which all learners must share if the interaction is to succeed; (b) aspects of the situation and roles which can be left to each individual's imagination; and (c) facts that should be known to one or two learners, but not all. As in every other kind of spontaneous interaction, it is this balance between 'shared knowledge' and 'uncertainty' that provides the necessary impetus for communication.

Role-playing in the form of debate or discussion

This is a variation of the kind of role-playing activity just discussed. The situation is a debate or discussion about a real or simulated issue. The learners' roles ensure that they have (a) adequate shared knowledge about the issue and (b) different opinions or interests to defend. At the end of the activity, they may have to reach a concrete decision or put the issue to a vote. For example, here is an activity from *Over to you*. Learners work in groups of four.

You are a group of people who are anxious to help the old in your small town, and you have managed to make a start by collecting £1,000 from local inhabitants and holding jumble sales.
Study your role and then discuss how the money can best be used.

Student A: Role: Miss Julia Jenkins, spinster.
You feel that you should contact one of the charity organisations advertised on pages 94–95 [of *Over to you*], at least for advice.

Student B: Role: Rev. Ronald Rix, the local vicar.
You wish to found an Old People's Club which will meet in the church hall. Some of the £1,000 that has been collected was raised by holding jumble sales in the church hall.

Student C: Role: Mr David Hicks, headmaster of the local primary school.
You are anxious for the pupils at your school to play a role in helping the aged.

Student D: Role: Mrs Dorothy Foster, widow.
You think the money should be used to renovate an old country house which could be used as an old people's recreation centre.

The skills that learners need to practise are similar to those in the problem-solving activities presented in the last part of chapter 4 (4.5), except that here the social constraints are stronger. The activity is also similar in nature to the discussion sessions mentioned in the first part of the present chapter (5.2). Here, the simulated roles ensure that there will be sufficient conflict of opinion to sustain the interaction.

An example on a larger scale is the published role-play *Pop Festival*. There are three components:

- All learners must assimilate background information, in written and pictorial form, about a quiet country village and a proposal to site a pop festival near it.
- The class is divided into eight groups with conflicting interests: pop fans, festival organisers, farmers, village residents, a local family, the district council and the Department of the Environment. Each group must decide where its own interests lie and formulate its policy. The role-cards pinpoint some of the proposal's advantages and disadvantages.
- A 'public meeting' takes place, involving all groups together. The proposal is debated and a vote may be taken.

This example illustrates how a role-playing activity may integrate a number of different kinds of language activity, involving a variety of skills. Thus:

- Learners must first digest the information relevant to the issue. This involves them in reading. In other activities, it might also involve them in listening to talks or discussions. More advanced learners may be required to gather information through independent enquiry.
- In the second part, learners must discuss in a small-group context, where the rules for speaking are informal.
- They must present their views in a more public context. Here, there are stricter rules governing who speaks when and to whom, and a higher level of formality is expected.
- If he wished, the teacher could add one or more further components. For example, after the public meeting, each separate group could be asked to reassemble in order to compile a written report or newspaper article.

Large-scale simulation activities

We have seen from the discussion of *Pop Festival* how a role-playing activity can consist of a number of interrelated components. The logical extension of this is the large-scale simulation exercise, which may be as long and as complex as time and resources permit. For example, *North Sea Challenge* consists of three 'modules', each expected to last three or four hours:

- In module 1, each group of four or five learners represents an oil company which has just made a successful strike. After studying the relevant background information, they must evaluate the different possible ways of developing the field, and reach a decision on the best way.

- In module 2, the learners are oil-pollution officers. They have to decide how to deal with a major spillage problem.
- Module 3 is similar in format to *Pop Festival*. There is a proposal to site a steel platform construction yard near one of two small Scottish communities. Learners are assigned to groups with different attitudes and interests. Each group must prepare its case for or against the development, then debate the issue at a public meeting.

In some extended simulation exercises, gaming conventions are used in order to simulate the rewards and sanctions that motivate real-life interaction. For example, in *North Sea Exploration*, groups of learners form 'companies' drilling for gas and oil. Each learner has detailed information relevant to his own role in the company (engineer, surveyor, etc.). Each company must discuss and decide where to drill, and what equipment to hire. Chance now becomes important. Every company selects a 'weather card' which determines whether drilling can take place; 'news bulletins' introduce other unpredictable factors; and a 'master resource list' tells the companies the value of their strikes (if any). After each 'round', the companies hold separate meetings again, in order to review their results and formulate their plans for the next round. After a specified time or number of rounds, an overall winner is declared.

Large-scale simulation exercises have been most commonly used outside foreign language teaching, for example in geography (for which *North Sea Exploration* was devised) or decision-making (*North Sea Challenge*). They have similar potential for advanced foreign language work, since they provide just what these learners require: a realistic and integrated context for foreign language use. It is for this reason that *North Sea Challenge* is published both as a decision-making exercise for British secondary schools, and as the 'language use' component in a language-training pack for foreign learners of English. *Pop Festival*, too, is used to develop communication skills in both native speakers and foreign learners of English.

This common ground between foreign language teaching and other educational domains has one important practical consequence for the foreign language teacher: he is increasingly likely to find stimulating ideas and suitable materials by keeping his eye on developments outside his own specialist field.

Tasks for Intercultural Role Play Scenarios

In: Meyer, Meinert (1991). Developing transcultural competence: Case studies of advanced foreign language learners. Article in Buttjes, D. and and Byram, M. (eds.). Mediating languages and cultures. Cleveland and Philadelphia, Multilingual Matters, pp. 139.

	Written part	*Oral part*
1st year	Writing letters etc. in preparation for the invitation of a German class to the 30th anniversary of an English school.	Mediating between the mother of a German host family and an English student visiting the family. Topics: School uniforms, military service and conscientious objection, and others.
2nd year	Preparing business letters and private correspondence between a German and an American business partner. Topics: A wine deal breaks down; the partners quarrel about bussing and de-segregation in the USA and Germany.	Mediating between the German mother and the English guest student. Topics: School life and German and English food.
3rd year	Producing a text for a German school magazine. Topics: The North–South conflict and problems of Nigeria in particular; integrated tasks such as selling an advertisement in order to raise money for the magazine, etc.	Mediating between the head of the German school and a Nigerian exchange student who does not want to modify an interview he has given for the school magazine. Topic: The exploitation of the South and the role of the missionaries in colonialisation.

The Mercury Shoe Game

Sawyer-Lauçanno, Christopher (1987). Intercultural simulation. In: Crookall, David et al. (eds.). Simulation-Gaming in the late 1980s. Proceedings of the International Simulation and Gaming Association's 17th International Conference. Oxford, New York, Beijing, Frankfurt, São Paolo, Sydney, Tokyo and Toronto, Pergamon, pp. 195-199.

Intercultural simulation

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ABSTRACT: Simulations used in management training, if they are well constructed and played, can contribute to better intercultural understanding. The goal, however, of most of these simulations is solely to enable the participants to make effective decisions and devise strategies in relation to business practice. As a result, cultural dimensions are not reflected or examined in the simulation. In order to show how simulation can contribute to a better understanding of intercultural communication we played THE MERCURY SHOES GAME (at the ISAGA '86 Conference in Toulon), a simulation constructed around an intercultural business issue.

KEYWORDS: Intercultural, management, simulation, training

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INTRODUCTION

A major, but often overlooked factor in the success or failure of an international business operation is the intercultural relationship between the host and guest. In most cases the role of the guest is played by a multinational corporation; the host, by the native employees of the company in the country in which the multinational is doing business. Despite the importance of intercultural understanding in this type of international business, few management games take this issue into consideration. In order to acquaint the ISAGA '86 conference-goers with the way in which cultural issues can be integrated into the core of a business game, we played THE MERCURY SHOE GAME, an interactive in-basket management game, originally developed by the author as a segment of THE TIME-LIFE BUSINESS GAME.

THE GAME

The game structure itself is fairly simple. It consists of three variations on one basic scenario with accompanying documents: statistical and financial information, intercompany memos, letters and some general background information on doing business in Japan. The three scenario versions are as follows:

NY Head Office Scenario

Your firm, Mercury Shoes Corporation, is an American manufacturer of sports shoes. Since 1960 you have had a marketing subsidiary in Japan which has been completely Japanese-managed since 1972. Although sales were brisk in the first 15 years of operation, over the last five years there has been only a negligible increase. This trend is in contrast to the other international branches, all of which have had constant growth in sales during this period.

Since the subsidiary's founding, the Japanese marketing has relied on three wholesalers for product distribution. In the early years, these wholesalers were instrumental to Mercury's success, but it appears that recently they have been considerably less aggressive in their sales efforts. At the same time, both domestic and foreign-import competition has significantly increased.

At present the wholesalers' contracts are up for renewal. The Japanese office has recommended that they be extended, arguing that it would be a severe violation of trust to terminate the contracts at this time. A detailed memo has been issued by the subsidiary president (see Docs.) on this matter.

Your task is to go to Tokyo and investigate what can be done about increasing sales. The head office has further informed you that another Japanese company, Freetime Sportswear, has indicated interest in acting as a distributor for Mercury's products. Your New York managers feel that a new distribution arrangement might be highly desirable. They are aware of the difficulties involved in overruling the local management, but feel it important to make some changes. They have informed you that you might consider changing personnel at the subsidiary level, setting up a new distribution arrangement and/or investigating changes in product lines being sold in Japan.

Japanese Office Scenario

Your firm, Mercury Shoes Corporation - Japan, is a nearly wholly-owned marketing subsidiary of the American Mercury Shoes Corporation, a manufacturer of sports shoes. Your subsidiary was founded in 1960; since 1972 it has been completely Japanese-managed. Although sales were brisk in the first 15 years of operation, over the last five years there has been only a negligible increase. This trend is in contrast to the other international branches, all of which have had constant growth in sales during this period.

Since the subsidiary's founding, the Japanese marketing has relied on three wholesalers for product distribution. In the early years, these wholesalers were instrumental to Mercury's success, but it appears that recently they have been considerably less aggressive in their sales efforts. At the same time, both domestic and foreign-import competition has significantly increased.

At present the wholesalers' contracts are up for renewal. Your subsidiary president, Mr. Matsumoto, has recommended that they be extended, arguing that it would be a severe violation of trust to terminate the contracts at this time. A detailed memo has been isued by Matsumoto (see Docs.) on this matter. This does not seem to have impressed the head office, as they are sending over a marketing specialist from New York to "look over" the situation.

You are aware that the effectiveness of your office is in question and that it is probable that the head office will institute some rather drastic changes, possibly not only confined to distribution. Your task, then, is to try to convince the parent company that the Japanese office is capable of making the necessary changes to increase sales because you have a superior understanding of Japan, Japanese business and Japanese consumers.

Freetime Sportswear Scenario

Your company, Freetime Sportswear, is a relatively new and highly progressive Japanese manufacturer of sportswear. Although you entered the market comparatively late, you have managed to more than double your sales in the last five years. You have been able to do this through an aggressive marketing strategy, high-quality products and a wholly-owned distribution system with outlets in more than 1,100 Japanese cities. This network includes small and large speciality stores, department stores and general merchandisers.

Your major competition in Japan is New Life Sports, a company which sells not only sportswear, but also sports equipment and acts as an exclusive distributor for West Germany's Wunder Sports Shoes. You have learned recently that the American Mercury Shoes Corporation, which has a marketing subsidiary in Japan, is thinking of making a change in its distribution system. You have contacted the head office of Mercury in New York, after being told by the Tokyo office that no change was being proposed. You have learned from the parent company that, in fact, a marketing specialist is coming to Japan to investigate new distribution possibilities. You feel you are in an ideal position to negotiate a distribution agreement, although you realize that it is a somewhat sensitive issue locally.

You have a great deal to gain through becoming a distributor. Mercury Shoes had gross sales last year of nearly 900 million yen (200 yen = 1 US dollar). A recognized leader in the sports shoe business, they make high quality shoes, popular with Japanese consumers. With little effort, you feel you could sell their shoes, as the same retailers currently buying your sportswear also stock sports shoes. Your task, then, is to meet with the American marketing representative and attempt to work out an exclusive distribution arrangement.

THE GAMING SESSION

About 18 participants attended the session at the ISAGA '86 Conference in Toulon. After a few opening remarks, I formed three groups of about six each, and gave each group its scenario with accompanying documents. The groups were told to keep the information in their packets confidential. During the first 20 minutes, in separate parts of the room, the groups discussed the scenarios and documents. Quickly assuming their respective roles, they began actively debating the advantages and disadvantages of various strategies. Interestingly, a leader seemed to emerge in each group.

Within a few minutes, three distinct assessments, and hence game plans, emerged. The Japanese Office group immediately realized that they were on the defensive and that it was in their best interests to attempt to persuade the reprsentative from the head office that they were doing (and would continue to do) all they could to increase sales with the same distribution system. The New York head office group was initially unsure of what the best strategy was, but decided to arrange meetings with both Freetime and the subsidiary office. Freetime adopted an aggressive strategy, sending a representative to New York at once to contact the Mercury head office.

During the actual play a number of issues came to light, but predicatably the cultural factors seemed to be the least of the concerns. Almost all the participants, as in real life, focused on the bottom line. The New York group used pressure tactics on their subsidiary office to get them to do something about the distribution; Freetime eventually sent a whole delegation to New York to persuade Mercury to appoint them as distributors; even the subsidiary office failed to overtly bring up the potential flap that could result from up-ending the well-established relationship between the wholesalers and the Japnese office. The only mention of this concern was that it would probably be in the best interests of the Americans to allow the Japanese office to handle things the 'Japanese way'; hardly a strong defense.

Unfortunately there was not sufficient time to play the game to completion. When I stopped the action, the situation was this: The Japanese subsidiary believed that the American Head Office was sympathetic to its plight; in reality, the New York group was actively negotiating distribution arrangements with Freetime.

DEBRIEFING AND DISCUSSION

In the brief debriefing a number of important points were raised. The first was that although the cultural issue was in everyone's mind, almost all the participants focused on the business problem. Some remarked that for them, this was much easier to deal with than the cultural issue. One gamer, from the New York group, had become convinced that the concern about sensitivity to the host was a red herring and that the main problem was simply the subsidiary's financial performance. A couple of members from the Japanese office remarked that they felt enormously victimized, and to some extent this contributed to their inability to devise an effective defense of their position. 'All we had was the ethical issue - you just don't come in from outside and totally change the entire system we had built, and that had worked - but that didn't seem to matter,' one member remarked. Related to this issue of feeling powerless was the awareness on the part of the Japanese office members that somehow their countrymen at Freetime were making inroads on their territory.

In a long discussion with several of the participants in the afternoon following the session, other facts emerged. A couple of them remarked to me that they had wanted to bring up the issue of cultural sensitivity, but that as the dominant mood was so business-oriented they didn't feel they could really speak about this matter. Only towards the end of the session, did the perceived issue of unfairness on the part of the Americans begin to emerge as a potential issue.

CONCLUSION

The primary lesson to be drawn from the game session is that in the short term, at least, the pragmatics of turning a profit took precedence over any other consideration. Therefore, the debriefing is vital in creating awareness of the importance (or non-importance) of intercultural considerations, for while these issues emerge during the playing of the game, the profit-and-loss problem seems at the time far more important.

Having played this game with several other groups I have found that after a couple of hours, though, the cultural issues begin to become far more important, mainly because the Japanese office usually becomes quite hostile towards both the Head Office and Freetime. Occasionally, members of the New York group will respond to this and back off on making abrupt changes. In most cases, though, this does not happen. At times, the subsidiary office has taken extreme measures. Some of the responses have included: 'leaking' the news to the local press that Mercury, New York, is attempting to violate Japanese law; taking precipitous actions (firing the wholesalers, presenting new business plans) and in one game, hiring gangsters to kidnap Freetime's president.

The longer the session goes on, the greater the emergence of the cultural dimension. Even if time limits the play, as with our session, a debriefing can often highlight the importance of intercultural understanding, as well as the difficulties inherent in making this issue the central concern of the game.

SIMULATION REFERENCES

THE MERCURY SHOES GAME is available from the author. It was originally one segment of THE TIME-LIFE MANAGEMENT GAME, currently out of circulation.

The Leisure Centre

Eileen Vick 1993, adapted from Jones, Leo (1983). The Arts Centre. In: Eight Simulations. Participant's Book. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 39-46.

Controller's Notes

Description

The participants are divided into groups, representing different members of the management and staff of the Leisure Centre. Each group begins by planning the programme of events at the Centre for the next six months, paying particular attention to its own specialist area. What the participants do *not* know in advance, is that they are going to have to cope with rumours and letters concerning a serious financial crisis. The Board of Directors, via the department managers, are going to have to impose economy cuts, declare redundancies among the staff and perhaps close down some departments. The Leisure Centre is a 'model' of a hierarchical organization, where the staff only have personal contact with their immediate superiors or juniors. The 'Rules of the Simulation' allow for only one representative of the staff of each department (the 'Union Representative') to have access to the Board.

First of all, each group is issued with their day's work, which is to begin planning the future programme of the Centre. Then, one by one, each group hears different rumours on the cassette and is given different letters. Each group discusses the changing situation and decides what action to take.

The simulation has no predictable ending. What happens in the end depends on what the participants decide to do and their reaction to what other groups decide to do. Not even the Controller knows quite what will happen. (Do not reveal any of this information to the participants.)

Assigning roles and arranging groups

If you know the participants very well, you may be able to assign their roles in accordance with their interests. But probably you will need to form well-balanced groups on the basis of mixed abilities, nationalities, personalities and sexes.

With 12 participants, roles should be assigned as follows:

3 directors
3 managers   in 3 departments
6 staff

Organizing time and arranging space

Preparation The talking points, useful language and practice activities take about 45 minutes, longer if your students find a lot of unfamiliar words in the vocabulary lists. For the simulation itself, you'll need an uninterrupted period of between 1 hr 30" and 4 hours. There should be no breaks in case there is unofficial contact between participants from different groups. In this specimen timetable the preparation and simulation with a break in between are fitted into 4 hrs. (14.00 to 18.00):

14.00 Preparation:

1. Spend a few minutes on the talking points. Perhaps get the students to start off in groups.

2. Useful language. Check that everyone understands everything and that they can pronounce everything correctly.
3. Practice activities. Students working in groups should add more words to the vocabulary lists. Go round helping as requested. Get everyone to pool their suggestions when they are ready.
4. Working in pairs, the students should test each other on the vocabulary.
5. Make sure that everyone looks carefully at the background information.

14.45 Break

15.15 Make sure everyone knows the rules of the simulation. Go through them together.
Give out role information with the names and roles filled in and send everyone to their respective areas. Allow time for reading and questions.
15.30 Groups start making their plans for the Leisure Centre according to their role information sheet.
15.55 Directors receive letter from County Council. Staff and management hear rumour 1 on cassette.
16.05 Directors tell management about their proposed cuts - they may need prompting to do this. While this is happening, staff hear rumour 2 on cassette.
16.15 Each manager tells his or her staff about the cuts. While this is happening, Directors receive letter from Baron von Pfund.
16.40 Staff hear rumour 3 and then Management hear rumour 4 and then the Board hear rumour 5.
16.50 Each staff department receives a letter from its Union Headquarters.
17.25 Controller decides whether a General Meeting should be held now or to let the simulation continue.
17.50 End of simulation. It can just stop abruptly without any neat denouement. Set the written work.

(Times are approximate).

Each group needs its own separate area. Ideally, the Board should have its own room, the Management its own room and the staff their own areas of a third room. Alternatively, the Board and Management could share a room, but they must be in separate areas.

Follow-up

1. This can be done after a short break when the simulation has finished. Leave this option open in case the simulation is cut short for any reason.
2. See what everyone thinks in answer to the questions. Make your own comments on their communicative performance.
3. If the simulation ended inconclusively, what does everyone think would have happened in the end? What were they each about to do when the simulation ended?
4. Their plans for the next 6 months were probably pushed aside by more pressing events in the simulation. Let each group describe its plans if there's time.
5. Set the written work.

THE LEISURE CENTRE

What the simulation is about

You and the other participants are divided into small groups, each of which represents different groups of staff at the Leisure Centre. The Leisure Centre has varied facilities, which include a sports hall, a swimming pool and a restaurant. Each group plans the programme of events for the next six months, paying particular attention to its own specialist area.

Discuss in pairs

Which of these games and sports do you like and dislike (either to watch or participate in yourself or both) and why? Which of them would be popular in a leisure centre context and how much supervision would be necessary?

Athletics	Aerobics
Soccer	Trampolining
Badminton	Canoeing
Tennis	Roller-skating
Hockey	Jazz dance
Swimming	Keep fit
Diving	Table tennis
Basketball	Horseriding
Gymnastics	Chess
Table tennis	Cricket
Rugby football	Squash

Useful language

When talking about the Leisure Centre, you may need to be able to use the right vocabulary to refer to the different people involved and the equipment they use. Look at the list below and make sure you know the meaning of all the words.

Sports Hall

People involved	**Sports**	**Equipment**
instructor	5-a-side football	goalposts
participants	basketball	net
spectators	badminton	shuttlecock
	gymnastics	racket
	keep fit	

Events

match
tournament
display
competition

Swimming Pool

People involved	**Strokes**	**Equipment/facilites**
life guard	front crawl	sauna

spectators	back crawl	slide
non-swimmer	butterfly	whirlpool
swimmer	breaststroke	showers
	freestyle	diving board
		changing rooms

The pool	**Swimwear**
lanes	swimsuit/bikini
the deep/shallow end	bathing trunks
length	goggles
width	bathing cap

Restaurant

People involved	**Menus**	**Courses**
chef		starters
head waiter	wine list	main course
kitchen staff	à la carte	dessert
waitress	set meal	cold buffet
		cheese board

Service

efficient/inefficient
satisfactory/unsatisfactory
self-service/table service
cafeteria
check-out
bill
service charge
service included
tips

Because sport in the leisure centre depends on financial backing, you may also need some of this vocabulary:

Finance

sponsor	in the red	ticket sales
accountant	in the black	season ticket
official receiver	to break even	sponsorship
creditor	to make economy cuts	a subsidy

Publicity

marketing manager	poster	word of mouth
PR officer	handouts	special attractions
	mailing list	TV/radio commercials
	brochure	newspaper advertisements

Practice activities

In pairs:
1. The lists above give you only some of the relevant vocabulary to talk about each of the subjects. Suggest more words that can be added to each list. If you don't know the English word, use a dictionary or ask!
2. Divide up the different lists opposite between you and test each other on your vocabulary.

The Leisure Centre

1. **Our Aims**

The Leisure Centre has various sports facilities and houses the only swimming pool and sports halls in town. In addition it offers restaurant facilities. The aim of the Leisure Centre is 'Sport for All', that is, to attract members of the public of all backgrounds to take part in sports activities. Although the Centre is subsidized by the County Council, this subsidy only covers 40% of the costs - the rest must be made up with sponsorship and participant entrance fees.

2. **Our Organisation**

The Board of Directors (each director has a special responsibility)

Sports Hall Manager	Swimming Pool Manager	Restaurant Manager
Sports instructors	Lifesavers	Chef
Cleaners	Cleaners	Kitchen staff
Caretaker	Caretaker	Bar staff
Cashier	Cashier	Restaurant staff
		Cleaners

The financial side of the operation is controlled by our Board of Directors. The Board is responsible to the County Council for the efficient running of the Centre. One of the conditions of the Council's subsidy, which last year reached a million pounds for the first time, is that the Centre must break even.

The day-to-day running of each department of the Centre is the responsibility of the Management. There are 3 departments: Sports Hall, Swimming Pool and Restaurant. Each manager has to ensure that his own department attracts enough patrons to break even. He also has to deal with complaints and suggestions made by patrons.

This Week's Programme at the Leisure Centre

	SPORTS HALL	SWIMMING POOL	RESTAURANT
Monday			
Morning	School Badminton	Mothers and Toddlers	Snacks all day
Afternoon	Basketball	Over 60's	(self-service)
Evening	5-a-side football	Swimming Club	
Tuesday			
Morning	Aerobics for over 60s	Learn to Swim	Evening waiter
Afternoon	Gymnastics	Advanced Training	service
Evening	Jazz Dance	Canoeing Practice	
Wednesday			
Morning	Keep Fit	Lifesaving	Closed on
Afternoon	Trampolining	Open for all	Sundays
Evening	Badminton	Open for all	
Thursday			
Morning	Aerobics	Mothers and Toddlers	
Afternoon	Aerobics	Over 60's	
Evening	Basketball	Open for all	
Friday			
Morning	Jazz dance	Open for all	
Afternoon	Gymnastics	Open for all	
Evening	Roller disco	Open for all	
Saturday			
Morning	Aerobics	Open for all	
Afternoon	Badminton	Open for all	
Evening	Basketball	Open for all	
Sunday			
Morning	Table tennis	Open for all	
Afternoon	Table tennis	Open for all	
Evening	CLOSED	CLOSED	

You are ....

You are a member of the Board of Directors, with special

responsibility for ....

The Leisure Centre is in severe financial trouble. There is only one way to solve the problem:

MAKE DRASTIC ECONOMY CUTS TO SAVE MONEY.

If you can cut the Centre's expenditure, the County Council might agree to increase the amount of its subsidy to the Centre. Here are some of the reasons for the present crisis:

Sports Hall

Poor attendance, especially at weekends
Difficulty in recruiting staff for shift-work
Cost of recent new, better-grip flooring.

Swimming Pool

Too few swimmers attend morning sessions.
Heating costs have increased faster than expected.
Recent repairs to the roof were necessary.

Restaurant

Not enough customers.
Local people don't like fancy foreign food, they want good honest traditional British food.
The evening restaurant service is much more expensive to run than the self-service.

Here are some economy measures you could take:

1. Raise entrance charges (now one pound for one hour in the swimming pool and 80 pence for one hour in the sports hall).
2. Save on heating (now constant 20 degrees).
3. Save on lighting (remove some of the lighting in staff-only areas).
4. Freeze staff salaries (they are due for an inflation-adjusted increase next month - this is in their employment contracts).
6. Reduce numbers of staff.
7. As a last measure, even close down one department.

Decide on the measures you are going to take and then tell your manager to tell his staff at a departmental meeting.

You are ....

You are the manager of the ....

1. You have asked your staff to consider the next 6 months and to suggest ways in which the service offered by your department could be improved. They are now working on their suggestions for the next 6 months' programme.
2. Meanwhile, you and the other managers have to work out your solutions to this major problem:

THE LEISURE CENTRE DOESN'T ATTRACT ENOUGH PEOPLE.

Remember that it is your responsibility to 'encourage a high level of technical proficiency in sport' as well as to attract a wide audience to the Leisure Centre.

Here is an outline of some of the problems in detail:

Sports Hall

Poor attendance, especially at weekends.

Swimming Pool

Too few people attend, especially during the morning sessions. Heating prices have gone up more than expected.

Restaurant

The 'Speciality Months' experiment has not been a success. The restaurant is almost empty every evening except Saturday.

Prepare your ideas on attracting more people to the Centre. Submit your recommendations to the Board of Directors and explain them to the staff of your department when you are ready.

You are ....

You work at the Sports Hall at the Leisure Centre.

1. Elect a Union Representative (Shop Steward).
2. Your manager has asked you to prepare your recommendations for the future programme of your deparment. Work out a balanced and interesting programme for the Sports Hall for the next 6 months.

Here are some points you might want to consider:
Remember that it is your responsibility to 'encourage a high level of technical proficiency in sport' as well as to attract a wide audience to the Leisure Centre.

More competitive sport and training, or more 'Sport for All'?

How can more children and teenagers be attracted to the centre? (The most popular event among teenagers is the Roller Disco).

Should the Sports Hall widen its scope and introduce, for example, a weekly concert or jazz night?

Should entrance fees be charged for spectators to competitive sports events?

Should the Sports Hall offer a wider range of events?

How can you advertise what the Sports Hall offers?

Prepare your recommendations for the Sports Hall Manager to see.

You are ....

You work in the Restaurant at the Sports Centre.

1. Elect a Union Representative (Shop Steward).
2. Your manager has asked you to prepare your recommendations for the restaurant for the next 6 months. Work out a balanced and appetizing set of menus. Remember that there are plenty of other restaurants in the area, so try to make your restaurant really different!

Should you offer 'speciality months' with international dishes as you have been doing? If so, which countries should be represented?
What particular dishes would you suggest?

British food: should you open on Sundays and offer a traditional Sunday lunch? Should you offer traditional English food all week?

During the day, what snacks would you have on offer?

How can you link up your menu with special events in the sports hall and swimming pool?

Should you offer live music in the evenings? If so, what?

How can more children be encouraged to eat in the Centre? Special children's menus? What?

Prepare your recommendations, including details of menus and suggested improvements, for the Restaurant Manager to see.

You are ....
You work at the Swimming Pool of the Leisure Centre.

1. Elect a Union Representative (Shop Steward).
2. Your manager has asked you to prepare your recommendations for the future programme of the Swimming Pool. Work out a balanced and interesting programme. Remember that it is your responsibility to 'encourage a high level of technical proficiency in sport' as well as to attract a wide audience to the Leisure Centre.

Here are some points you might want to consider:

Should we organise more competitive events?
How can we attract more children to the swimming pool?
How can we encourage more people to come in the mornings?
How can we encourage more older people to come swimming?
How should we advertise?

Prepare your recommendations for the Swimming Pool Manager to see.

Rumour 1

You have heard a rumour that the management of the Leisure Centre are planning not to raise your salaries next month, although it is part of your contract that salaries should rise in line with inflation.

Rumour 2

You have overheard one of the Leisure Centre managers talking on the telephone and you caught the word "redundancies". Not only that, but you also overheard two cleaners saying that the Directors were planning to make half of the permanent staff redundant and maybe even shut down one department.

Rumour 3

You have heard that the Leisure Centre is in dire financial trouble and that there is not even enough money in the bank to pay employees' salaries this month.

Rumour 4

There is a rumour going around that the Board of Directors is thinking about cutting down on the number of staff in each department, including department managers.

Rumour 5

You have overheard two cleaners saying that the staff at the Leisure Centre are planning strike action.

COUNTY HALL, BARCHESTER, BARSETSHIRE

The Chairman
Board of Directors
The Leisure Centre
Bridgewell
Barsetshire
BR2 4FT

1 September, 1993

Dear Mr

It has come to our attention that the Leisure Centre is in severe financial difficulties. We wish to make it clear that there is no prospect whatsoever of the County Council grant being increased this year to cover the losses your centre has been making. In fact, due to the recession, we should like to give you notice of the fact that we are unable to increase your subsidy to cover the increase in costs due to inflation.

We can only suppose that the losses you have been making are due to poor financial management by the board. It is essential that you impose severe economic measures to reduce your expenditure and make the Leisure Centre as cost-effective as possible. If you do not do this, you will be running the risk of losing the County Council grant altogether.

Yours faithfully

M. Lloyd
County Treasurer

G & P CATERING SERVICES LTD.
LONDON AND MANCHESTER

The Chairman
Board of Directors
The Leisure Centre
Bridgewell
Barsetshire
BR2 4FT

2 September 1993

Dear Sir,

May I take this opportunity of writing to you in confidence to put forward a proposition which may be to our mutual advantage. Our company would be prepared to take over the running of the Leisure Centre with a view to turning it into a viable commercial enterprise. As you are no doubt aware, we have a great deal of experience in the running of leisure centres throughout the country.

I realize that we shall have to come to a mutually agreeable financial arangement, but can assure you that we will offer a generous price, based on the current market value of the premises. We would propose to improve the sports facilities of the centre, but to close down the restaurant, as it is not financially viable.

We would, however, insist on one condition, and that is that staff currently working at the Leisure Centre would be replaced by our own staff.

I look forward to hearing your reaction to our proposal.

Yours faithfully,

Philip Greenwood
Managing Director
G & P Catering

Catering and Services Union
National Headquarters
72 Tudor Square
Nottingham
NG2 6PS

Chief Shop Steward
The The Leisure Centre
Bridgewell
Barsetshire
BR2 4FT

1 September 1993

Dear Member,

It has come to our attention that there has been talk in your unit of taking unofficial industrial action against your Management and Board of Directors. Although the Union sympathizes with your point of view vis-à-vis the inflexibility of your Management, we cannot lend official support to strike action.

It is irresponsible of your members to use such a threat when the channels of communication are still open and negotiation is still possible.

Let me make our viewpoint quite clear: you must continue to talk and not go on strike. An unofficial strike would not gain the support of the Union.

Yours fraternally,

Midnight Passion

Notes on the above simulation in D. Wright (1979). The use of role play and simulations in the teaching of English as a foreign language. In: Megarry, Jacquetta (ed.). Perspectives on Adademic Gaming & Simulations. London Kogan Page, pp. 137-145.

I have chosen to illustrate the work we do by means of one of the case studies from *English for Decision-Making* (Black *et al*, 1973). It is called MIDNIGHT PASSION and is used with first-year students (aged 20 to 23) partly to help them get used to using role play/simulations material and partly to encourage them to speak without waiting for the teacher to ask them to speak. By the time they study MIDNIGHT PASSION, students have spent one month with us and have usually done two case studies, one general and one business-orientated.

The case is briefly as follows: The Midnight Passion Company Ltd decided to launch a new shampoo called 'Midnight Passion'; the actual launch took place in a glare of publicity and at great expense some nine months ago. However, reports are beginning to come in about problems which some people have been having after using the shampoo: apparently, a disfiguring scalp infection may be caused by regular use of the shampoo. A small statistical sample shows that about 1 per cent of users are affected. The company at once withdraws the shampoo from the market for checks (could there be some allergy involved, which had not been revealed during initial tests?). Before the company can do anything further, a powerful evening newspaper runs the following headline: 'MIDNIGHT PASSION: A HAIR-RAISING STORY — who is to blame?' The entire press jumps on the bandwagon and the company is forced to organise a press conference to clarify the situation.

This is the situation which the students find after studying the case; usually in France a connection is quickly made with the Morhange affair some years ago, when a number of small children died following the prolonged use of a talcum powder containing a very high concentration of hexachlorophine. In any case, students are aware of the problems of consumer protection and always have an opinion on the matter before work begins.

Student groups are usually smallish, 10 to 14 people. When we have studied the case and made sure that they understand what has happened, and when we have checked for any new or difficult vocabulary and expressions, there inevitably follows an improvised discussion on consumerism and examples of similar situations of which they may know.

The next step, since we must remember that this is a language class, is to have students give the animator any expressions they know for starting off and conducting a meeting. This is necessary because there will be a certain number of meetings throughout the case, and we want students to be able to conduct and control what is happening *in English* (this is typical of the type of thing they will have to do later in their careers). The whole class takes part in this rather traditional section, summarising material they already have at their fingertips, and adding one or two new items suggested by the animator.

The next step is to get students to think about what has happened and to suggest strategies which the company could adopt. They usually decide on the following, which are put on the board:

1. *Blame the government*
   (a) This exonerates the company but it looks as if they are trying to avoid the issue.
   (b) The company's action may be acceptable legally, but not morally — it looks as though Midnight Passion Ltd is not in the least interested in the health of the general public (its customers). Bad publicity may result from this.
   (c) If there is even a hint later that the company is responsible, it will be in deep trouble.
   (d) This is a negative reaction — no attempt is made to solve the problem.
   (e) It looks as if you are accepting that there may be something wrong with your shampoo; it is a defensive reaction.
2. *Blame the subcontractor*
   (a) This is extremely dangerous, since it says clearly in the contract that Midnight Passion Ltd is *alone* responsible for quality control.
   (b) As in the first strategy, it sounds as if the company is trying to avoid its

responsibility.

(c) As in the first strategy, no attempt is made to solve the problem.

(d) The company is openly admitting that there was something wrong with the shampoo.

3. *Blame customers*

(a) This time you do not accept that there was something wrong with the shampoo.

(b) There will be bad and aggressive publicity – you are publicly seen to be avoiding your legal responsibility.

(c) You are exonerated because people did not read the label before using the product (what exactly was on the label?).

(d) Only 1 per cent of users were affected; this could result from incorrect use/careless use/overuse/individual allergies, etc.

(e) To avoid the danger of bad publicity, you could point out the public's failure to read the instructions for use, and then magnanimously offer some form of compensation.

4. *Accept it was your fault*

(a) The consumer organisations will attack the company as being ruthless capitalists.

(b) You can neutralise this to some extent by offers of compensation to gain public goodwill.

(c) The company will be eaten alive by the press.

(d) The company is immediately on the defensive (always a difficult and dangerous tactic – cf 1 (e).

(e) You can prove your honesty and sense of responsibility towards the public by reminding everyone that the product was taken off the market immediately after the bad reports began coming in.

The class now breaks into two groups. One group, composed of four or five students, will from now on until the end of the case study be executives of Midnight Passion Company Ltd. Their first job is to have a preliminary meeting to decide on which strategy they will adopt in front of the press. The remaining students are journalists who are coming along to the press conference arranged by the company. They get on with deciding which paper they work for and with finding general questions to put at the press conference. The group of executives usually needs some assistance in building up their case and always needs some help in checking the language they are using and will need in front of the press. It is especially important for them to know how to reject any question they would prefer not to answer directly and yet remain calm whatever happens. This may seem obvious to the native speaker, but it is a major problem for the learner of English. He/she does not want, later in life, to commit some accidental *faux pas* which could easily have been avoided by a more careful choice of words. All this preparation goes on *in English* under the direct or indirect supervision of the animator, whose principal function is to act as language adviser. At this stage, his help and advice are often required.

After a period of between 20 minutes and half an hour, both groups should have had time to get their ideas together. The executives will have had the harder task as they have had to devise a strategy which they must all follow, come what may. They will also have had the problem of drawing up a statement which is to be presented to the press. This is a particularly useful and difficult exercise for the non-native speaker, in that it requires a very careful choice of words. Any slight inexactitude will immediately be seized upon by the press. When helping, the animator should correct any mistakes in English, but *not* any mistakes in presentation.

The press conference therefore begins with the managing director of Midnight Passion reading the press statement. Immediately afterwards the question-and-answer session begins. In practice, so as not to run over into the final exercise, it is a good idea for there to be a time limit of about 30 minutes for the press conference. At all times the executives must keep calm and not allow themselves to get ruffled or drawn into dangerous situations.

Many of the questions will tend to be simply asking for information about what has happened. They can of course be as direct as the students wish, asking what action the company intends to take now and in the future so as to avoid a recurrence of the same problem; asking about possible compensation; asking about the numbers of people affected (1 per cent or more). If the journalists so wish, they can go into detail about any aspect of the affair, and bring in invented incidents. In general, however, it is preferable for this question-and-answer session to remain simple. For the animator, its objective is to try and get everyone participating, asking simple questions and understanding simple answers *in English*. Linguistically, this is a valuable exercise for those who have rarely had the opportunity of speaking a foreign language in their previous language classes.

If the executives do their job properly, it should be possible for them to steer clear of any potentially dangerous questions; in practice this is very often what happens, without any intervention on the part of the animator. In this case, and so as to add a little piquancy to the situation, the animator has at hand some information which has just been released by the government. He can slip this to one of the journalists as soon as it becomes clear that the company is beginning to come out on top! Here is the 'new information':

- all the complaints come from the same area
- the customers had bought their shampoo in July and August
- a rapid check has revealed that a batch manufactured in June was not up to specifications
- the subcontractor admits to a mistake during the cleaning of a processing vat leading to a significant amount of Waxene (an industrial detergent) being left in the shampoo. 'Apparently' the regular shampoo does not contain any Waxene
- the usual quality control tests had been done and the Waxene went unnoticed. The head of the quality control unit was on holiday at the time.

It is written in the contract that Midnight Passion Ltd has sole responsibility for quality control.

When the question-and-answer session is beginning to lose momentum, or when the questions are beginning to become too detailed, the animator should ask the managing director to bring the press conference to a close. At this point, any language mistakes the animator has noted should be put on the board and commented on by the students. Wherever possible, a videorecording is also recommended. This serves the double purpose of being a record of the linguistic and psychological quality of the conference. For the animator, of course, the linguistic side is the most important. Nevertheless, since we in Le Havre are preparing students for a business career, it is also important for us to teach them how to improve their presentation of *themselves* as well as how to handle a meeting or press conference.

The final step is to have the class prepare for a TV debate in which the executives of Midnight Passion are subjected to the questions of members of the public, journalists, members of a consumer protection organisation and a Ministry of Health official (optional in view of the difficulty of knowing the exact legislation) -- all this under the supervision of a compère, whose job is of course to control the debate and see that everyone has his say. This debate should, wherever possible, be filmed so as to create the right type of atmosphere.

In the debate, the compère's job is rather like that of the managing director in the press conference. The Ministry of Health official is present mainly to clarify legal and legislative questions. All the others are present with the intention of giving the executives a rough ride! The consumer organisation representatives want to find out exactly what happened and to establish whether or not the company is guilty (checking of the shampoo, checking and withdrawing of other products from their range, misleading publicity, etc). The journalists follow the same general line, but they are looking for a scoop and should be encouraged to try to catch the company out, and put words into the mouths of the company representatives (a difficult but amusing and worthwhile exercise). Finally, the members of the public should be told to invent incidents that they know of, or accidents that have happened to them, through use of the shampoo. Most students have sufficiently vivid imaginations to be capable of finding not only intelligent possibilities, but also ludicrous and outrageous, even impossible, incidents. They should be encouraged and allowed to ask any question they like, however bizarre or ridiculous the incident which they have invented. In this way, they take part much more willingly in the debate, and they learn that it is possible to learn English in class and have a good time. My own experience has shown that this debate can go on for anything from 45 minutes to two hours. Whatever happens, its value lies in the students' using English to express themselves, not their own language. It invariably proves to them also that they are capable of sustained conversation in English.

When this debate finally comes to an end, it is good practice once again to go through the main mistakes which have been made. One must inevitably be selective, since it is quite a long exercise, but since, as always with this method, the exercise must *never* be interrupted by the animator, some corrections at the end are bound to be necessary. Ideally, one should also analyse the behaviour of the various participants, and the 'success' of one or other of the groups.

Framework for structuring feedback (1)

In: Goodale, Malcolm (1987). Meetings. Hove, Language Teaching Publications, pp. 108-112.

Observation Worksheets

These sheets are to help you in the follow-up work after the Meeting. They may be photocopied.

Comment Sheet

The Meeting

Did everything go as expected?

Were you happy with the result?

Is there anything you would do differently a second time?

Did you, or the other teams, make sufficient effort to reach a compromise?

The Language

Did you feel that your English was insufficient at any point?

How well did you get across what you wanted to say?

What difficulties did you have?

Self Observation

While you are listening answer the following questions.

	YES	NO
Did you listen to other members of the group carefully?		
Did you understand everything?		
Did you ask for verification when you didn't understand?		
Did you find it difficult to interrupt?		
Did you support your colleagues?		
Did your colleagues support you?		
Did you compromise?		
Did you have problems expressing your views?		
Did you notice any personal mannerisms you didn't like?		

Language Function Observation

While you are listening fill in the following table

LANGUAGE FUNCTION	CORRECT OR INCORRECT USAGE

What Exactly Happened?

While you are listening fill in the following table.

POINT RAISED	DID YOU AGREE/ DISAGREE	HOW?			WAS IT APPROPRIATE?
		Verbally	Visually	Not at all	

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Behaviour Analysis

For each intervention place a mark in the appropriate box as follows: $\cancel{||||}$ || mean that one of the groups has used a certain category seven times.

	YOU	YOUR GROUP	OTHER GROUP	OTHER GROUP	TOTAL
SEEKING INFORMATION					
GIVING INFORMATION					
BRINGING IN					
SHUTTING OUT					
BUILDING					
BLOCKING					
SUPPORTING					
ATTACKING					
PROPOSING					
CLARIFYING					
SUMMARIZING					
TOTAL					

Framework for structuring feedback (2)

In: MacGregor, Elspeth (1979). Feedback and evaluation of role-play. In: Staff of the Colchester English Study Centre (eds.). Lexden Papers. Essays on Teaching English for Specific Purposes. Oxford, Lexden Centre Ltd., p. 32-36.

MacGregor proposes that the evaluation session after a simulation should be run on the basis of notes of errors the teacher makes on a monitor sheet (an example of part of a completed monitor sheet is given overleaf). She also suggests making a tape or video recording of the role-play for later reference. For the feedback session itself, she advises as follows:

"For the evaluation session, the teacher's first task is to select those errors which will provide the most valuable feedback for the students. Clearly, the object of a role-play exercise is not so much error-free, native-speaker-like language, but rather successful communication; this aim will affect the type of error selected for correction and discussion.

Basically, errors which are of interest, as opposed to simple structural slips which the student will instantly recognise and remedy himself, fall into three categories:

(a) Those of pronunciation which can either affect meaning or prove irritating to the listener if constantly repeated.

(b) Errors of structure or lexis.

(c) Errors of appropriateness or register which can make the student appear aggressive or arrogant and which can prejudice the listener against him."

In addition to discussing such errors, MacGregor proposes a discussion of the following questions in the feedback session:

WHAT SHOULD YOU SAY WHEN:

You agree with the preceding speaker?
You disagree with the preceding speaker?
You wish to thank the preceding speaker for his/her speech?
You wish to ask for other opinions?
You wish to interrupt the speaker?
You wish to return to a point previously made?
You wish to state that the preceding speaker is talking **rubbish?**
You wish to make one final statement?

Example of part of a monitor sheet resulting from a 45-minute discussion role-play on the topic "Is Britain ungovernable?" carried out with a group of 12 advanced diplomatic trainees.

You said:	You should have said:
.... I must reproach you a lack of responsibility	
.... a Hobbesian war ...	
.... there has already taken place some abuse ...	
.... the secret ballot takes already place ...	
failed to reach this targets ...	
democracy/democratic/ insinuation/(pron)	
... should have control on the unions ...	
.... a few words to answer you madam,	
.... certain rules we are used to for centuries	
. I will make it very shortly	
.... insists in discussing our organization	
.... requires a profound common sense ...	
.... abuse(pron) of its monopoly power.	
the present TUC board	
. deviate/contribute (pron)	
I only want to give a few theses ...	
this? co-operation	
the govt. failed to reach this aim ...	
the ranks and files are simply fed up	
payment bargainings	
. no surplus any more available	
accusations ... the unions	
the unions get for their actions full approval of their membership	
products/ redistribute/ redistribution/(pron)	