

AN EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A
SIMULATION GAME IN HISTORY TEACHING
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

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A RESEARCH REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF
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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effectiveness of a simulation game in the teaching of history to secondary school pupils at matriculation level.

History as taught in the schools has for a long time been a source of criticism and many educationists are perturbed by this fact.

It is with this in mind that this investigation has been undertaken.

In order to facilitate the investigation fifty matriculation pupils were divided into two unmatched groups. One group, the experimental group, was exposed to instruction by the simulation technique and the other, the control group was exposed to instruction by conventional methods. Both groups wrote the same achievement test and the results showed that the control group's achievement was better than that of the experimental group. There are various reasons for this result as the investigation will indicate. It is apparent from the result that using non-equivalent groups for the investigation could not substantiate the hypothesis.

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work.

It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Education
in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination
in any other University.

John Montague Hoskins

Thirty First day of August, 1986.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is an integrated experience i.e. an interaction between teacher and pupil and pupil and pupil. Teaching and education have been for decades synonymous with textbooks, lectures, chalk-board and chalk.

Van Ments (1983), observes that "All too often one sticks closely to the well worn tracks that have proved comforting in the past without realising that there are other and sometimes better ways which may be more suited to the particular teaching task in hand." (P.9) He is referring to traditional methods of teaching (well worn tracks) and to other and sometimes better ways e.g. simulation games and role-play for teaching a particular subject or section of a subject.

A number of factors has combined to change the face of education and opened the way to new ideas and techniques. Developments in technical equipment to present knowledge to the student e.g. films, computers, video-discs are in use. It has become the feeling that there is place in many areas of education for techniques which focus on the student and his understanding, that involves him in activity within a group, that relate learning to practice and practice to real life. Simulations and games, indeed role-play, go some way towards providing these techniques.

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Many people interested in history teaching, high school teachers, University lecturers and examiners have become perturbed by the lack of students' understanding of concepts and intellectual

skills in history. They blame this state of affairs to the way history is being taught in the schools.

Steele (1976), observes that there is a volume of criticism of history teaching today and that much of this criticism is undoubtedly justified. History has an important contribution to make in the education of school children and therefore the subject should be taught more effectively so that children might gain the maximum benefit from the study. Dickinson & Lee (1980), suspect that for many pupils school history today is the same as it was for their parents. The all-too-frequent lecturing and note-giving which masquerades in some schools as history teaching is an affront both to real teachers and to history.

Gunning (1978), says that in recent years there have been three main influences on the teaching of history: Piaget, Bruner and Bloom. Piaget has greatly increased the awareness of the importance of concepts in the learning or teaching of anything, including historical material. Bruner's influence is twofold:

1. Hostility to the idea of subjects as bodies of information to be passed on from teachers to learners; that the goal of a learner who is taking history is to learn the characteristic procedures of the professional historian and to master the central concepts of the historical discipline.
2. An insistence that the learning of these concepts and procedures should start very early in a child's school life.

However, a third major influence according to Gunning is Bloom's taxonomy.

These three major influences have combined with other influences to produce a marked development in creative thinking, concept understanding and intellectual skills in history teaching. According to Gunning, History teaching in secondary schools is vitally concerned with understanding of concepts such as 'republic', 'revolution' 'industrialisation' and the improvement of intellectual skills like 'translation', 'interpretation' and 'extrapolation'.

Van Ments (1983), comments that simulation and games, or role-play, go some way towards providing techniques for understanding concepts and improving intellectual skills.

History simulations are based on the simple idea that pupils should act out the role of characters in history and as such it is a rationalisation of much previous classroom practice.

Furthermore as a rationalisation, it enables the techniques to be much more systematically developed and applied. Nichol, writing in 'Developments in History Teaching (edit. Ian Steele 1976) says that: "Simulation can function as a central 'spine' or theme to a course of study. As such it has been successfully used in the mixed-ability situation and served as a common point of reference for mixed-ability groups". (p.69).

Nichol says that simulations should be based upon resource materials so that the information fed to pupils and thus, the historical frame-work, be as accurate as possible. The integration of history games and simulations into a resource based approach to history relates to an overall programme of educational aims and skills.

According to Nichol, the most important benefit of simulations is that it introduces a major element of stimulus into a course and provides motivation in history. In particular it develops educational skills such as comprehension, translation, empathy, analysis, imagination and communication.

Nichol (1976), maintains that it has helped to make the study of history a lively and meaningful experience for the students involved.

Van Ments (1983), notes that simulations and games in the U.S. and U.K. are being used in the teaching of geography, history, chemistry, mathematics, social studies and religious studies. Languages need not be excluded.

The following are a few examples of what has been done in history in these two countries:

- (i) Sprague (1978), discusses rationales for simulation gaming and describes 'Spiegeldorf'- a socio-historical game which simulates socio-economic conditions in the early 1930's in Germany depicting Nazi party tactics used to gain mass support. The objectives of the game are to identify, describe German social classes and their fears and frustrations and analyse ways Nazism appealed to many Germans and increase student interest in the subject and enjoyment in playing the game. Each student plays the role of a Nazi organiser, whose goal is to convert as many people as possible.

- (ii) Keller (1975), makes suggestions and gives examples for

using role-playing and simulation in college history classes that are easily adaptable to elementary and secondary education.

- (iii) Campion (1977), discusses the usefulness of war games in high school and college classrooms, specifically games involving the role of Western Europe in World War II.
- (iv) Strozier (1977), discusses the use of role-playing in a college course entitled "Psychological Perspectives on Nazi Germany".
- (v) Miner (1977), explores the use of simulation and role-playing activities to teach students about life-styles, ideologies and political relationships in Asia. He describes a short-term role-playing technique and a long-term foreign policy simulation
- (vi) Eggleston (1978), describes how a role-playing exercise can be used to teach students about the use of the atom bomb in World War II.
- (vii) Makela (1978), describes and gives a resource bibliography for a simulation on the fall of China to Communism in 1949. By staging mock senatorial investigation students learn:
 - 1) how the Chinese Communist Party rose to power and 2),
 - how facts can be manipulated in various ways and 3),
 - how to perform research and analysis of written material.

- (viii) Kiernan (1978), describes a college-level simulation game about the French Revolution. Based on George Lefebvre's, "The Coming of the French Revolution", the role-play focuses on social and economic causes of the revolution and allows students to understand citizen's grievances against the French government.
- (ix) Moore (1981), describes a simulation game for junior and senior high school students in history classes. The objectives of the game, entitled "War and Peace" is to help students understand that similar events can be interpreted differently by different people.
- (x) Fouts (1979) describes a classroom game simulating the American westward movement in 1850. Designed for junior high school students, the emphasis is on decision making, clarifying values and understanding conditions of those who moved to the West.

From the above examples it is quite evident that many educators and teachers have realised the value of simulation games and role-playing as alternative methods and techniques in the teaching of history.

Unfortunately not much (if anything) has been done as far as simulation and games techniques in history teaching in S.A. History teaching to a large degree is still characterised by the use of traditional methods. This is especially the case in black, coloured and Indian schools. Very little innovation

as far as new approaches and techniques such as simulation and games, C.A.I. etc., are being used.

There is no documented evidence of any research having been done in the use of simulation games in S.A. Most authors on history methodology for S.A. schools e.g. Van Jaarsveld, A.N. Boyce and others, do not make any mention of these techniques. It is with this situation in mind that the present research is undertaken, hoping to pave the way for further research in the topic.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

History as it is being taught at present in coloured secondary schools on the Witwatersrand has invited a great deal of criticism. Specifically the criticism is levelled at the fact that history as it is taught in the schools is a poor preparation for taking the subject at university. University teachers find that they have to undo much of the damage they consider the schools have perpetrated. Then too, there is the criticism that history is losing its identity as a discipline in a world of "integrated studies" and "humanities courses".

Furthermore, criticism that history teachers are suspected of attempting to form pupils in their own image and that their main concern is the production of apprentice professional historians which is stultifying interest in the subject.

This damage is caused by the emphasis being placed on formal work, note taking and essay writing, especially in the secondary school. Teachers, it seems, either lecture or dictate to the

class. Discipline is rigidly maintained with conventional classroom seating arrangements and the history room (if it exists), appears as a sterile environment often containing little more than the pupils' desks and a chalkboard.

The above description of the teaching of history seems to be a valid one as it concerns history teaching in coloured secondary schools on the Witwatersrand. This investigation is therefore directed to the need for research into alternative methods and new approaches in the teaching of history in coloured secondary schools. Specifically this research is to determine the effectiveness of a simulation game in the teaching of history to secondary school students.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To discover whether simulation games and role-play is as effective or more or less an effective a method of teaching history as the traditional method.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

1. To motivate students by playing out roles of historical characters into understanding the same problems and decisions as figures in history had to face.
2. To aid students to empathise and appreciate points of view different from their own. By associating with the position of figures in history, the pupils are drawn into a form of understanding and an insight into character and motivation which might otherwise be denied them.

3. To aid learning and recall since they relate their roles to the simulation's historical framework i.e. they learn history from the inside. By acting-out roles and the active handling of historical material enables pupils more easily to recall the topic concerned.

CHAPTER TWO

CURRENT LITERATURE RELATING TO SIMULATION GAMES

The value of the teaching of history to primary and secondary school pupils cannot be overemphasised. As a subject which is part of an integrated "humanities" course or as a subject in its own right and part of the ordinary school curriculum, its formative value can equally not be overemphasised. Steele (1976), comments that history aims at imparting knowledge, stimulating interest and curiosity - showing how the past explains the present, developing an understanding of heritage and helping pupils identify with the past. History too, aims at enabling us to know and understand better our fellow human beings, it teaches us scepticism and critical judgement and it prepares us to face the problems of the contemporary world.

These are some overall aims which can only be realised in the distant future. Herein lies the formative value of history. In the teaching of history broad objectives deriving from general aims can be set and relating to individual lessons more specific objectives can be postulated, such as 'behavioural objectives' which means to prescribe an observable change in the behaviour

of the pupil. There are many arguments for and criticisms against the behavioural objectives model. One of the criticisms against the objectives model is that it is not really possible to frame objectives to cover all aspects of history. Steele (1976), observes that the importance of feelings and attitudes, imagination and creativity, making judgements of a process, are evident in history. According to him the objectives model tends to over-concentrate on areas that can be most easily stated in objective terms, while complex areas - particularly feeling and attitudes - are neglected. By concentrating on basic cognitive skills, the affective aspect of history is lost sight of.

In addition, Steele notes, that lesson objectives tend to ignore opportunities which present themselves and can thus become a strait-jacket restricting individuality.

An alternative would be the "humanities" approach where attention is focussed on stimulating any form of involvement with suitable subject matter and on recognising any of a broad range of desirable learning outcomes, including outcomes which could not have been predicted.

It is within the realm of this alternative approach to the teaching of history that this research into the "effectiveness of a simulation game in history teaching", is being undertaken.

Nichol (1976), has for the past five years incorporated a wide range of history games and simulations into his history courses in the secondary school. He successfully used simulations and

games in the mixed-ability situation. This situation is found among 'coloured' secondary classes and therefore has relevance for this study.

Nichol (1976), notes that simulations and games introduce a major element of stimulus into a course and provides motivation in history. It develops educational skills concerned with comprehension, translation, empathy, analysis, imagination and communication. Verbal communication between and among students was heightened and this broke down barriers so that the study of history was a lively and meaningful experience.

Gunning's (1978) findings as to what makes a good historical game are:

1. they are simple in that they present a simpler situation than real life and does not tax the teacher's research resources of time and material to make up,
 2. it has clear learning goals in mind and
 3. provides for extrapolation and also gives occasion for using other cognitive skills such as those mentioned by Nichol above.
- Games can be the precursor for discussion where concepts need to be understood, used, applied, examined and extended.

Gunning (1978), further observes that there is not a very clear cut distinction between simulation and games. He says that in a game the students are looking at a situation from outside. In a simulation they play the parts of people involved in the situation. Nichol (1974), notes that history games and simulation have

been increasingly accepted as an element in history teaching. He predicts that history simulation promises to be one of the more important and exciting branches of the rapidly developing "New History". It must be noted that simulations and games are but two of the strategies employed in the teaching of the 'New History'. Another has been the idea of the pupil as a proto-historian, gaining in understanding through the use of the historian's techniques of analysing contemporary source materials. But, notes Nichol (1974), resource-based "New History" could mean that the pupil would become too detached from the material he uses. According to Nichol (1974), simulation has much in common with this approach i.e. resource-based New History means that simulation can use the same material as a means to involve the pupil directly. The techniques imply role-play to place the pupil in the position of a character in history who has to respond to a developing situation.

Birt & Nichol (1975), note that an important aspect of simulation games are that they effectively aid understanding of historical events, situations and processes. In history games and simulations the pupils play the role or roles of characters in history. They are presented with authentic information and have to take decisions similar to those which faced historical figures whose roles they are portraying.

Nichol (1976), further notes that the most important benefit of simulations is that they introduce a major element of stimulation into a course and provide motivation in history. In particular

they develop educational skills such as comprehension, translation, empathy, analysis, imagination and communication. Thus they have helped to make the study of history a lively and meaningful experience for the students involved.

Outhbertson (1977), argues that in secondary education the emphasis is placed on formal work, note-making and essay writing. This is the situation as it pertains today and if pupils are to be believed, history lessons are often dull and seldom make demands on them. Outhbertson (1977) further says that challenge and illumination which are the means to clarification of the self and the world are almost entirely lacking, but they can only occur when there is involvement which creates tension and leads to mental activity. Involvement therefore, is the essential pre-requisite for purposeful learning.

Gwynn (1979), mentions that while history in the school has a broad appeal, it has been faced by attacks focussing on its supposed lack of "relevance" and therefore utility. But he says it is a subject particularly concerned with detecting, understanding and explaining change and that as a discipline it implies a particular consciousness of the uniqueness of events. Gwynn (1979), concludes by saying that fundamentally, history is a subject that cannot be taught, it can only be learnt. This is so because of its peculiar characteristic of being about people, their hopes, their aspirations and their achievements. It is unique among subjects in dealing with real people, not as units or agglomerations but as individuals and communities.

Gwynn (1979), further feels that history is probably the hardest of all subjects to learn, but it also makes it supremely the humane discipline: it evokes a passion, a hope and a concern with the human predicament which can never be irrelevant.

If the aforementioned is to be realised and interest of pupils maintained, their imaginations stirred and their intellectual abilities and skills, exercised, a more varied teaching is required. In this respect Cuthbertson (1977), agrees that some major modification in the classroom approach in the subject should be evolved. He feels that history games and simulations as an exciting new teaching aid is the answer to meet some of the specific criticisms levelled at the way history is being taught.

Games and simulations must not be seen as the be-all and end-all of history teaching but rather as a teaching method complementary to giving pupils a training in important skills e.g. the skill to find information in reference works as well as in daily newspapers, and periodicals, the skill to select data which are both relevant to the topic and historically significant, and the skill to state this material in explaining events or movements in history. History games and simulations also provide a teaching method complementary to the use of source materials both original and printed "Jackdaws". "Jackdaws" are publications of copies of original source-materials consisting of documents, letters, diaries, newspaper articles, drawings, pictures etc., of certain

events in history. "Jackdaws" are time-saving in the sense that copies of source materials are provided and therefore there is no need to go to the original sources which are difficult to obtain since they are found in archives and museums. Difficulties involved here are accessibility and distance. They are also good and adequate substitutes since the materials are facsimiles of the originals and can thus be considered authentic. To this could be added the film-strip and slide projector, epidiascope, overhead projector, tape recorder and record player, which are all invaluable in introducing illustrative material. The reading of historical plays and documents provides interesting aural evidence, while historical films combine aural and visual material. Outhbertson (1977), feels that all these aids are useful in helping the pupil to build up his own view of the past.

History games and simulations provide a teaching method complementary to these. Simulation both illustrate ideas and present evidence in a manner which impinges directly on the pupil's consciousness.

Tansey and Unwin (1969), note that the first formal use made of simulation and gaming techniques in education was in America fewer than ten years ago, but the method is so old that its origin is uncertain. Simulation and gaming has its antecedents in military training (war games). In this regard, it is said that chess is the oldest form of war games and that those tactical games that involve map manoeuvres have evolved from it

over a long period. These early war games were not played for pleasure alone. There were very definite rules setting out what the player could do, and what the consequences of their actions would be. Thomas (1957), describes a ,New Kriegspiel" which was first played in 1798 and was the first game in which maps were used.

Towards the latter end of the 19th century, army games were divided into two broadly different kinds, records Tansey and Unwin (1969). They were played to an elaborate code of rules, and were called 'rigid' war games. The second kind of games had an element of realism as their essential ingredient, and were played by large groups of military personnel in realistic situations, controlled more or less subjectively by umpires.

Hemphill, Griffiths and Frederickson (1962), mentions that military games had been played for well over 200 years before they were seen as being applicable to business and industry. The first published word about simulation in education refers to the project known as the Jefferson Township School District. It has a close relationship to the business simulations from which it originated in so far as its intention was to examine the "on the job" behaviour of a sample of 232 elementary school principals. Specifically this study was designed to come to conclusions about administrative performance and personality traits of the participants. In this very first educational simulation the point which was emphasised was the necessity to assume the role. The Jefferson Township type of simulation is a method

of training administrators in education and they occupy positions comparable to managers in industry.

Tansey and Unwin (1969), refers to Prof. Taylor of Bristol University who originated a series of courses for headmaster training while he was at Oxford. Their techniques include the 'in-basket' type and are very reminiscent of the Jefferson Township School district simulation. They have done a lot towards indicating the value of simulation as an instructional technique.

Kersch (1962), applied simulation in service teacher training in Oregon in 1961 when he built a simulated classroom at the Center for Research on Teaching.

Cruickshank (1966), and his associates at the University of Tennessee, have created the fictional school district of Monroe.

In this simulation each of the participants has to assume the role of a first-year teacher who is teaching the fifth grade at Longacre Elementary School.

In the classroom there is also an important part for simulation to play. This can be divided into two broad categories. On the one hand classroom simulations and games have been used to train pupils in the acquisition of content and skills such as the manipulation of questions. On the other hand, there are a number of simulations designed rather to train people in social and moral concepts which are less specific than the first set.

Tansey and Unwin (1969), mentions Allen, who developed a number of games designed to teach content of a mathematical kind, and to

improve the logic of participants.

Tansey and Unwin (1969), also records that amongst the second set of simulations and games there are various 'International Games'. These may either employ real situations and nations or they may use hypothetical ones. The leader and pioneer in this later form is North Western University where Guetzkow, Alger and others have developed eight different simulations. Other workers, including Coleman and Boocock, have developed and devised games at John Hopkins University designed to give experience and training in social living. More recently simulation has been used as a method of instruction in many different parts of education both in the U.K. and elsewhere. In Wiltshire, Aldrich conducts regular week-end simulations designed to train youth leaders and their assistants.

Tansey and Unwin (1969), record that in Britain, simulation does not seem to have reached the classroom to any significant extent so far, and where it has appeared it has been topic-oriented. Walford in London, has devised geographic games based on the model of Cole and Smith of Nottingham University. Van der Eyken has published results of limited experiments conducted at Rosebury County Grammar School for Girls, with games of the International relations type. A modern history package based on the rise of Nazism in Germany in the early 1930's is being developed by Burnett at Bulmershe College of Education as part of the Schools' Council sixth form general studies project.

Boocock & Schild (1968), mentions that in the area of history teaching various simulations and games have been devised, designed and developed.

In 1965 - 1966, Eugene Baker conducted an experiment with eighth grade students. One half of the students participated in a simulation of the American pre-Civil war period; the other half were taught the same subject matter by conventional teaching techniques. The conclusion of this experiment was that the traditional method of teaching American history to the above-average child in the junior high school may not be the most effective way. The simulation technique is a potentially more efficient means of communicating historical facts, concepts and attitudes to children at this age level.

Newcombe (1970), developed a war game for the fifth formers called 'Confrontation' which was a simulation of economic/military rivalry between East and West. The organization involved teams representing the following powers: Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary and Turkey.

Milburn (1972), records several simulations involving a wide range of political, economic and historical processes. Simulations such as 'Division', a simulation of the issues of the 1850's in the U.S. studying the political process of the election of a president; the Game of Empire, reflects the economic system of the 18th century Atlantic community in which teams of competing interest groups struggle for survival. The relationship of na-

tions involved in a series of stresses provides the basis for the 'International Simulation'; 'Trade and Discovery', a game which stressed the importance of discovering alternative trade routes to Asia, the relationship between merchants and the states in 16th century Europe.

Birt and Nichol (1975), developed resource-based simulations like 'Turnpike', 'Village Enclosure' and the 'The Russian Revolution'.

Bysshe and Gould (1973-74), two students at the University of Sussex, reading for their Post-graduate Certificates in Education (PGCE), developed two games as teaching aids. The first, 'Aggression' was designed to stimulate children's fervour as a prelude to a study of the origins of the First World War; the second, 'The Coketown Election Game', aimed to simulate an historical situation before studying in depth the Horsham election of 1847. The advantage of these methods in both cases is the direct and active involvement of the children concerned.

Simulation games as a teaching strategy appear to be gaining momentum as the following literature citings support this observation.

Keller (1975), developed 'Locating a Colony' which is one of the examples for role-playing and simulation activities in college history classes that are easily adaptable to elementary education. Postma (1975), carried out research on the effectiveness of simulation-gaming in teaching affective objectives in U.S. history to students of differing geographical backgrounds. The results

showed marked improvement in perceptions of the simulation-gaming mode of instruction at the end of the five week experimental period over those students taught through the traditional lecture-discussion mode.

Birt and Nichol (1975), devised, designed and developed six simulations with explicit information about age level, framework, equipment needed, steps necessary to play the game, instructions and activities for the students and applicable role descriptions for crisis situations.

Moore (1976), says that role-playing is a spontaneous play which traditionally has served many purposes including promoting socialization. It can also be a unique method of re-creating historical episodes in which past leaders or events can be brought to life as children assume roles of historical significance. To do this, the teacher selects unfamiliar events from history; the cast role plays their solution to the historical problem and the teacher has them consult sources to learn what really happened.

Cuthbertson (1977), quotes an example of a simulation on the Diamond Fields Dispute (1870).

Campion (1977), discusses the usefulness of war games in high school and college classrooms, specifically games involving the role of Western Europe in World War II. Twenty games are identified and evaluated in terms of strategy and educational value.

Strozier (1977), uses role playing in a college course titled

'Psychological Perspectives on Nazi Germany'. Student performances in various situations were videotaped and discussed afterwards.

Miner (1977), explores the use of simulation and role playing activities to teach students about life-styles, ideologies and political relationships in Asia. He describes a short-term role-playing technique and a long-term foreign policy simulation.

Victor (1975), identifies selected sources and resources for teaching world history. Among activities used are games and simulations.

Eggleston (1978), describes how a role-playing exercise can be used to teach students in a college level history course about the use of the atom bomb in World War II. Information is presented on the general use of role playing in history courses.

Debrowski (1978), suggests that character and personality profiles can heighten student interest in history. This article provides an outline for writing a report on a historical personality and recommends activities which involve students in simulation and creative writing.

Makela (1978), describes and gives a resource bibliography for a simulation on the 'fall' of China to communism in 1949. By staging a mock senatorial investigation, students learn:

1. How the Chinese Communist Party rose to power;
2. How facts can be manipulated in various ways; and

3. How to perform research and analysis of written material.

Kiernan (1978), describes a college-level simulation game about the French Revolution. Based on George Lefebvre's, 'The Coming of the French Revolution', the role-playing focuses on social and economic causes of the revolution and allows students to understand citizen's grievances against the French government.

Wright (1979), describes a decision-making educational game based on the pioneer experiences of British army personnel in Canada in the early 19th century. Procedures for playing the game are outlined.

Fouts (1979), describes a classroom game simulating the American westward movements in 1850. Designed for junior high school students emphasis is on making decisions, clarifying values and understanding the conditions of those who moved to the West.

Agostino and Hartman (1980), devised a secondary-level learning exercise containing two role-playing activities and a textbook analysis test which probe contemporary images and historical realities about the politics and economics of school support. Students are involved in data collection and analysis, group communication, inference making and value clarification.

Moore (1981), describes a simulation game suitable for junior and senior high school students in history classes. The objectives of the game entitled 'War and Peace' are to help students understand that similar events can be interpreted differently by dif-

ferent people. An exercise in writing history follows the introduction of the game, explanation of rules and evaluation of historical assumptions.

Reynolds (1982), describes materials, objectives and procedures for building a multi-cultural community, playing a game designed to demonstrate how our societal structure works in practice, mapping the history of a community, holding a town meeting, creating a myth and making musical instruments.

Schrieffels (1983), depicts ways to make historical figures come to life through classroom simulations. These include:

1. teacher impersonations of time-machine visitors;
2. public-address-system voices from the past;
3. mock trials, and
4. role playing by students.

Heuston (1983), developed a game called 'Feudal Nexus' which models the feudal system of the 11th century Europe for high school and college history courses. The game demonstrates the medieval dependency of social structure on land holdings and vassal obligations.

Thomas (1983), discusses three basic approaches to dealing with political processes in the secondary classroom.

1. Questions requiring reflection on personal out-of classroom experience
2. Simulation of group political decision-making that leads to

vicarious suffering.

3. Moving towards real 'here and now' consequences of group tyrannical.

Piggins (1984), describes how (i) children can develop knowledge and insight into history when they act out dramatic events of the past; (ii) creative dramatics serve as an impetus to further reading and research and (iii) suggestions for teacher use in implementing role playing in the classroom are given.

Milburn (1972), asked the question: 'Simulation in history - promising innovation or passing fad?' Cuthbertson (1972), seems to answer this question when he comments that there are those investigators who are very optimistic of simulations and games in the teaching of history. Motivation is an obvious advantage and simulation and games also enable the teacher to demonstrate the multiplicity of possible outcomes of any one historical situation. It thus acts as a powerful antidote to history being regarded as an inevitable series of events which have to be learned.

Cuthbertson (1977), continues with the argument for simulation and games techniques but he warns that while they have all these advantages history simulations and games are not a panacea, and it is time consuming. He goes on further to say that a generally accepted principle in history teaching is that any one method is likely to become progressively less effective the more it is practised. He suggests that a variety of methods prolongs the interest and concentration of pupils and heightens the effectiveness

of learning, making acceptable the repetition in new contents of material already learned, reinforcing knowledge, whilst at the same time creating new pathic understanding for those experiencing learning difficulties.

According to Outhbertson (1977), that if we are to restore the credibility of history as a worthwhile and enjoyable academic subject at high school, we must be willing to experiment and innovate, and provide the atmosphere which will prove to our pupils that the study of history offers "an opportunity of a unique intellectual experience, a rigorous form of mental training which has high educational value and a stimulus of imagination and understanding which can enrich a man's life by deeper insights into human behaviour. It is perhaps the greatest human medium of our time, educational and cultural. (Thomson 1969, p. 11)

CHAPTER THREE

THE SIMULATION

The simulation aims to illustrate the events in Russia from June to November, 1917. The players take the parts of different political groups during the Revolution: the Bolsheviks, Army commanders, Petrograd workers, and the Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries. Each group has to attempt to form a government by making alliances with other parties around an agreed programme of aims. The simulation is of an in/out tray type, with a News Sheet announced at the beginning of each round to show changes in the situation. A round represents a period of four to six weeks. On the basis of the News Sheets and the programme of aims each party has adopted, negotiation can take place. The News Sheets are printed in chronological order. About five 40 minute periods will be required for the simulation.

FRAMEWORK

The game

The pupils take the role of one of five groupings: the Bolsheviks, Liberals, Army commanders, Petrograd workers, Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries. If the game is played as a group role-play, the pupils identify with whole parties; if on a class basis they can take the role of individual characters. Possible roles

Historical actuality

After the March Revolution, 5 main groupings emerged in Petrograd, the capital of Russia: the Bolsheviks, the Liberals, Army commanders, the workers, the Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries. The situation was extremely confused, with different ele-

which can be taken are shown in the Role Table. To help decide which party to adopt, the pupils read 'Parties in June 1917' and work out the relative strength of the various groupings.

Each party decides on its political aims from the 'Table of Aims'. On the basis of these it attempts to negotiate alliances with other parties. Once an alliance has been made with a party or parties, the agreed programme of aims cannot be changed in order to make further alliances that round. Negotiation occurs on the basis of News Sheets. A news Sheet is read out at the beginning of each round.

ments jockeying for power.

The Petrograd situation in June 1917 is similar to that described in 'Parties in June 1917'. During this period it was hard to gauge the relative strengths of the parties, not least because of fluidity between them: Kerensky (Liberal leader) was originally a major figure in the Petrograd Soviet.

In June 1917, the parties held widely different points of view about policies. The range of views is outlined in the Table of Aims, under the following headings: war, the land, politics and industry. From June to November 1917, the parties were actively negotiating to gain power or strengthen control

over government.

Political decisions from June to November 1917 occurred against a background of rapidly changing circumstances. News Sheet 1 describes the situation in June. News Sheet 2 shows the position in July 1917 with the start of the summer offensive and the abortive Bolshevik-rising. News Sheet 3 describes the abortive Kornilov putsch. News Sheet 4 surveys the situation just before the Bolsheviks seized power.

EQUIPMENT: Pencils and erasers

PROCEDURE

1. Divide the pupils into five groups with roughly equal numbers in each.

2. When each group has decided which party it would like to represent (see Table 8.1.), allocate a different party for each group as far as possible according to choice.
3. Each group then decides on a programme of aims. This programme must be checked by the teacher to ensure that it is reasonable for the group (e.g. the Bolsheviks could not reasonably include in their programme A. from the Table of Aims)
4. A News Sheet is read out.
5. A time limit for negotiation is set, and negotiation between groups begins.
6. At the end of the negotiating session, the system of scoring must be carefully gone through and each group's Score Table quickly checked for correctness.
7. Continue with Rounds 2 and 3 as above.

ROUND ONE

1. The controller will lay down the time for the round.
2. Read the document 'Parties in June 1917' and then fill in the table below. For each point, give a mark out of 5. If you think a party is strong on a point, give high marks e.g. 4 or 5 out of 5. If you think it is weak, give it low marks e.g. 0 or 1 out of 5. Arrange the parties in order of preference, the party with the most marks being first. It may be possible for you to take the role of the party of your first choice; if not, the controller will allow you your second or third choice.
3. When the controller has agreed on your role, one of the

News Sheets will be read out. Combine this information with what you know already and choose from (4) aims from Table of Aims which you think will be best suited to your party. Choose one aim from each heading: The War; The Land; Politics; Industry. Indicate the aims chosen by writing their numbers in the spaces below.

Section	A	B	C	D
Number of aim				

Submit your list of aims to the controller. If your list is approved you can now begin to negotiate with other parties to form an alliance. If your list is unrealistic it will not be approved and your party may not begin negotiations. You must reconsider your choice of aims. Submit your altered list: if it is accepted, you may negotiate. If it is again rejected, repeat the procedure.

5. On the basis of your aims and the situation revealed by the News Sheets, you can now negotiate with one or more parties to form an alliance around an agreed programme of your aims, one drawn from each of the four sections. In order to reach agreement with another party you may have to change your aims. When you have agreed upon a programme, indicate the party or parties you have reached agreement with, and the aims you

have agreed to support in the table below. If you have made agreements with more than one party there must still be a single common programme of aims.

Party/parties allied with				
Section	A	B	C	D
Number of aim				

6. Scoring: this occurs at the end of each round.
 - a) Before a side can score, it must ally itself with one or more parties.
 - b) To score: using the score table below:
 - i) In column 1 write the numbers of the aims first agreed upon.
 - ii) In column 2 write the numbers of the common aims agreed on with the other party/parties.
 - iii) In column 3 write the difference between these numbers.

Then add up this column, and write the result opposite 'Total'.
 - iv) If an alliance has been made with two or more parties, write the following figures in the 'Alliance' section:

4 for alliance with two other parties

8 for alliance with three other parties
 - v) Subtract the 'Alliance' figure from the 'Total' and place the result opposite 'Final Total'. This figure may be minus.

- c) Transfer the figure from 'Final Total' to 'Score for Round 1' of the Results Table. If no alliance has been made write the figure 16 in this space.

Score table - Round 1

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
A	A	
B	B	
C	C	
D	D	
Total		
Alliance		
Final Total		

Round 2

- a) At the start of this round another News Sheet will be read out and announced. This will show changes in the situation.
- b) On the basis of your aims at the end of Round 1 and the situation which the latest News Sheet has revealed, revise what you think your aims should be. List them below.

Section	A	B	C	D

Number of aim

- c) Submit your new list of aims to the controller. If your list is approved, you can begin to negotiate for a new set of allies, regardless of whom you allied with in Round 1. If not, follow the procedure laid down in Rule (c) Round 1.
- d) On the basis of your aims and the situation revealed by the News Sheet, you can negotiate with other parties to form an alliance around an agreed programme of aims. In order to reach agreement with another party, you may have to change your aims. Once you have reached agreement upon a programme, indicate the parties you have allied with and the aims you have agreed to support in the space below.

Party/parties allied with

Section	A	B	C	D
---------	---	---	---	---

Number of aim

- e) Scoring as in Round 1.
Score table - Round 2
-

Scoring table - Round 2

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
A	A	
B	B	

D

C

D

D

Total

Alliance

Final Total

Round 3

a) Rules as for Round 2

b) State aims below

Section

A

B

C

DD

Number of aim

c) State alliances and agreed aims below:

Party /parties allied with

Section

A

B

C

D

Number of aim

d) Scoring as in Round 1 and 2

Score table - Round 3

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
A	A	
B	B	
C	C	
D	D	
Total		
Alliance		
Final Total		

Results table

Round	Score
1	
2	
3	

TABLE OF AIMS

Section A: The war

1. You are in favour of a full-scale attack on the German armies to turn defeat into victory.
2. You support a defensive war, hoping that the Allies will de-

feat the Germans in the west.

3. You are in favour of peace with Germany, but refuse to surrender any Russian territory.
4. You are in favour of peace at any price, and you will be prepared to surrender very large areas of Russian territory if necessary.

Section B: The land

1. You support the land policy the government laid down before 1914.

This allowed the wealthier peasants to buy their farms from the estate owners.

2. You would buy the aristocrats' estates and give these to the peasants.
3. You would confiscate the aristocrats' estates and give these to the peasants.
4. You are in favour of complete state ownership of the land, with the government running all farms.

Section C: Politics

1. You wish to create a government which represents the property owners of Russia - the merchants, factory owners, landed aristocracy, gentry etc.
2. You desire a popularly elected дума (a parliament based on the professional classes) which will choose a government.
3. You want complete workers' control over the government through their popularly elected assemblies (soviets). These

will gain power through duma elections.

4. You favour violent revolution. You are willing to use a private army to overthrow the government.

Section D: Industry

1. You would continue the present system of private ownership, with some government support.
3. You think the government should have full control over industry, while allowing most of it to remain in private hands.
4. You want complete workers' control over all factories, which will be owned by the state.

PARTIES IN JUNE 1917

The Liberals

They took over the government in March 1917, after the overthrow of the Tsar. Kerensky, a thirty-six years old lawyer and former Minister of War, has emerged as Prime Minister after the Liberal government was set up. Kerensky is in a strong position. He has the backing of most of the officers in the Army, as well as the industrialists. The government is committed to a programme of fighting the war more efficiently and it gained power on these grounds. At present it is actively preparing to embark on a summer offensive against the Germans. In the countryside, the government has not supported the peasants' demands to take over the land. In the towns, the factory workers are unhappy at the long hours they are still expected to work.

The Army Commanders

Their leader is General Kornilov, who supports Kerensky. The Army officers continue the tradition of the Tsarist regime and are determined to push the war against Germany to a successful conclusion. However, they are worried about the state of the Army, as there has been widespread desertion among the soldiers. This is because Bolshevik propaganda has stirred up a feeling of revulsion against the officers and the war. The officers support a strong, efficient and authoritarian form of government. Increasingly, they are concerned with the situation in the major cities, Petrograd and Moscow, and in the countryside where a great number of estates have already been taken over by the peasants.

The Petrograd Workers

They are in an unsettled mood. They are represented in the Petrograd Soviet and are already pressing for an end to the war. Their main area of power is in the working-class districts, where low wages and rising prices have caused unrest. The workers favour the idea of the government taking over industry. A major element in their ranks are the soldiers who have deserted from the front, and who have been influenced by socialist preaching. In the March Revolution, the soldiers played an important part and were joined by the Tsarist garrison. At nearby Kronstadt, the sailors are an important revolutionary element, ready to rebel against their officers and support any party which will

meet their demands.

The Mensheviks and the Social Revolutionaries

They are the two most powerful revolutionary parties, and they dominate the Petrograd Soviet. The Social Revolutionaries support the policy of sharing out the lands of the great estate owners among the peasants. Originally they supported the war and Kerensky was one of their leaders, but they have become increasingly pacifist. The other group, the Mensheviks, is based in the cities and it is the most important party in the Soviet. They back a programme of state ownership of industry and of the land. They are committed to a popularly elected and democratic government. A problem of the Mensheviks is that they do not have a strong leader and they oppose the use of force.

The Bolsheviks

Their leader is Lenin and they believe in the same programme as the Mensheviks, but they are much more interested in seizing power through armed revolution. Although they are few in number, they are extremely well organised. With Trotsky in charge of their military affairs they can clearly pose a major threat through enrolling ex-soldiers in Petrograd and sailors in Kronstadt. Already they are forming their own private army, The Red Guard. However, they have one major disadvantage; namely that their leaders returned to Russia after a long period of exile. The German government sent these leaders back to cause trouble and weaken the Russian war effort.

The question of whether they are German agents has made the other parties suspicious of them. Since returning, Lenin has been busy organizing the Bolsheviks and promoting the slogans of 'Peace, bread and land' and 'Power to the soviets'.

NEW SHEETS

News Sheet 1

The situation in the Russian capital, Petrograd, is very tense. The war is going badly, but the Liberal government under Kerensky is about to launch a major offensive against the Germans. Kerensky had just returned from the front, where he has been visiting the troops to encourage them to make a final effort for victory. In Moscow he has rallied the industrialists, bankers and professional men to support the campaign. However, in Petrograd he is faced with the powerful opposition of the Bolsheviks: they have only a small minority in the Soviet, but there are 50 000 men in their party and they have close ties with the sailors at Kronstadt. In the countryside, with the encouragement of the Social Revolutionaries the peasants are still taking over the estates of the great landowners.

News Sheet 2

The campaign against the Germans has got off to a flying start. Support has rallied to Kerensky and the government. The Austrian and German forces have been thrown back about 96 kilometers. However, the Bolsheviks have seized upon the existing war-weariness of the ex-soldiers in Petrograd and the sailors at Kronstadt

and have mounted a mass demonstration against the government. A large force of Kronstadt sailors, claiming to support the Bolsheviks, has marched on the headquarters of the government. The situation is confused, but it seems that a large number of Bolsheviks have joined the sailors. Lenin and the other Bolshevik leaders have claimed that they have nothing to do with the rising. News has arrived that the government forces have the situation under control and have routed the demonstrators.

Clearly there has been a botched attempt at a rising in Petrograd. Otherwise the situation is relatively unchanged. Industry is still working flat out, with the Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries sticking to their programme, Kerensky seems as determined as ever to push the war programme, but in domestic affairs he seems to have little hope of stopping the peasant takeover of the land. Although the Social Revolutionaries and the Mensheviks are in favour of peace, they do not want to be accused of breaking Russia's alliance with Britain and France.

News Sheet 3

News has been received of major Allied reverses on the Western Front. Large numbers of Russian deserters have entered Petrograd and swelled the numbers of the unemployed. With rising prices and no wage increases, the workers are in an ugly mood. There are reports that the Army commander, General Kornilov, has decided to march on Petrograd and take over the government. Relations between him and Kerensky have been strained for some

time, although there are rumours that Kerensky intends to support a military takeover. Information has just arrived that Kornilov is definitely moving his troops towards the capital. If this is true, it could mean the end of the revolutionary movement. The Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries are still opposed to any attempts to force the government's hand, because they do not believe that it is time for the working class to take power. The Bolsheviks claim that Kerensky has asked for their help against Kornilov. They have organised their military support into an army, the Red Guard. The government has completely lost control over the countryside, where the Social Revolutionaries are dominant. Only the Bolsheviks are making a move for peace at any price, although the Petrograd workers would be willing to see an end to the war, and a return to peace and industrial prosperity.

News Sheet 4

Since the failure of Kornilov's rising, and his arrest, the Army commanders have been hostile to Kerensky. The refusal of their forces to support Kornilov means that they are in a weak position, although still committed to the war. Kerensky is desperately searching for support after the complete failure of the war effort and the approach of the German armies towards Moscow. In Petrograd, the workers conditions have become worse, and the Bolsheviks are encouraging them to oppose the government and push for a peace agreement. Industry is declining fast as the government collapses. Petrograd is virtually isolated from the rest

of Russia, and the sailors of Kronstadt seem to be preparing to rise against the government. They are in close touch with the Bolsheviks. The Mensheviks still support constitutional government, and are opposed to the use of force.

ROLE TABLE

Take the role allocated to you. The numbers refer to the number of players in each group.

The Bolsheviks

1. Lenin
2. Trotsky
3. Krupskya, Lenin's wife
4. Stalin, editor of Pravda
5. Member of the Petrograd soviet
6. Leader of the Kronstadt sailors
7. Leader of a group of deserters and a member of the Red Guard
8. Petrograd worker and a member of the Red Guard

The Liberals

1. Kerensky
2. Foreign Minister
3. Domestic Minister
4. War Minister
5. Industrialist
6. Banker
7. Ex-royalist

8. Schoolmaster

The Army Commanders

1. Kornilov
2. Chief-of-staff
3. Commander of the army at the front
4. Second-in-command of the army at the front
5. Officer from a noble family which has lost estates to the Revolutionaries: serving at Kornilov's headquarters.
6. Commander in Petrograd garrison
7. Commander in Moscow garrison
8. Commander of the navy

The Petrograd Workers

1. Member of the Soviet
2. Steel worker
3. Worker in a cotton mill
4. Unemployed labourer
5. Kronstadt radical
6. Kronstadt sailor
7. Ex-soldier
8. Deserter

Mensheviks and Social Revolutionaries

1. Dan, leader of the Social Revolutionaries
2. Leader of the Mensheviks

3. Menshevik member of the Soviet
4. Menshevik member of the Soviet
5. Social Revolutionary and a member of the Soviet
6. Social Revolutionary returned from helping to take over
aristocrats' estates.
7. Social Revolutionary return from advising peasants on the use
of their new land
8. Menshevik worker

NOTE:

Sources used by Birt & Nichol (1975) in their:

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CHAPTER 4

THE RESULTS OF A SIMULATION OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION DEALING WITH THE EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE IN RUSSIA FROM JUNE TO NOVEMBER, 1917

This chapter reports the results of an experiment conducted during the period 20th to the 24th January, 1986 with final year matriculation pupils. Fifty pupils participated in the experiment drawn from two secondary schools, School X and School Y. Twenty pupils from School Y participated in the simulation designed by Birt and Nichol, the other thirty pupils were taught the same subject matter by conventional methods.

The objective was to determine whether teaching history by a simulation game could increase learning relative to teaching by conventional or traditional methods. Specifically, the impact of a simulation experience was compared to that of conventional teaching in respect to the pupils immediate learning, their retention of the material learned and their attitudes to history. The fifty pupils were divided into two unmatched groups. The group (30) coming from School X was the control group and the other group (20) coming from School Y constituted the experimental group.

Measurements

A test was constructed to measure the knowledge of Russian history of 1917 based on items similar to those found in ordinary textbooks.

Initially 50 test items were constructed and subjected to a pre-test; reliability was measured and the test revised. The final test included 35 test items. (Appendix A)

The constructed test was of the pencil-and-paper type and in order to limit subjectivity the test items were of the direct short question type, requiring a one-word answer or a sentence/s.

Specific directions were furnished to the scorers of the tests along with scoring keys.

Content validity was established. The test constructor/researcher took a representative sample of the universe of the content that the test was designed to measure. This was compared to the content of the test. The universe of the content is shown in Chapter 3 of this research report viz. the Simulation. Examples of test items:

Who was the leader of the Mensheviks?

Who was the leader of the Bolsheviks?

Who were the Petrograd workers?

Who was Kerensky?

The reliability of the test was based on the test-retest method. The scores were correlated and a fair degree of correlation was found between the mean scores obtained.

The first test gave a mean score of 52,4. The retest a mean score of 63,4

Procedure

An opinionnaire was developed to measure the attitudes of the pupils to history as a subject. (Appendix B). The results showed that in the main the pupils were favourably disposed to the subject.

Examples:

"I like history". All the pupils answered in the affirmative. Their attitudes to the teaching of history showed that they wanted a change in the conventional methods of presentation.

Example:

"More interesting and stimulating methods of presentation should be used", 90% affirmative. "History teaching should lead the pupil to acquire information and to draw conclusions", 90% affirmative.

"Methods of teaching history should be based on inquiry", 95% affirmative.

Their opinions regarding the conventional methods of teaching history also showed that most of them did not agree with these methods.

Example:

"History as taught demands on the pupils memorisation of a mass of facts and dates", 75% agreed. "History is too text-book oriented", 80% agreed. "History as taught in the schools is boring and tedious", 85% agreed.

As to the educational value of the subject, history, if taught less conventionally and more innovatively the pupils agreed, would broaden their perspective of present day problems, influence their moral lives, can be very informative, would engender empathy with past generations' attempts to improve their

lives.

The procedure for the simulation is described in Chapter 3. The class taught by conventional methods used their textbooks and covered the same content as the simulation. In the conventional class the teacher presented the historical material stated in the textbook, each pupil read the material, discussed it briefly in class and was occasionally given some of the questions at the end of the chapter in the textbook to work out or to discuss in class orally. This class procedure each day was the same.

Findings

Table 1 presents mean pre- and post-test scores on the knowledge test for the experimental group and the control group.

Class		Pre-test	Post-test	N
Experimental Y		32,0	36,6	20
Control	X	50,4	59,6	30

It is immediately seen that the raw scores of the control group were superior to the experimental group at both pre-test and post-test level.

In order to test the statistical significance an analysis of the significant difference between the two groups was prepared (Table 2)

Table 2

Obtained t-value	Tabled t-value
2,81	2,02 Pre-test
2,49	2,02 Post-test

Tabled t-values taken from Table III of Fisher and Yates:
Statistical Tables for Biology, Agriculture, Medical Research,
Longman Group, Ltd, London.

Since 2,81 is larger than 2,02, the result at the pre-test level was significantly different. This means that the control group's entry behaviour was significantly superior to that of the experimental group.

Similarly 2,49 is larger than 2,02, the result at the post-test level was also significantly different. The control group therefore achieved significantly better results than the experimental group and that the results of pre-test and post-test were consistent with the performance of both groups at these levels.

From this it can be concluded that there is a vast disparity between the two groups and that the experimental group did not perform as well as the control group after having been given the simulation experience.

The fact that the entry behaviour of the experimental group was poor as evidenced by the mean scores of the pre-test, may suggest that this group lacked in ability, motivation, interest and re-

call. Furthermore, being accustomed to an objectives model type of instruction which is geared to learning by rote and then being exposed to a process model type of instruction such as simulation games, the results as indicated by the mean scores of the post-test suggest that this group could not cope with the new experience. They therefore could not internalise the subject matter and so could not actualise their learning in the tests.

The control group's entry behaviour on the other hand, as shown by the mean scores of the pre-test, suggests that this group had more ability, motivation, interest and recall. Even though they too, were exposed to the objectives model type of instruction for many years, but because of their ability and motivation to learn facts, plus their ability to retain and recall facts they performed better at both pre-test and post-test levels.

It is possible, based on these findings that if the control group had been given the simulation experience that the hypothesis would have been confirmed i.e. that simulation games as a teaching aid will have a positive effect on the learning of pupils taking history at the secondary school level.

Alternatively, if the groups were matched and consisted of pupils taken from both groups then the hypothesis would have been confirmed. Unfortunately, logistically this would have been very difficult due to transport problems, the time-factor in the sense that the teaching would have had to take place after

school, which meant that the availability of both teacher and pupils would be difficult.

To substantiate what has been said above, it must be appreciated that this research conforms more or less to the quasi-experimental design in the sense that no randomisation was used. This is so because of the fact that random selection was impracticable due to various constraints. It was impossible to randomly select the pupils from the two schools or to involve more schools in the experiment, because this would have disrupted the programmes and time-tables of these schools. Extra-mural grouping would logistically be impossible as indicated previously. Therefore the design consisted of two non-equivalent groups. This factor is a weakness in the design as evidenced by the raw scores of the two groups which revealed the superiority of the control group X. The equivalence of the groups could be strengthened by matching followed by random assignment to the Experimental and Control treatments. If this could have been done then it is possible that the hypothesis would have been confirmed. There is no statistical regression between pre-test and post-test of the Control group and of the Experimental group and is therefore consistent with the fact that the E - group pupils were inferior to the C-group pupils as to ability, retention and recall. It is a known fact that pupils from the C-group (School X) achieve better results at matriculation level than the E-group (School Y) pupils. This contention is statistically substantiated later on in this dis-

cussion. It is possible that changes in the skills and levels of concentration over the course of the experiment could have contributed to the poor performance of the E-group.

These are some of the clouding conditions that threatened to jeopardise the validity of the experiment and which are of greater consequence to the validity of quasi-experiments where no randomisation is applied.

While it is true that those participating in the experiment may be representative of an available population, they may not be representative of the population to which the experimenter/researcher seeks to generalise his findings. It may be that in the context of this experiment that the null hypothesis was confirmed i.e. that hypothesis 1 and 2 were not confirmed and that if the experiment was conducted with representatives from another population, that the hypothesis would have been confirmed.

It is also possible that the so-called Hawthorne effect may have contaminated the experimental treatment, where the subjects realised their role as guinea pigs and this factor may have affected their learning, retention and recall.

The research however, did show as far as the third hypothesis is concerned, that the experimental group's attitude to history was positively affected and that in fact these pupils enjoyed the simulation and they may or may not have acquired: 1) Some in-

sight into historical processes; 2) empathy with the characters in the simulation; 3) related learning to practice; 4) self-discovery which aroused interest and motivated the pupils to self-study and; 5) the pupils found it entertaining thereby making history a less tedious and boring a subject. These conclusions were derived after an interview with the experimental group pupils.

Interview with pupils who participated in the simulation

This revealed the following:

1. Simulation games are very interesting and that they became actively involved with what they were doing, but that they should have been given facts to learn.
2. They thought that simulation games could increase discussion and self-discovery.
3. Simulations were less authoritarian and more democratic in the sense that they could voice their own opinions.
4. Simulations heightened empathy with historical situations.
5. Most students felt that simulation was a better method and far more stimulating than the conventional method, but because this was their first experience of this method not much actual learning took place. They felt that the conventional method was dull and boring and that with simulation they were actively involved but unfortunately there was little consolidation.
6. All of the students felt that "time" was a factor.

The needed more time especially because this was a one shot experiment, to conclude alliances, and getting a global view of the whole area of the content.

7. Their attitude to history was positively affected because they felt that their understanding was increased, they learned some intellectual skills such as interpretation, conceptualisation, extrapolation and analysis.

This was not the case with the conventional method which they felt compressed too much passivity, note-taking and rote learning.

Interview with teacher who conducted the experiment

In an interview with the teacher who conducted the simulation the following views came to light:

1. There was a delay of some 4 days between the simulation and the post-test and this could have affected the pupils' retention.
2. The type of question asked was on the universe of the content of the simulation and because each group only had their own content little was known of the content of the other groups.
3. The time allocated for the simulation was too short so that classroom and extra-classroom discussion between groups was minimal.
4. Preparation of the pupils for and presentation of the simulation could have been more intensive.

5. There was a lack of consolidation of subject content which is normal with the conventional method.
6. The pupils could not easily bridge the gap between conventional teaching and the simulated teaching. They had not done any thing like this before.
7. The teacher suggested that the simulation as a whole should be made available to each participant so that he/she could get a global view of the simulation.

From the afore-mentioned views one gets the impression that if the experiment were to be repeated that greater success might be achieved.

Discussion and possible reasons for these findings

1. The test based on direct knowledge i.e. knowledge of specifics, knowledge of terminology e.g. "What is meant by Bolshevik?" "What is meant by Menshevik?" "What is the difference between the Bolsheviks ideals and the Mensheviks ideals?" etc., might have given undue weight to aspects of the syllabus most heavily stressed by the conventional programme. It is my considered opinion that the test perhaps neglected to test important learnings produced by the simulation such as knowledge of processes, knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics, directions and movements of history with respect to time e.g. understanding of the continuity and development of the Communist Revolution as exemplified and which began with the events during the period June to

November 1917, skill in predicting continuation of trends, skill in comprehending the interrelationships among the various parties i.e. Bolshevik, Menshevik, Army Commanders, Petrograd workers.

This contention seems to be verified by the comments made by the teacher of the experimental group where she states: "There was a lack of consolidation of subject content which is normal with the conventional method". One could therefore conclude that in her own mind and therefore in her approach there was a lack of clarity of the difference between an objective centred approach and that embodied in a process model such as simulation games. It furthermore also suggests that it is quite possible that the post-test may have been more content oriented than was the intention. The fact that the pupils found it necessary to state that they enjoyed the new approach because they were not asked to learn facts, but to enjoy history leaves one with the thought that they saw the experience as enjoyable and not necessarily as a learning experience. The simulation had in fact influenced their attitude towards history in that they, through it, could experience history. This should be the first step in understanding history and that therefore this represented a shift in their relationship to the subject, as an important goal had been realised. The whole question of understanding as opposed to the memorisation of facts is crucial to the argument. If it is

that they could not recall facts, but indeed had developed a better understanding of the process, then indeed a progress had possibly been registered which was not measured by the test, or that insufficient time was allowed for the pupils to be fully accustomed to the process as a means of learning.

2. A second possible reason could be that the structured simulation was run on consecutive days and this factor does not give the best results. The pupils must have time to discuss both inside and outside the classroom, the events of the game, their significance and the future problems to be resolved. On alternate days, the simulation may be used in combination with group activity, readings, student reports, and/or discussion of historical problem areas connected with the topic of the simulation, or information on current available historical material dealing with the topic both in the classroom and in the library which may assist the players in the various parties in the simulation at arriving at decisions. The question which arises is whether the pupils were afforded the time and educational environment in which to completely internalise the simulation process, needs to be answered.

The fact that the teacher of the B-group in at least four of the seven comments refers to the question of time and facilities cannot be ignored. In her first comment she sees time

in relation to retention of facts. This not only supports the argument as set out above but when read in conjunction with particularly points 3,4 & 5 of her comments it gives rise to the following possibilities:

- a) because this was the first time that pupils were exposed to this particular process, they needed time not only to adjust to it but also to develop the skills required to gather in and internalise the information. This evidently was not afforded them. The pupils themselves offer the same criticism in point 6 of their views. They in fact seem to somewhat come to the kernel of the problem.
- b) Time is relevant to the type of educational facilities available and indeed the entire educational milieu. Questions arise as to whether the pupils at that stage had been assisted to develop enquiring minds, so important in decision-making. Had they developed the necessary expertise to utilise the facilities which were perhaps available? The fact that the pupils felt they needed more time suggests too that they needed more time to accustom themselves to the simulation as well as time in order to do the necessary research, - discover, discuss and internalise. This does suggest that in a one-shot experiment such as this experience, the full impact and worth of simulation is difficult to realise.

I have mentioned that time is also relevant to educational milieu and wish to add that it is also as such related to the ethos of the school. The question which arises concerning the two schools in question is whether the pupils there are generally motivated to be initiators or implementors? Whereas this study did not take this aspect into consideration I now think that it is pertinent to the results obtained. To clarify this factor I have gathered some information with regards to the following:

- 1) The record for Senior Certificate results obtained at these two schools and
- ii) The hidden curriculum at the two schools.

An investigation of the Senior Certificate results obtained at the two schools does throw additional light on the results obtained in the experiment. Over the past five years an average of 70% of the candidates who sat for the S.C. examination at School X were successful with an average of 20,6% obtaining full exemption passes. In contrast to this 54% of the candidates at School Y were successful and 12,4% obtained full exemption. (These statistics were obtained directly from the schools concerned). Both schools in question are approximately of the same size with School X having more pupils in Standard X. Judged purely from past examination results obtained, it would suggest that the two groups involved in the research were unequally matched. This non-equivalent mat-

ching could most probably have contributed to the results obtained in the research.

Both schools in question participate fully in extra-mural activities such as sport and community involvement. It is in fact true to mention that in the field of athletics School Y has a better track record. What is significant is that it is commonly well known in the community that pupils at school X play a far more leading role in the organisation of their activities than do their counterparts at School Y. As an illustration it can be stated that School Y has over a long period of time been involved in a local community project which was initiated by an outside agency. In contrast to this the pupils at School X each year commit themselves to fund raising for charity. Each class group plans its own effort and motivate its own charity. The student council makes its recommendations of the charities which should benefit from their efforts. This seems to indicate that whereas both groups of pupils become involved in community efforts, the pupils at School X play a greater role in decision-making. (It is true that in the process the pupils at School X have perhaps allowed their decisions to be influenced by factors which they regarded as important). Whatever mistakes are made in arriving at decisions due to possible immaturity the value of the debates and discussion leading up to their decisions cannot be underestimated. Thus, the pupils from

School X may have most probably adapted more easily to the simulation experiment. They may have been perhaps better prepared for it. The fact that pupils from School Y in their comments state that "simulations were less authoritarian and more democratic in the sense that they could voice their own opinions" shows that they prefer the more democratic approach to that of the authoritarian. Small wonder that they found the simulation more stimulating. That they did not derive the desired benefit from the exercise is perhaps due to the fact that such a one shot experiment did not afford them the time to make maximum use of the stimulation provided. One such experimental design weaknesses should not however, be regarded as providing meaningful evidence that simulation games are not effective.

3. A third possible reason could be that there was no effective post-game discussion which would have provided valuable insight into the nature of the structured simulation, and real historical events. The teacher should in these post-game discussions be alert to and exploit, all of the strategies of the simulation. This could be the fault of the researcher in the sense that he failed perhaps to adequately instruct and alert the teacher who conducted the experiment to this procedure and that the teacher herself did not fully understand how to implement the procedure.

4. A fourth possible reason could be that these pupils and also the teacher had been exposed to and had used the conventional methods for many years and that as a result had become dependent on these methods as a means of transferring knowledge, that when they were confronted with an innovative method such as simulation games they lacked the necessary expertise and know-how to cope with it. The control group was exposed to a more "authoritarian" type of teaching, which they were accustomed to, whereas the experimental group was exposed to a more "democratic" type of teaching with which they were not used to. This factor could have affected the performance of the experimental group and that a significantly higher mean score was obtained by the control group.

It is possible too that a condition of stress, anxiety or ego involvement by the role-play activities of the pupils and also the teacher, seeing that this was a new experience for them, could have contributed to producing the inferior results of the experimental group.

The remark made by the teacher "that the preparation of the pupils for the presentation of the simulation could have been more intensive and that there was a lack of opportunity for consolidation", is quite significant in that it gives rise to the suggestion that the process of briefing, research, discussion and debriefing were not adequately done. It is quite possible that the researcher perhaps failed to adequa-

tely instruct and alert the teacher to the absolute importance of these aspects of the process. It is also likely that the teacher herself found it difficult to make adjustment to her teaching-style which the experiment required. In either case in such a one-shot experiment it must have resulted in possible conflict and insecurity on the part of the teacher.

Consolidation in the conventional method may mean the continued emphasis on facts, whereas in the case of simulation it entails gathering in as much information about the historical event so as to virtually be able to understand why individuals acted the way they did. One cannot adequately role-play a situation without an in depth understanding and appreciation of the issues involved. What has not been mentioned but what also can be seen as contributory to the results obtained is the fact that the simulation experiment was conducted in a situation dictated to by the limitations placed upon it by a pigeonhole time-table. Introducing a democratic or freer strategy within a rigid and authoritarian system may itself have given rise to insecurity and conflict and that therefore the full impact of simulation was not effectively realised.

CHAPTER 5CONCLUSIONS

It would appear that from this study that a simulation game as a method of instruction in history is not particularly effective. However, by virtue of the limitations as to time, possible mismatch between what the pupils were accustomed to as a teaching and learning strategy and the process to which they were exposed to, such a conclusion may not be drawn. What is also relevant is the role played by the teacher and whether the necessary back-up and resources were available for the simulation exercise to succeed. Since interest is often associated with what is enjoyable it is significant that the pupils enjoyed what they were doing. The question arises whether more time and greater facilities would not have produced better results. The simulation did have a positive effect on the attitudes and interest of the pupils taking part in the simulation. They felt that they were part of the lesson, that the presentation was stimulating and also thought-provoking. As such it could lead to self-study and an analytical approach to the study of history.

The findings revealed that pupils should be gradually introduced to this method of presentation. There should be a period of thorough orientation into the procedure of simulations, especially, the briefing and debriefing aspects. The old, traditional and conventional methods with which they had been confronted and had become dependent on since primary school should be modified to make provision for innovative methods such as simulation games. In other words, an effective approach to the

teaching of history could be a combination of traditional and innovative methods with the emphasis on student participation as in simulation games.

The results did not turn out as hypothesised or expected. This could be due to the fact that this was 1) a one-off experience; 2) the pupils were experiencing a new method of presentation and therefore did not fully understand or realise the procedure of the simulation; 3) the person conducting the simulation lacked experience in this type of presentation and therefore lacked the necessary expertise in handling the simulation; 4) the researcher possibly did not give clear and explicit enough instructions to the teacher conducting the simulation.

It is imperative to avoid non-equivalent grouping and to apply randomisation when conducting experiments of this nature. Randomisation will ensure that groups are matched and that results are valid, reliable and generalisable. The lack of randomisation is a weakness in quasi-experimental designs and it is suggested that in any further experiments being carried out that the true experimental design be used.

It is suggested that traditional methods should be integrated with innovative methods such as simulation games, especially as far as consolidation of factual material and interpretation are concerned. Here the teacher could play an important role. It is further suggested that the measuring instruments should be based on multiple choice test items. This could help pupils

in the area of recall.

It is recommended that all studies comparing two instructional approaches, be guided by the differentiated outcome hypothesis insofar as they measure at least three categories: 1) the acquisition of knowledge - as typically measured by an achievement test; 2) the development of skills of interpretation, extrapolation and analysis (problem-solving) and 3) affective gains - typically attitudes towards the subject history and toward self. If the differentiated outcome hypothesis is valid, more flexible, pupil-centred approaches will tend to distinguish themselves - if successful, in problem-solving and affective areas. Elliot and Tuckman, (1976).

Furthermore, the differentiated outcome hypothesis indicates that maximum effects of an educational programme are realized along those dimensions emphasised in the programme. Relating this to this experiment it can be seen that the tests favoured the control group because it emphasised factual recall. Contrary to this the experimental group programme emphasised dimensions other than factual recall i.e. understanding, insight and interpretation.

In concluding this research report I would like to make some general observations that this investigation has brought to light. The general teaching strategies and methods in both primary and secondary schools needs reappraisal and re-evaluation. Teaching in these institutions at present may be too authoritarian, teacher centred and ostensive where the teacher poses as the fount of all knowledge and the pupils are the recipients of this knowledge.

ledge. Our strategy and methods should lay emphasis on "freeing the child" to be able to discover for itself, understand, analyse, critically think for itself and draw conclusions which would lead to logical decision making. Pupils are being spoonfed and the "tabula rasa" approach is being used so as to make them examination-ready. This is perhaps due to the system of education that we as teachers are involved in. This system is based on an objectives model type of teaching and this leaves little scope for developing in pupils enquiring, analytical and critical minds. Perhaps a re-examination, reappraisal and re-evaluation of the curriculum offered at teacher training institutions should be done. At present at some of the teacher training institutions Pedagogics forms the cornerstone of the theory and practice of education. To my mind this subject tends to stultify newness, innovation and creativity in the approach to the training of teachers and herein lies the rub. The act of "freeing the child" lies with the teacher but if the teacher himself/herself is unfree then the child remains unfree and his growth and development as an open-minded, thinking person becomes narrow and uncreative. A change from the objectives model to a process model type of education is necessary if we wish to enter the 21st century with any confidence so as to participate in the exciting areas of discovery and invention and renewal that is extant in industrial countries.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX	A: EXAMPLES OF TEXT ITEMS
	B: OPINIONNAIRE ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS HISTORY AS A SUBJECT
	C: RAW SCORES - PRE-TEST
	D: - POST-TEST
	E: INTERVIEW WITH PUPILS
	F: TEACHER

APPENDIX A: EXAMPLES OF TEST ITEMS

1. Explain the following terms:

- a) Bolshevik
- b) Menshevik
- c) Duma
- d) Cheka
- e) Soviet

2. Who:

- a) Who was the leader of the Bolsheviks?
- b) Who was the leader of the Mensheviks?
- c) Who wrote the Communist Manifesto?
- d) Who was the last Czar of Russia?
- e) Who was the Prime Minister of Russia after the February Revolution?
- f) Who was the leader of the Red Army?
- g) What were the differences between the Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks regarding policy?
- h) What was the policy of the Army Commanders?
- i) Who and what were the Petrograd Workers?
- j) What were their aims?
- k) What was the Bolshevik's idea towards the war with Germany?

- 1) What was the Menshevik's idea towards the war with Germany?
 - m) Where did the February Revolution take place?
 - n) Which city became the new capital of Russia?
 - o) What was the policy of Kerensky?
3. EXPLAIN LENIN'S SLOGAN: "PEACE, BREAD AND LAND"

APPENDIX B:OPINIONNAIRE ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS HISTORY AS A SUBJECT

1. I like my history lesson.
2. I like history because it fires my imagination.
3. History is interesting.
4. The reconstruction of the past is worthwhile in understanding the present.
5. History is an account of past human action.
6. History is mainly concerned with cause and effect.
7. History is concerned with attempts at making the world a better place to live in.
8. History is a logical subject.
9. History gives an account of why particular events took place.
10. History deals with international relations.
11. I like S.A. history.
12. I like world history.
13. History is a subject which is chronologically structured.
14. Part of historical enjoyment is understanding concepts.
15. History as taught is very boring.
16. History can be a very informative subject.
17. The study of history can influence one's moral life.

18. The stud. of history can broaden one's perspective of present day problems.
19. History should be integrated with other subjects.
20. More interesting methods of presenting history should be evolved.
21. History should engender empathy with past generation who wanted to improve their lives.
22. History as taught demands of the pupil the memorisation of facts and dates.
23. History teaching is too textbook oriented.
24. History should be made alive.
25. Students should be taught to think historically.
26. More individual or group work should be introduced into history teaching.
27. History would be a more interesting subject if students are given projects to work at.
28. There is too much emphasis on examinations.
29. Methods of teaching history should be based on inquiry.
30. History teaching should lead the student to acquire information and to draw conclusions.

APPENDIX C:Raw Scores of the Pre-testExperimental GroupStudent

A.	29
B.	20
C.	49
D.	17
E.	6
F.	3
G.	29
H.	26
I.	49
J.	23
K.	29
L.	20
M.	20
N.	34
O.	43
P.	46
Q.	43
R.	49

Control GroupStudent

A.	71
B.	68
C.	48
D.	74
E.	57
F.	37
G.	43
H.	45
I.	14
J.	45
K.	17
L.	23
M.	54
N.	40
O.	77
P.	65
Q.	77
R.	28

S.	51	
T.	43	
N = 20	629	
$\bar{x}$	$= \frac{629}{20}$	$= 31,5$

S.	23
T.	60
U.	83
V.	88
W.	77
X.	54
Y.	57
Z.	68
AA.	83
BB.	83
CC.	60
DD.	28

$$N = 30 \quad 1\,647$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1\,647}{30} = 54,9$$

APPENDIX D:Raw Scores of the Post-testExperimental GroupStudent

A.	53
B.	71
C.	65
D.	59
E.	59
F.	53
G.	44
H.	26
I.	3
J.	3
K.	20
L.	53
M.	29
N.	44
O.	6
P.	20
Q.	20
R.	44
S.	32

Control GroupStudent

A.	61
B.	55
C.	61
D.	61
E.	57
F.	53
G.	50
H.	55
I.	29
J.	57
K.	53
L.	41
M.	64
N.	53
O.	64
P.	53
Q.	55
R.	35
S.	23

T. 29

N = 20 733

$$\frac{\text{---}}{X} = \frac{733}{20} = 36,6$$

T. 57

U. 79

V. 88

W. 76

X. 76

Y. 64

Z. 76

AA. 88

BB. 76

CC. 73

DD. 50

N = 30 1 783

$$\frac{\text{---}}{X} = \frac{1\,783}{30} = 59,4$$

APPENDIX E:Interview questions with the pupils of the experimental group

1. Are simulation games an interesting method of teaching history?
2. In which way are they interesting?
3. Do simulation games increase your understanding of the subject matter?
4. Do simulation games lead to discussion and self-discovery?
5. Do they help in remembering factual material?
6. Comparing this method of teaching history with the conventional method, what is your preference?
7. Did you learn any intellectual skills such as interpretation, conceptualisation, extrapolation and analysis?
8. Do you think that you needed more time for the experiment?

APPENDIX F:Interview with the teacher conducting the experiment

1. Was there enough time allowed for the experiment?
2. What do you think about the type of questions asked in the tests?
3. Do you think that the pupils were well prepared for the experiment?
4. Was there any consolidation of the factual material in debriefing sessions?
5. What is your considered opinion of this method?

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