

Lindenwood University

Digital Commons@Lindenwood University

---

Theses

Theses & Dissertations

---

3-1989

## Role-Playing and Simulation Gaming Techniques in an American Government Curriculum

Ellen J. Mulder

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/theses>



Part of the American Studies Commons

---

Thesis  
118971r  
1989

ROLE-PLAYING AND SIMULATION GAMING TECHNIQUES IN  
AN  
AMERICAN GOVERNMENT CURRICULUM

BY  
ELLEN J. MULDER



Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the Master of Arts in Education  
Degree  
Lindenwood College  
March 22, 1989

## Abstract

American government is the study of democracy. It is a subject which one would like students to be excited about and involved in, as young persons, and ultimately, as adults. Teaching methods determine student involvement or level of class participation. As young people seem to thrive on action, it is important to consider the nature of the child and choose activities which encourage their personal participation. Role-playing and simulation give students the chance to learn about the government by participating in an active imitation of the system. These methods also give students a chance to add their own creative responses to the activity. Decision-making and the clarifying of values are carried out in an atmosphere which is non-critical and non-judgmental. The end product, or right answer is not pre-determined in simulation activities. It involves more of an inquiry-type approach, where students play their role in the system, and afterwards analyze the outcome of their behavior. In this curriculum

students still participate in some of the more traditional activities, such as, note-taking, text-reading, lectures, etc., but they serve as the preparatory lessons containing information which will be used in the simulation or role-play; Students are able to use the information they learn immediately, instead of simply storing it away for a test at a later date.

This curriculum attempts to balance cognitive and affective learning experiences for students. There is often too much emphasis on teaching to the mind, but not to the heart. Simulation and role-playing are excellent methods to use because they provide a variety of affective experiences.

This curriculum was developed to be used with tenth-grade government students. It provides a specific set of goals and objectives, a list of sources for learning more about the simulation and role-play methods, several activities, and methods of evaluation.

This approach which proposes a more active kind of learning experience is intended to



encourage more involvement on the part of students and hopefully more learning.

The best way to teach about democracy is to model it in one's own classroom. Teachers should let the students decide, debate, analyze, portray, examine, dramatize, create, and after their conclusions, synthesize, for these are the activities of democratic behavior. This curriculum aims to give students the opportunity to practice skills which they will use throughout life in a democratic country.

Chapter Three	24
Long Range Goals	27
Intermediate Objectives	28
Chapter Four: The Branches	31
Legislative Branch	31
Executive Branch	32
Judicial Branch	33
Appendix	35
House and Senate Fact Sheet	35
Congressional Powers	36
Special Powers of Congress	36
Specialized Activities	36
Committee Simulation	36
Bill-To-Law Process	37
Simulation of Legislative Process	38
Seven Roles of the President	40
Presidential Crisis	41
Process of Presidential Impeachment	42
Types of Cases and Court	43

## Table of Contents

Abstract . . . . .	iii
Chapter One: Introduction . . . . .	1
Chapter Two: Review of Literature . . . . .	14
History of Simulation . . . . .	14
Active Learning . . . . .	18
Motivation . . . . .	20
Relevancy . . . . .	23
Decision-making skills . . . . .	23
Student-controlled Environment . . . . .	24
Class Atmosphere . . . . .	26
Creative Environment . . . . .	27
Interpersonal Skills . . . . .	29
Citizenship Education . . . . .	30
Simplification of Learning Tasks . . . . .	31
Cognitive Gains . . . . .	33
Attitudinal Changes . . . . .	37
Optimal Placement in Curriculum . . . . .	38
Effect on Teacher's Confidence . . . . .	39
Teacher Expectations . . . . .	40
Summation of Research . . . . .	40
State Influence on Curriculum . . . . .	42
Local Curriculums . . . . .	44
Components of the Ideal Curriculum . . . . .	45
Chapter Three: Introduction to Curriculum . . . . .	47
Long Range Goals . . . . .	55
Intermediate Range Objectives . . . . .	56
Chapter Four: The Curriculum . . . . .	60
Legislative Branch . . . . .	61
Executive Branch . . . . .	71
Judicial Branch . . . . .	81
Appendices . . . . .	90
House and Senate Fact Sheet . . . . .	91
Congressional Powers . . . . .	93
Special Powers of Congress . . . . .	94
Socialized Medicine Bill . . . . .	95
Committee Simulation . . . . .	96
Bill-To-Law Process . . . . .	97
Simulation of Legislative Process . . . . .	98
Seven Roles of the President . . . . .	99
Presidential Crisis . . . . .	101
Checks on Presidential Power . . . . .	103
Type of Case and Court . . . . .	104

The Tinker Case . . . . .	106
Brown vs. Board of Education . . . . .	107
Five Landmark Supreme Court Cases . . . . .	108
Case of Gerald Gault . . . . .	110
Murder Trial Simulation . . . . .	111
Classroom Games . . . . .	112
Bibliography . . . . .	113
Vita Page . . . . .	121

This project is dedicated to my parents who cared enough to give to me the best education possible.

As I look back on my education it is with heartfelt gratitude that I remember my teachers, the School Sisters of Notre Dame. They dedicated themselves totally to the work of providing a quality education to all students. Their labors inspired me to become a teacher and to strive, as they did, in attaining excellence.

Appreciation is expressed to my sons, Ben and Syd for being patient and helpful during this project.

Sincere thanks is conveyed to Dr. Gene Henderson for his thoughtful guidance, encouragement, dedication, and patience.

Utmost gratitude is expressed to Mary Gismegian and Mary Garrett for their computer expertise.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

Educators have long been concerned about the problem of inciting students to learn; It's a problem which involves choosing methods that motivate students and encourage participation, but at the same time, contribute to valuable learning experiences.

The responsibility of the teacher is to find the methods, and create the classroom environment, which will encourage children to want to learn; In choosing methods, it is imperative that the nature of the child be the fundamental consideration. In a natural environment, such as a neighborhood, children seem to be inherently curious and excited about learning. What is it about formal schooling that sometimes kills enthusiasm? Can aspects of this natural environment be re-created in the classroom to stir up some of that inherent motivation? One should address the question of



how children learn naturally, unhindered by the constraints of the classroom.

When observing children in many different situations outside the classroom, it seems they are most happy, carefree, and creative when they are playing. Closer observation reveals that there is much more going on than what many adults might see as "simple play." It's true, they are having fun, but many twentieth century psychologists and educational theorists have proposed that play activity is essential for cognitive development. Piaget (1962) believed that play acts as the mechanism which stimulates the processes of assimilation and accommodation that lead to cognitive development. As the processes continue, a child proceeds through a sequence of stages in intellectual growth.

George Mead (1934) saw play as essential to the development of self; While interacting with other children, a child is seeing himself as others see him. Thus, as he is learning to relate to others in the outside world, the birth of self commences.

Almy (1966) claimed that play develops thinking and reasoning skills, and Johan Huizinga (1955), taking a broader perspective, believed



that civilization could not survive without play, because it was essential for passing on culture. If play is fun and also intellectually valuable, the task, then, for teachers trying to implement a motivating curriculum would be to develop activities which are fun for students, but which also accomplish teacher-curricular objectives.

John Dewey (1917) favored letting students enjoy a variety of experiences in the classroom, seemingly combining fun with realism. He stated:

Where schools are equipped with laboratories, shops, and gardens, where dramatizations, plays, and games are freely used, opportunities exist for reproducing situations of life, and for acquiring and applying information and ideas in the carrying forward of progressive experiences. (p. 190)

The more reality a teacher can bring into the classroom, giving students more direct experience with life, the more excitement about learning there will be in that classroom. Jerome Bruner (1966) perceived students as active, and not passive recipients of knowledge. In, or out of school, the enthusiasm of a child increases when he has the opportunity to practice skills which can be used in real life.

If the conclusions of Dewey and Bruner are true, then it would lead the teacher, in search of good methods, to choose classroom techniques which would provide, in addition to fun activities, as much realism as possible, allowing students to interact, make decisions, and participate very directly in a life-like experience.

Returning to the issue of the meaning of play, school children have really not changed in their needs concerning a learning environment; All they want is to re-create that early childhood stage where fun, play, and experiential learning were known to be inseparable. In accordance with all the philosophies stated above, to combine these three elements in a curriculum should be the quest of classroom teachers today.

A technique known as simulation seems to possess many of the qualities that the above educational theorists and psychologists refer to when they speak of an ideal learning environment.

Simulation is a technique which requires students to participate. Jones (1985) liked the idea of giving students responsibility:

There is an overriding philosophical concept implicit in treating learners as human beings who are in charge of events. To grant power and responsibility is itself, a philosophical

event, an act of politics involving government. It is a transfer of power, a token of respect, an appeal for honor and consent, a gift of democracy, and a request for the acceptance of duties and responsibilities. A simulation is not just another educational technique. (p.115)

Students often question the curriculum for its relevancy. Maidment and Bronstein (1973) proposed that simulation can solve this problem because it brings a part of the real world into the classroom where it can be studied and experienced by the learner.

In our world which is so overwhelmingly complex, individuals have the tendency to feel powerless in their ability to affect their environment. Gordon (1970) claimed that simulation games do well in giving students that sense of control over their environment. She felt this was essential in preventing the apathy and alienation which come from the feeling that nothing can be done, and which, in turn, act to reinforce that belief.

One sure way to stifle creativity is to continually look for, and ask for, one answer, and one answer only. It creates a very intimidating atmosphere in the classroom. Gordon (1970) believed that simulation games create a sense of



drama in that there is no one correct answer or outcome. In fact, the outcome depends totally on how the players interact, and, of course, on the element of chance.

An especially rewarding aspect of simulations is immediate feedback. (Maxon, 1973) While the game is going on, and decisions are being made, the consequences of certain decisions can be quickly seen, and then, in response to that feedback, other decisions must be made, and so the process continues.

Simulation has a way of sanctioning one activity which is usually forbidden by teachers: student-student interaction. Seidner and Dukes (1978) felt communication skills are being developed as students must deal effectively with one another. There is less teacher-talk, but communication between teacher and student is more direct and meaningful. A learning atmosphere is established, but it is also fun, and it encourages students to be prepared for the simulation. Seidner and Dukes explained:

The gaming situation itself, and the social interaction with peers in an atmosphere that suggests fun rather than classwork, appear to be sufficiently appealing to induce students to devote willingly increased time and energy to learning the requisite skills. (p.19)

The more realistic learning is, the more students seem to want to be involved. Adams (1973) described simulations as models reflecting situations in the real world which can give us a fascinating outlook on life, and the reality which is brought into the classroom by the simulation, can be very meaningful in highlighting that aspect of the world.

One of the most frequent reasons why students do not participate in class is fear of not having the right answer. Hawley (1975) supported the use of simulations for that reason. He stated: "There are no wrong answers, so the risk involved in participation is low, and the discussion is less likely to be subverted by the traditional classroom game of 'guess what the teacher is thinking of'." (p.24)

Conventional methods of teaching and learning such as note-taking, lectures, textbook-reading, question-writing, and discussing can be used to help students understand facts and theory, but they are incomplete in two ways. In his study of the role-play simulation method, Van mens (1983) claimed that the conventional methods usually do not help to change a student's behavior or attitude. He stated: "To read or hear about

something is not the same as experiencing it, and it is often by actual experience that understanding and change can come about." (p.23)

The second way in which conventional methods fail our students is that they provide very little opportunity to practice the skill of interpersonal communication.

In his book on designing simulations, Jones (1985) supported Van manen's second contention above; He believed that most people at age sixteen should be able to explain complex processes, argue a case, speak before an audience, and conduct themselves well in a variety of social situations, but most students have not been given the opportunity to practice and attain these skills. In many classrooms there is still an overabundance of teacher-talk, and the range of activities that encourage communication skills is limited. Unfortunately, when placed in situations in higher education or in the working world, these young adults struggle to compensate for lack of these skills, or they simply fail.

Tansey and Unwin (1969) advocated the use of simulation gaming for learning factual knowledge. They pointed out that in using traditional methods, facts are usually stored away and have no



immediate use, except for the upcoming test, after which, they are inevitably forgotten. In a simulation game, however, facts are needed, and are immediately called upon to play the game. They may be used in various and creative ways, and because of the meanings attached to them in the game, they may not be so easily forgotten.

Tansey and Unwin also noted that when using traditional methods, the teacher is totally occupied, being the center of the activity; Therefore, it's easier for students to stop listening and begin carrying on their own private activities, such as writing notes to each other. With simulations, the students are the center of the activity; The game itself demands their attention, but just in case someone is distracted, the teacher, who has taken on a freer observer-type position, may help the student to return to his proper role in the game. "The conventional curriculum often seems irrelevant, nonfunctional, and obsolete to youth. (p.3) Shaftel and Shaftel (1982) called for changes in the curriculum, and made observations on what was being done. Curriculum planners are trying to create more relevant, realistic, people-centered, issue and conflict-oriented courses for students.

Of course, this change in curriculum requires a change from traditional teaching methods to methods which are more open to discussion, like role-playing, problem-solving, and inquiry-type settings in the classroom.

Boocock and Coleman (1966) had similar concerns; They believed that the type of instruction in schools is just as important as the content of the lessons. Methods in American schools are outdated because they are based on a time when only the more intellectual, upper-class child remained in school, and those were students attuned to content-oriented courses and formal methods. Compulsory age requirements of today create a more heterogeneous population in our schools. Our methods should be revised to meet the needs of these students, who will, and do fail, with traditional approaches. Also, the traditional adult-child relationship has undergone some changes; Respect is not automatic and obtaining the approval and recognition of adults is no longer so important to children. Peer-group relations seem to be more motivating. Simulations are more student-centered, rather than teacher-centered, and therefore satisfy these

needs. As society changes, so must educational approaches.

Chesler and Fox (1966) described role-play simulation as a technique suitable for students in all academic levels; The average and above-average student, who is satisfied with intellectual talk about a topic or event, may have a hard time acting it out, and thus miss out on the dynamics of the whole situation. On the other hand, the lower ability student, who rejects the abstract and verbal explanations of a topic or event, will usually enjoy the chance to act out or role-play the situation. The technique helps both types of students in the ability to understand and express something they are studying, in concrete terms.

It's not only students that need varying methods. (Boocock & Schild, 1968) Teachers also need to use different methods because just as students cannot learn well with some teaching strategies, teachers cannot always teach well using certain strategies.

Traditional schooling methods do not teach "the whole child," according to A.S. Neill. (1960) If the emphasis is on textbook and factual knowledge alone, important things like the human character, love, freedom, and self-determination



are being left out. Teaching has always been directed to the head, eliminating the matters of the heart. Curriculums should have a healthy mixture of cognitive and emotional experiences for students. The role-play simulation method used in conjunction with traditional methods provides both types of experience.

This project is concerned with using simulation and role-playing techniques in an American Government curriculum. This technique is especially important in a course like government, which is supposed to be teaching the whole concept of democracy; Students should not only be told to participate in government, vote, be informed, etc., but the classroom should actually be a model of involvement, where action and participation are the accepted format.

This project includes a proposed curriculum for each of the three branches of American Government, which will provide a balance between cognitive and emotional experiences for the learner. This curriculum will have a specific set of goals and objectives, as well as activities, models of role-playing and simulation, lists of various simulations, and their publishers, lists of books to learn more about the

simulation-role-play technique, and methods of evaluation.

Students should benefit in several ways from this curriculum: The meaning and value of the democratic method will be advanced in theory and action; American Government will no longer be thought of as something abstract and remote; Decision-making as a skill will be improved; Values will be formed, as they are the basis for all decisions; The exercise of both right and left brain will lead to organization, flexibility, and creativity; Practicing respect and cooperation in a joint endeavor will help refine social skills; and most of all, learning will again be synonymous with play and fun, as it once was in childhood.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### History of Simulation

A brief summation of the history of simulation reveals how this technique has been used for many years in teaching various skills, in hypothesizing about real world events, and in serious training operations.

The use of simulations in teaching can be traced back to the ancient Chinese in their use of a war game known as "Wei-Hai." (Gilliom, 1974) About 1500 years ago, in India, a game similar to chess was used to simulate battle. During the Middle Ages, the game of chess, mainly an intellectual contest using strategic skills, became very popular. In the 1800's, when the Prussians were defeated by Napoleon, they developed more serious and realistic war games at their Kriegssademie. (Tansey & Unwin, 1969) Military model-size troops and equipment were



used, and the chess board was transformed into the real terrain of the battlefield. (Maidment & Bronstein, 1973) These early war games were adapted quickly by other countries. After the British Army began using them, they were quickly adopted by the United States Military. Following World War II, the computer provided the ability to analyze military problems in the most precise manner.

Most simulations before the twentieth century were war-related, but there was a Frenchman who fled to England during the French Revolution in the late 1700's, named Abbe Gaultier, who invented many simulation-type games for children, which were used in teaching matters of social concern in the classroom.

In the 1950s and 1960s, economists and business theorists began translating their already-formed quantitative models into simulations for the purpose of forecasting economic events, testing theories, and training employees.

Soon political scientists, sociologists, and psychologists began to realize the value of simulations. Faced with the reality that several countries possessed nuclear capability,

international relations simulations were being used as "crisis-games." The method had its debut in education in an administrative performance workshop in 1962. The technique used was very similar to the training seminars of the business world. (Tansey & Unwin, 1969) In simulating various problems in the school environment, participants were required to react to the situation and then decide as a group, whether or not their reactions or decisions were appropriate.

Eventually, simulations were put to use in the classroom. This was probably due to the success of the simulation method in other fields, as well as to a growing appreciation among educators of a link between play and learning. (Carlson, 1969) The use of simulation games in education demonstrated a movement away from two traditional beliefs: the use of the textbook as the central focus for thought and activity, and the idea of the teacher as being the main source of knowledge on whom all students were dependent.

Boocock and Schild (1968) described three stages of development in the classroom use of simulation games. Phase one, from 1962-1963, which they label as "acceptance on faith," was a time when many games were being developed and many

educators were embracing this new method with a kind of blind enthusiasm. Phase two, known as "post-honeymoon," 1963-1965, was a period when some researchers tried to carry on studies which would lead to some definite conclusions as to whether or not simulation games were educationally sound or advantageous, compared to the more traditional methods. Unfortunately, the findings were either negative or inconclusive. Phase three, from 1966 to the present, has been a stage of "realistic optimism," so named because the increased amount of experimentation and research has led to more reliable and positive conclusions about simulations.

#### Literature and Research

The following pages present a synopsis of the literature and research pertaining to the validity of simulation and role-playing as effective methods for use in the social studies curriculum. The main topics are sub-divided according to specific benefits or other issues concerning the methods.



### Active Learning

The essence of a simulation is action, and the virtue of doing rather than observing is summed up in the old Chinese proverb; "I hear and I forget, I see and I remember, I do and I understand".

Jones (1985) believed that learners should be active participants in the learning process. He stated: "Not only should there be occasions when learners should be active, there should also be occasions when they are in charge of events and have full authority, responsibility, and function." (p.114)

Adams (1973) thought that more meaningful learning takes place when the student assimilates information that he has acted out, or taken part in, rather than simply read, talked about, or listened to.

In simulations, students are in the midst of a marketplace of free-flowing ideas and opinions. It is imperative that they remember the facts and concepts which are being focused on to successfully carry out their role and accomplish their objectives in the game. For this reason,

Adams regards simulation as a powerful type of learning.

Tansey (1969) agreed that there must be some amount of involvement by the student before learning can take place. Neurophysiological explanations of learning give support to this belief. Hebb (1955) theorized that a "Reticular-Activating System" prepares the higher centers of the brain to receive and act upon information from the environment, but there must be an optimal level of arousal for this to happen. When students are active participants in class, it is more likely that this level of arousal will be attained.

Coleman (1968) claimed that the simulation technique involves the learner in a system which differs from the traditional information-processing approach. Learning by experience is initiated by the student in his thoughts and actions as opposed to the passive absorption of information that is characteristic of other techniques, which may not result in action of any sort.

Action is the main theme of role-play and simulations, and students are reacting in a variety of modes: physical, intellectual,

emotional, and social. Thompson (1978) thought this explained why it was such a good method. The nature of the child is prone to action of every sort and variety, and it is in this type of environment that a child will be most motivated to learn.

Hyman (1978) summed up the advantage of the action characteristic in role-playing and simulation games:

The fundamental pedagogical justification for employing a simulation game as a teaching strategy is to allow the teacher and students to continue using in the classroom the very method they have used all their lives in gaining knowledge. People learn to act by acting; to live by living; and to do by doing. (p.135)

### Motivation

The motivational quality of simulations provide yet another reason to utilize them in the curriculum. Taylor and Walford (1972) referred to this quality as the clearest and least disputed aspect of simulations. They stated: "This one quality alone is seen by many as sufficient reason for continuing to pursue simulation experimentation and development." (p.34)

In summarizing the results of several studies conducted in the John Hopkins Game Program,



Livingston (1973) found that students from elementary through high school preferred simulation games to any other classroom activity. Cohen (1970) gave support to this conclusion in a study in which she worked with disadvantaged seventh graders in a target-area school. The experimental group played the simulation, "Consumer," while the control group studied consumer credit in a more traditional way with texts, lectures etc. The game was played for five class periods. Cohen found that students who played the game, not only had greater knowledge of terms, but they also showed a 17% marked decrease in frequency of absences during the time period in which the game was being played.

Attig (1967) noted in his report on high school students that simulation was the most enjoyable and stimulating technique compared to any other method which was evaluated with it.

Van mens (1983) claimed that the motivational aspect of role-playing and simulation is the most frequent observation of researchers and users. Motivating the student to learn is winning half the battle.

Several other studies have pinpointed motivation as one of the greatest strengths of

simulations. Boocock and Coleman (1966) concluded that games are powerful motivators, as did Garvey and Seiler (1966) in their study. Cherryholmes (1966) found that, in an evaluation of six studies, simulations created more student interest and motivation than traditional methods of teaching.

Van mens (1983) explained that one of the major reasons that students are so motivated is that they obtain simple, direct, and immediate feedback from the game as it is being played.

B.F. Skinner (1969) stressed the importance of the function of feedback, or reinforcement, in promoting learning. He believed the learner needs to have immediate knowledge of results which acts as a positive reinforcer and then stimulates the learner to proceed in the learning activity.

Gordon (1970) summarized the motivational characteristic of simulation and role-play. He stated:

If educational games did nothing more than motivate students, that would be sufficient justification for playing them. The first hurdle for every teacher is apathy or resistance . . . with the development of educational games, teachers can harness the energy of play for the business of school. (p.18)

### Relevancy

Hawley (1975) related the high student involvement in role-playing to the relevancy of the subject matter for the students, who have the chance to generate the issues that they are concerned about. Maidment and Bronstein (1973) had similar insights about relevancy. They stated: "Simulation can bridge the relevancy gap by bringing a part of the real world into the classroom, where it can be analyzed and experienced by the learner." (p. 20)

### Decision-making and Problem-solving Skills

Simulations usually give students a chance to practice analytical skills such as decision-making. Tansey and Unwin (1969) suggested that this was another strong point of the technique. The effect of a decision is seen almost immediately as the game progresses, and a student must exhibit flexibility in changing decisions when he sees one course of action did not work.

Gordon (1979) believed that simulation games can help students in developing problem-solving skills, and in understanding the whole



decision-making process. Players are required to use facts, concepts, and intuitive judgements as they try to solve specific problems.

Shaftel and Shaftel (1967) noted that students involved in the game are active in defining problems and alternatives for action, and in exploring the consequences for those alternatives.

Simulations are dynamic as described by Adams (1973) because of the interaction between individuals and the resulting synthesis of ideas, concepts, and principles.

The analytical skill development which simulations provide was one of the merits of this method as expressed by Tansey and Unwin (1969). They said: "When values are being shaped, decisions are being made, and situations that are not rule-bound are under discussion, education performs its true function." (p.94)

#### Student-controlled Environment

The simulation technique is student-centered and allows students to determine the direction of the activity. Gordon (1970) described it as an exercise in reality because a scaled-down model of

the world is presented over which the student can exert control.

If students can be shown that it's possible for them to control a simulated life-like activity, they will surely make more of an effort to understand it, and their performance will improve. (Tansey and Unwin, 1969)

Sociological research shows that people who have feelings of control concerning social situations will be most likely the ones to take an active part. If students can develop this sense of control in a game which accurately reflects reality, then it's possible that this knowledge could carry over into real life situations.

Cruickshank (1977) believed that simulations provide potentially greater transfer from the game to real life, as long as the two situations were similar.

Boocock (1966) conducted a study with 1200 delegates to a conference of the National 4-H Clubs. The students were ages 13-20. Half of them were assigned to the experimental group which played "Life Career" and "Legislature." The other half were assigned to the control group which did not play the games. The games were played in a single half-day session and all students filled

out questionnaires before and after the playing sessions. The variable being tested was "students feelings of control." The findings demonstrated that students did develop more feelings of control and political efficacy than the students in the control group. Unfortunately, no long term studies have been completed to show if the games do have an impact on participation in real life.

### Class Atmosphere

The atmosphere in a classroom is said by many researchers to be very important in encouraging learning. Carl Rogers (1961) believed that everyone has a natural curiosity about life, but the educational system sometimes frustrates this natural drive. As much as possible, he thought educators should develop a less restrictive climate in the classroom, so children will be able to cultivate their natural capacity for learning. Rogers stated:

When a facilitator creates, even to a modest degree, a classroom climate characterized by all that he can achieve of realness, prizing, and empathy; when he trusts the constructive tendency of the individuals and the group; then he discovers that he has inaugurated an educational revolution....learning becomes life, and a very vital life at that. (p.115)



### Creative Environment

Simulation certainly provides a less restrictive and more open environment. Jones (1985) expressed his concerns about the classroom environment, a place which he thought should be safe, free of anxiety about making mistakes, and not bent on finding one right answer. He supported the use of simulations because the activity usually involves a group effort, and there are many acceptable answers or alternatives.

Simulation follows the spirit of Gestalt thinking in that learning is not the storage of a pre-determined answer, but it involves formulating possible solutions or alternatives; this encourages real thinking. (Young, 1973)

Students playing simulation games feel less intimidated because the teacher has been removed from an authoritarian position to a less dominant and less intrusive role, a role which allows the teacher to be more flexible in accepting the many answers and alternatives that the students may discover as they are playing the game. (Walford and Taylor, 1972)

Gordon (1970) believed that young people become cynical when they are taught that things in life are black and white, because as they grow

older, they see that it isn't so. Simulations are realistic in that they allow for experimentation and creativity, just as life does. If students are to be prepared for the real world, they need activities which allow them to practice life skills.

"How do children fail?", asked John Holt. (1964) He responded with vehemence:

We adults destroy most of the intellectual and creative capacity of children by the things we do to them, or make them do. We destroy this capacity above all, by making them afraid, afraid of not doing what other people want, of not pleasing, of making mistakes, of failing, of being wrong. (p.59)

In simulations, the focus is not on having one right answer, but having many, and then perhaps, deciding which one is best.

Many teachers fail to realize that a class, as a group of individuals, is more than people who just come and go when the bells ring. Each class is unique and has its own special capabilities and interrelationships. When individuals in a class develop a sense of unity and cohesiveness, and are supportive of each other, there are really no limits to what they can attain. Role-play and simulation demand interaction, and they encourage cooperation. It is an excellent tool for creating

a harmonious environment in a classroom.

(Hawley, 1975)

### Interpersonal Skills

Wohlking and Gill (1980) believed that simulation activities help students to develop interpersonal skills. They have the opportunity to experiment with different kinds of behavior in an environment which will not be threatening.

Sometimes games serve to improve students' relationships. A study by DeVries and Edwards (1973) with 7th graders playing "Equations," showed that when students were placed in team settings there was increased peer tutoring and more feelings of satisfaction and enjoyment on the part of students.

Role-playing is a natural part of life in society, and practicing roles helps students to develop empathy toward other people. Chesler and Fox (1966) emphasized the importance of this function in role-playing activities. They stated:

All behavior is the reflection of a role, and all social interaction is a continuous sequence of interacting roles, or role-playing episodes; in these terms, all the world is a stage and all the men and women are actors. (p.5)



### Citizenship Education

Milroy (1982) evaluated the merits of role-playing for developing an awareness of social problems. She stated: "There is something inherent in the structure of role-play which makes the method an exceedingly valuable one for the promotion of greater awareness of the human condition." (p.35)

One of the major goals of education is to teach citizenship, and role-playing is an excellent method to use. Shaftel and Shaftel (1967) explained:

When properly used, role-playing permits the kind of discovery learning which occurs when individuals in groups face up to the ways they tend to solve their problems of interpersonal relations....and if under skillful guidance, young people become conscious of their personal value system. (p.9)

Simulation is a unique method because it allows for experimentation with a life-like situation that wouldn't be possible otherwise. It is especially helpful in the social sciences where experiments with people or social systems are not physically or morally possible. (Dawson, 1962)

Another advantage is that time can be controlled and complex situations can be analyzed

by simplifying them, or by studying one aspect at a time. ( Adams, 1973)

Coleman (1967) regarded simulations as special inventions in which children or adults practiced with the components of life itself.

Abt (1969) described the activity of games to be a concrete learning experience for a child. As he gains in understanding of the structure of the game, he is gaining in understanding of the subject which the game is illustrating.

#### Simplification of Learning Tasks

Simulations are especially helpful when studying complex systems. The game allows for enough simplification to help students understand something which is otherwise confusing.

(Gillispie, 1973) Gillispie summarized the benefits of simulations in this regard: "The essence of simulation is the artificial simplification of the universe in order to single out a few variables." (p.3)

Simulations are helpful to most lower ability students because they reduce abstract ideas to concrete terms, making the subject matter easier to understand. Farran (1968) conducted a study

with boys who were referred to a residential school which was especially set up to provide intensive remedial instruction and educational enrichment to 8th graders. The students were designated as having average or above intellectual ability, but low academic achievement. The policy was to use innovation and experimentation to help them with their learning problems. The boys came from vastly different areas of the state of North Carolina, and widely varying socio-economic levels. They had different abilities, attitudes, and achievement levels. One hundred and twenty-three students were divided randomly into two groups and then into four groups. The students used three simulation games during an eighteen week session, playing two days a week for two hours at a time. The variable being tested was "content-learning." Farran found that the game made significant progress in helping the students to weave various ideas they had learned or heard of before, into a frame of reference. It was evident that the whole career education experience took on meaning for them after they played this game. Farran also reported high motivation and interest in decision-making, relational thinking, and planning.



Lower ability students experience difficulty with abstract thinking, and for this reason Chesler and Fox (1966) believed that these students need the non-verbal, acting-out strategies that role-playing offers. Physical modes of expression and self-assertion are well within their range of skills.

Cohen (1970) reported in her study with disadvantaged students that after playing "Consumer," the experimental group showed greater knowledge of terms than the control group. The students also thought the game was more interesting and less restrictive than other methods.

### Cognitive Gains

Many researchers have been eager to find out if the simulation method is actually superior to traditional ways of teaching, with regard to the cognitive gains made by students. In one of the most conclusive studies, Baker (1968) reported that high-school classes using an historical simulation performed significantly better on a post-test than did classes using a standard approach. His study involved 131 junior high

students randomly assigned to four classes in American History. Two classes, the experimental group, participated in a pre-Civil War period simulation, while the other two classes, the control group, were taught using the textbook and discussion periods followed by question assignments. The time period for the study was fifteen days, and the dependent variable was "increased learning." Baker administered tests of knowledge before, and after the unit. He also gave a delayed posttest after six weeks. The experimental group had significantly higher scores on each of these tests.

Similarly, Keach and Pierfy (1972) found that their 8th grade geography students retained more facts and strategies, but no more skills than the control classes. They concluded: "Simulations which are properly designed are viable ways to teach facts...a key factor in the game's design should be the built-in opportunities to apply the knowledge that the game teaches." (p.37)

Just as Keach and Pierfy emphasized the conditions for a successful game, so did Stembler. (1972) He found that a simulation game taught cognitive-type information significantly better than the conventional lecture method. However, he

warned against open-ended simulations which do not require pre-determined goals or conclusions.

In another study by Livingston (1971) with 28 high school students randomly chosen for a business simulation, the 14 students in the experimental group outperformed the 14 students in the control group on two tests designed to measure their knowledge of business facts and concepts, and their ability to evaluate business decisions. Livingston used five class periods for the study which was aimed at measuring cognitive gains. The difference between the two groups was statistically significant only for the test of facts and concepts.

Some researchers have found no significant differences in cognitive gains between simulations and traditional methods. Cherryholmes (1966) evaluated six studies and concluded that simulation produced no significant differences in learning or retention, but he also said that the effects of simulation may not have been specified or measured in these studies.

Anderson (1970) utilized the game, "Consumer," to teach facts about buying and credit. Two hundred and eighty students, the entire twelfth grade at one high school,



participated in the study. Intact classes were assigned to experimental and control groups, and individual teachers had both types of classes. The experimental groups played two games of "Consumer" for six class meetings. The control classes studied one curriculum unit on consumer use of installment contracts. The dependent variable was "knowledge of facts and concepts." Anderson reported no significant difference between simulation and conventional instruction with regard to factual learning. He did suggest that the game produced behavior changes because the experimental group performed better on the credit-comparison shopping section of the "buying-a-car" test.

Wing (1968) conducted a computer-based simulation for economics. He wanted to determine if this technique was superior for learning basic economic principles. The study, which lasted for a period of five months, had a control class of 25 sixth graders, who were taught conventionally by a very talented and creative teacher, and an experimental group of 25 students who were taught mainly by the computers. Students in both groups performed very similiarly on the pre-test, which indicated that they were closely matched. The

posttest reported significant differences between the groups on one game, but not on the other game which was played. Wing noted the results as being ambiguous and inconclusive in proving that simulations resulted in improved learning or retention of material. One important aspect of the study that should be noted is that the experimental group performed just as well, and better on one game, than the control group, but invested only half the class time, using the computers, that the control group used.

#### Attitudinal Changes

Studies of the effects of simulation games on attitude have given more definite results. Dekock (1969) reported a change in attitudes toward race, after his students played "Sunshine." High school students were more tolerant of U.S. relations with foreign dictatorships after playing the "Inter-Nation" simulation. (Cherryholmes, 1965) In a study which involved student acceptance of the practice of log-rolling in Congress as the main dependent variable, Livingston (1971) reported that the game significantly influenced their feelings toward log-rolling in a positive

direction. He involved 209 randomly-chosen junior high students and formed an experimental group which spent two forty-five minute class periods playing "Democracy," and a control group which learned by traditional methods. All students completed questionnaires before and after the unit.

The study was repeated again by Livingston and Kidder (1972) and the same effect on attitudes was reported. In this study, he used 218 high school students, 15-16 years of age. Questionnaires were used before and after the simulation exercise.

#### Optimal Placement in Curriculum

Some studies suggested an optimal time to use simulations in the curriculum to enhance learning, but the suggestions were not consistent.

Kidder and Aubertine (1972) found that the greatest attitude change in their study was after the first round of the game. They involved 63 high school seniors in the game of "Ghetto." The three experimental groups and one control group consisted of mostly middle-class white students. Three rounds of the game were played, and it was expected that after that amount, the greatest



attitudinal change would take place. Based on the results of the study, Kidder and Aubertine suggested using games at the beginning of each unit to create more realistic attitudes toward the subject to be studied.

Farran (1968) found it more beneficial to use games as a way to integrate all other information learned previously. He suggested their use at the end of a unit.

Others concluded that the place for a simulation depends on what the teacher's goals and objectives are.

#### Effect on Teacher's Confidence

Some research shows that using the techniques of role-playing and simulation increase a teacher's confidence. Lehman (1969) reported the following comments made by teachers-in-training at the University of Texas after using techniques of role-playing:

The major benefit that I feel I received was in learning how to read the non-verbal communication of the class. (p.55)

This session led to unanticipated questions, problems, etc. Communication leads to understanding which leads to cooperation, which results in progress...You don't stub

your toe, if you stand still. (p.55)

I've become so much aware that the teacher-student relationship is personal that it involves feelings, concern, understanding from both sides. I think I can walk into a classroom confident in being myself and willing for the students to be themselves. (p.55)

### Teacher Expectations

Teacher expectations can be very powerful in determining the success or failure of students in their classes. (Rosenthal and Jackson, 1968)

Dukes and Seidner (1978) believed that simulations disrupt negative behavior patterns which sometimes develop between teacher and student. The game usually encourages those students who wouldn't normally participate to become involved, and since the teacher has taken on a more supportive role, it creates the possibility for positive feelings to develop.

### Summation of Research

A summation of the research is positive for those who support the method, and yet it reveals several inconsistencies. Megary (1977) designated three main problems: 1) Game directors' methods are not standardized. 2) There is no agreed-upon

criteria for evaluation. 3) There is no on-going systematic program of research on the major variables.

Guetzkow (1962) warned users against games that did not validly model the necessary attributes of the real system; the results of such simulation would not be an accurate reflection of reality. This is, of course, the responsibility of the game designers, but many companies refuse to evaluate their games.

Oftentimes, authors of evaluation studies are the originators of the simulations which they are supposed to review. ( Taylor and Walford, 1972)

Heitzman (1974) considered the effects of the teacher, as the game manager, on the educational outcome of the game. If the simulation failed, it is difficult to conclude whether it was the simulation itself, or the fault of the teacher.

Because of the complexity of human behavior, Maidment and Bronstein (1973) believed there will never be precision in the research studies on simulations.

Most, but not all, of the research reported in this paper involved single studies. The most consistent statement by researchers is that they suggested their particular studies should be



replicated in a different setting to provide more substantial evidence.

Overall, the consensus of most researchers and users of simulation and role-play methods is that they are valuable tools which should be incorporated into the curriculum and used alongside of other techniques. The teacher's goals and objectives will determine when, where, and how they should be used.

#### State Influence on Curriculum

In 1986, the State of Missouri set State guidelines for social studies in a publication entitled, "Core Competencies and Key Skills for Missouri Schools." The following is their listing of six broad goals for American Government:

1. Understand and apply basic principles of our political system.
2. Understand basic institutions and processes of law-making, law-enforcement, and law-interpretation.
3. Understand rights and responsibilities of citizens in democratic societies.
4. Understand the processes by which citizens may help resolve disputes and influence policy-making.
5. Analyze real and hypothetical cases in relation to persistent issues of government in American society.

6. Apply analytic skills to political messages and discussions.

Each goal is followed by several specific learner objectives. Those objectives which are tested by the State are specifically designated. The other objectives are tested locally. In addition there are other general social studies goals with specific learner objectives. At the beginning of each section it is stated that the guidelines are not meant to be a limitation on the teacher's normal choice of activities, but should be included in what is usually taught.

In an interview with Dr. Warren Solomon, Director of the State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, (August 11, 1988) the following information was obtained concerning the influence of the State of Missouri on local school curriculums. All students in the State are required to take the Missouri Mastery and Achievement Test (MMAT) which is derived from the Core Competency Guideline. Dr. Solomon stated that it would be sad if school districts would adopt the State guidelines as their curriculums. He felt the best way to create a curriculum is for the teachers, and perhaps other professionals and interested persons, to decide what is important

for students to know, and to write their own goals and objectives. The next step would be to look at the State guidelines and other sources and then add or revise. The idea is to include the State guidelines in what the teacher is already doing in his/her classroom. The State requirements for American Government are that each student must pass a locally administered test for that subject before he can graduate. The content of the test is decided upon by the local districts.

#### Local Curriculums

After reviewing the curriculums of St. Charles, Fort Zumwalt, Pattonville, and Francis Howell, the following observations were made:

1. The basic organization of the curriculums differed greatly.
2. Only one of the curriculums listed methods, and it was a definite cognitive approach.
3. One followed State guidelines very closely, the others included much more.
4. The basic content was very similar, but objectives and goals were different.

The author also found through requesting the curriculums that some districts did not have complete curriculums, or they had not been revised



for a number of years. A few had only course guidelines.

The American Government curriculums reviewed contain numerous goals which will hopefully be achieved. Ultimately, the task of implementing these goals rests with the classroom teacher through the use of innovative instructional methods. Ideally, the curriculum should blend affective and cognitive experiences. Adams (1973) believed there should be a more human curriculum coordinating the cognitive and affective approaches, teaching to the hearts and minds of children.

#### Components of the Ideal Curriculum

George I. Brown (1971) has coined the term "confluent education," which combines both cognitive and affective learning. Cognitive learning refers to the activity of the mind, and affective learning refers to how the learners feel about wanting to learn, how they feel as they learn, and how they feel after they have learned. He stated:

Confluent education describes a philosophy and a process of teaching and learning in which the affective domain and the cognitive

domain flow together, like two streams merging into one river, and are thus integrated in individual and group learning. (p.11)

Affective education stresses the development of warm human relationships in the classroom. Lyon (1970) explained the consequences of emphasizing the intellect at the expense of the emotions:

Education traditionally has emphasized the development of the cognitive capacities of its students. The nurturing of the affective or emotional side of the student . . . has either been neglected or left to the individual, his family, or chance. All too often chance prevails and the result becomes a half-man, who like his teachers, has been educated at best, to function effectively on only the intellectual plane.(p.18)

Good curriculums provide students with intellectual, social, and emotional experiences. A proper balance between all of these should be the goal of the schools. Paul Goodman (1964) addressed the problem in quite a direct manner:

It's in the schools . . . rather than at home or from one's friends that the mass of citizens in all classes learn that life is inevitably routine, depersonalized, venally graded; that it is best to toe the mark and shut up; that there is no place for spontaneity, open sexuality, free spirit. Trained in the schools, they go on to the same quality of jobs, culture, and politics. This is education, miseducation, specializing to the national norms, and regimenting to the national needs. (p.21)

## CHAPTER THREE

### INTRODUCTION TO THE CURRICULUM

This curriculum is designed with the following sequential order in mind: Legislative Branch, Executive Branch, Judicial Branch. Central to one's comprehension of how our government operates is an understanding of the law-making process. The American Congress is the great "synthesizer of ideas" creating the best of laws for a democratic nation. Representing the people and the interests of this country is the task which the founders of our government thought was most important. The Constitution, in fact, begins with "Article I, The Legislative Branch." It is the longest article and the most detailed. A complete analysis of the operation of Congress and its relation to the other branches of government lays the foundation for a greater understanding of the entire governmental system because the heart of the American government is Congress-at-work.



The study of the Legislative Branch begins with basic general facts involving the function and structure of Congress which students should know in the beginning of the unit. The next two activities deal with broad facts, and they function as important background knowledge in which students are defining the specific powers of Congress, and then distinguishing between the differences of the two houses. Simple role-playing exercises are given for the first three activities of the unit to acquaint students with this technique and help them to initially become more involved in the material and more active in class. As an understanding of politics is basic to understanding congressional action, the next step is to examine the political organization of Congress. Diagrams provide students with a simplified visual picture of a complex system, otherwise difficult to comprehend. Now inside the system, the curriculum naturally proceeds to focus on more specific, essential elements such as lobbyists and committees. As stated in Chapter Two, students seem to learn best by doing; In the next two activities, they become the lobbyists and the committee members, and act out their roles in the system. After examining

the components of the legislative system, students will be ready to view the bill-to-law process as a whole. Once the process of law-making is understood, it's important for students to realize the effects of political factors on the behavior of congressmen, and thus on the bill-to-law process itself. It is important for students to be aware of the positive and negative aspects of the law-making system. A distinction must be made between the ideal system and the real system in order that students obtain a true picture of how the Legislative Branch operates. The true story of the "Emergency Energy Bill" is used here so that students may examine the system as it operates in reality. The final activity of this unit, a simulation of Congress-in-action, requires that students utilize the information and skills attained thus far, to conduct a realistic dramatization of Congress-at-work. This event acts as a synthesizer of student's knowledge about the American Legislative system.

The first lesson of the Executive Branch begins logically with identifying the information requirements for becoming president. An inquiry-type approach helps students to draw conclusions as to the type of person who is most





likely to attain this office. It is the electoral process which puts a president in office, so the electoral simulation is appropriately placed in the beginning of our study of the Executive Branch. Crucial to one's understanding of the Executive Branch is their knowledge of roles the president plays, and the powers he has as the leader of the nation. Activity three is then followed by a role-playing exercise which gives students a chance to act out the presidential roles and increase their understanding of exactly what each role entails. A brief examination of the role of vice-president is appropriate at this point. Excerpts of opinions from past presidents and vice-presidents are used to give students insight into this unique role. The president is not alone in running this nation, and at this point students are ready to investigate the bureaucratic support system which helps the president carry out his office. It is important to use real historical events in order to provide concrete examples for students. This lesson is then followed by a simulation of a national crisis in which students will themselves act as the bureaucratic support system for the president. This activity increases student's comprehension by



providing a live dramatization in which they are required to emulate the actions of the president's staff in a crisis situation. The students should now understand the overall operation of the office of the presidency and the executive bureaucracy. Therefore, the lesson which follows examines the checks on a president's power by the other two branches, and by the American people. A real example of presidential abuse of power is given in the hypothetical trial of Richard M. Nixon. This case encourages one to think about what the abuse of power really means, and to determine in one's own mind the limitations of a leader's power. The role of the president as party leader is exemplified in the appointments he makes to many positions, but it is especially shown in his Supreme Court nominations. This activity, which examines the role of political parties in the Executive Branch, points out how a president can have his philosophy and influence carried on for years after he is out of office, by his appointments to the Supreme Court.

The previous lesson leads naturally to the third branch of government, the Judiciary, where students will begin by learning the informal requirements for federal judges are determined by

the president, as he has the power to appoint all federal judges. In the following activity it is important to have a primary understanding of the structure of the courts and their jurisdiction in cases. That knowledge will be reinforced in the third lesson where students will themselves decide in which court a case will be heard. Students are now prepared for a more intricate examination of the role of the judicial branch in our government. It is essential to understand the concept of "judicial review" because the primary role of the Supreme Court is to interpret the law and act as the "guardians of the constitution". The Tinker case, which deals with students' rights is an excellent case to use because it's simple and students can easily relate to it. The power of the Judicial Branch is underestimated by many. In the case of "Brown v. Board of Education", students can readily cite the impact this decision had on American society, and the potential power that the Court possesses. In an attempt to reinforce understanding of the special power of the Court, five landmark cases dealing with first and fourth amendment rights are presented to students who will emulate the use of the power of judicial review. In the next three activities



students will focus on the entire judicial system and how it affects the American citizen. The concept of "due process" is broken down into nine steps so that students may plainly understand proper legal treatment in the sequential order in which it is supposed to happen. Once again, a distinction between the ideal and the real system should be made. Students will see that criminals do go free sometimes, and they will also evaluate our criminal justice system after viewing both sides of the "exclusionary rule" issue. The Gault case is used because it deals with juvenile rights. Students will compare due process rights of adults with those of juveniles. The culminating activity for this unit is a simulation of a murder trial. Students will have the opportunity to demonstrate courtroom procedure, as well as become acquainted with legal concepts and terminology. The trial is intended to be a synthesis of knowledge attained in this unit because the American right to a fair trial-by-jury reflects the philosophy of our Judicial system, "innocent until proven guilty."

The cognitive goals and objectives for this curriculum are based on the objectives and course outline for American Government in the Francis



Howell School District, St. Charles, Missouri. Francis Howell's curriculum contains only cognitive-based objectives which the author believes to be inadequate for a well-balanced and effective educational plan. Therefore, the curriculum presented here will expand on the district's curriculum and include affective goals and objectives, and thereby encourage affective learning.

The affective goals and objectives for this curriculum are based mainly on three sources: 1) the opinions of the various experts who support the use of simulations and role-playing, and whose thoughts and research are contained in chapter two. 2) the opinions of educational psychologists and theorists who have given us their ideas on educational issues, and whose thoughts are also contained in chapter two. 3) the author's own experiences in the classroom.

The major goal of this curriculum is to use role-playing and simulation methods for the purpose of blending cognitive and affective experiences in the right proportions so as to provide the student with an optimal learning format, in an environment that promotes involvement, motivation, and experiential

learning, which is, once again, the environment reminiscent of childhood that encouraged creativity, self-reliance, and unending inquisitiveness.

### Long Range Goals

After completing the study of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of American Government, the student will:

1. Understand the major philosophical and organizational elements of the American system of government.
2. Understand and appreciate the meaning of democracy and its unique American form.
3. Develop an awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of the American governmental system.
4. Develop the skills and attitudes necessary to be an active participant in a democratic society.
5. Support consistently, the American democratic system through active political participation.
6. Perceive the American governmental system as something which is accessible to the average citizen.
7. Experience feelings of confidence and control in exercising the rights and responsibilities of American citizenship.
8. Cultivate the use of the intellect and emotions in experiencing knowledge, making decisions, and forming values.
9. Understand, appreciate, and support the concept of law and order in our society.

### Intermediate Range Objectives

After completing the study of the three branches of government, the student will:

#### Legislative branch

- A. Describe the basic structure and function of the legislative branch of government. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- B. Cite the powers given and denied Congress by the U.S. Constitution. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- C. Distinguish between the unique powers of the House and those of the Senate. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- D. Identify the requirements, allowances, and privileges of members of the House and Senate. LRG 1, 3.
- E. Illustrate the political organization of Congress, and the role of political parties in our democratic system. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- F. Illustrate the procedural steps in the bill-to-law process. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.
- G. Demonstrate the important function of committees in Congress. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- H. Dramatize the role of lobbyists in the American governmental process. LRG 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7.
- I. Demonstrate ways in which citizens can influence the political system. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- J. Examine positive and negative aspects of the law-making system. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- K. Explain the electoral process and how political factors influence the behavior of



congressmen. LRG 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8.

- L. Identify the checks on congressional power.  
LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.

### Executive Branch

- A. Demonstrate the basic organization and function of the executive branch. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- B. Cite the constitutional and inherent powers of the president. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- C. Demonstrate the different functional roles the president performs as he carries out his job. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- D. Identify the checks on the president's power and explain historical examples of presidential abuse of power. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- E. Analyze the bureaucratic support system which helps a president to make decisions and fulfill the responsibilities of his office. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- F. Identify the informal requirements of the presidency. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- G. Demonstrate the electoral process for the presidency from primaries to the inauguration. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.
- H. Recognize the unique role of the vice-president. LRG 1, 2, 3.
- I. Examine the role of political parties in the executive branch. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

### Judicial Branch

- A. Describe the basic organization and function of the judicial branch of government. LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- B. Identify the formal and informal requirements for becoming a judge. LRG 1, 2, 3.

- C. Emulate the powers given to the judicial branch of government. LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- D. Describe the role of the judiciary in the American governmental system. LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- E. Explain the principle of jurisdiction as it applies to federal, state, and local court cases. LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- F. Interpret the concept of "judicial review". LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- G. Cite the impact of Supreme Court decisions on society. LRG 1, 2, 3, 9.
- H. Demonstrate the concept of "due process of law" LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9.
- I. Demonstrate courtroom procedure. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9.
- J. Recognize the role of political parties in the judicial branch. LRG 1, 2, 3.

The following objectives apply to the study of all three branches of government.

- Aa. Develop decision-making skills essential for life in a democratic country. LRG 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- Bb. Develop the capacity to respect and accept the opinions of others, especially those that may express the minority viewpoint. LRG 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- Cc. Expand the ability to communicate ideas and opinions effectively. LRG 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- Dd. Enhance interpersonal and social skills. LRG 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.
- Ee. Develop thinking skills which pertain to the active acceptance and creative manipulation of knowledge LRG 4, 7, 8.

- Ff. Cultivate the use of the natural inquiry-type learning methods associated with childhood. LRG 4, 5, 7, 8.
- Gg. Foster the ability to empathize. LRG 4, 8.
- Hh. Develop the capability to formulate one's own ideas, opinions, and values. LRG 4, 5, 7, 8.
- Ii. Demonstrate the art of compromise.





UNIT	ACTIVITY	OBJECTIVE
<p>The student will be able to read and understand the text of the lesson and answer the questions on the text.</p>	<p>After reading chapter 1 in English, students will be able to understand the text and answer the questions on the text.</p>	<p>Ability to read and understand the text.</p>
<p>Unit 2, p. 10</p>	<p>Chapter 2, paragraphs 1-10</p>	<p>Ability to read and understand the text.</p>

**CURRICULUM**

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>The student will be able to demonstrate thinking skills of flexibility and application to compose an interview which will illustrate basic facts about the House and Senate</p>	<p>After reading Chapter 5 in <u>American Government</u>, pp. 83-100, and completing "Facts About Congress" worksheet, students will devise a three-minute interview for a congressman based on information found on the worksheet. One student will play the role of reporter, while the other student will portray the congressman.</p>	<p>Quality of questions asked.</p> <p>80% accuracy on student responses for interview questions based on general facts about the House and Senate</p>
<p>IRO A, D, Ee</p>	<p>Interviews will be conducted before the class.</p>	

**LEGISLATIVE BRANCH****OBJECTIVES**

Students will use an inquiry-type learning approach, and in a cooperative group decision-making exercise, will cite powers given and denied the U.S. Congress.

IRO B, Ee, Ff

**ACTIVITY**

Using a copy of the U.S. Constitution Article I, Section 8, Clauses 1-18, students will, using an inquiry-type approach, decide by majority vote, if they have the power to carry out each of the 20 specific functions which the teacher will give them in listed form.

**EVALUATION**

Student's correct responses to a list of 20 powers given or denied Congress.

80% accuracy



## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will formulate and express their own ideas as they distinguish between the unique powers of the House and those of the Senate.</p>	<p>After listing the powers that belong to the Senate, and the House, and to both, students will be presented with a list of governmental tasks for the legislative branch. Students will decide who has the jurisdiction over these specific tasks. Students will use Article I, Sections 1-7 of the U.S. Constitution and Chapter 5, pp.83-100 in <u>American Government</u>.</p>	<p>80% accuracy on student's responses to questions about specific powers of the House and Senate.</p>
<p>IRO C, Hh</p>		

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

## OBJECTIVES

Students will practice interpersonal and social skills in small groups as they create an illustration of the political organization of Congress.

IRO A, E, Dd, Ee

## ACTIVITY

Students will read ch. 6, pp. 105-118, in American Government, take notes, participate in class discussion, and then break up into groups of four to create a poster-diagram of the organization of Congress. Each group will then explain their diagram to the class.

## EVALUATION

Political accuracy of diagrams which depict Congressional organization.

Quality of student's explanations of their diagrams.

At least three major political elements should be represented.

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will examine their personal values, construct their own opinions, and empathize with the opinions of other students as they dramatize the role of lobbyists in the American governmental process.</p>	<p>After defining the function of lobbyists in Congress, students will study a bill to create a system of socialized medicine in the United States. Students will break up into groups representing the lobbys involved, (NAACP, Gray Panthers, White House Lobby, American Medical Assoc.) and develop reasons for or against the bill from their lobby's point of view.</p>	<p>Ability of students to role-play the interests and goals of their lobbys.</p>
<p>IRO H, Hh, Gg</p>		



## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

## OBJECTIVES

Students will form and express their opinions, make decisions, evaluate their political situations, and practice the art of compromise as they demonstrate the important function of committees in Congress.

IRO G, Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Hh,  
Ii

## ACTIVITY

Students will participate in the Simulation, "Committee", carrying out the following activities: reading the bill, playing the role of their party in determining their stand on the bill, speaking for or against the bill, participating in a public hearing, being a lobbyist and offering votes or campaign contributions in exchange for support of their side, persuading others to vote for their side, logrolling and general politicking, and finally, deciding whether or not to report the bill to the main floor of the house.

## EVALUATION

Level and quality of participation and accuracy in role-playing their political part in the simulation.

Student questionnaire assessing the simulation.

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will compose literary illustrations which express the procedural steps in the bill-to-law process.</p>	<p>After studying about the "bill-to-law" process, students will be able to role-play a bill and describe the step that comes before or after the step described by the teacher.</p>	<p>Number of correct answers out of 20. 80% accuracy.</p>
<p>IRO A, E, F, G, I, Ee</p>	<p>Students will view a filmstrip on the "Selective Service Act" and take note of the legislative steps as it moved through Congress on its way to becoming a law.</p>	<p>Quality and accuracy of narrative description in listing the steps of the bill-to-law process.</p>
	<p>Students will write a narrative description of a bill as it proceeds through Congress. This description should include at least two types of action which would slow a bill down, and two which would speed it up.</p>	

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

## OBJECTIVES

## ACTIVITY

## EVALUATION

Students will analyze and evaluate a typical schedule of a U.S. Congressman, identifying the political checks on congressional power.

IRO I, J, K, L, Ee

Students will read pp. 125-127, in American Government, ( a typical day in the life of a senator) and list the activities of the senator, deciding how he spends most of his time, who he is meeting with, and how much time is actually spent studying proposed bills, and the problems our nation faces.

Students will circle those activities of the Senator which might act as a check or influence on his political behavior.

Students will re-write this schedule, changing it in ways they feel might result in improved service to the country and its citizens.

Correct answers concerning the senator's schedule.

Quality of class discussion.

A minimum of five checks should be listed.



## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will examine and evaluate the law-making system identifying the positive and negative aspects of it.</p> <p>IRO A, E, J, Bb, Ee</p>	<p>After reading a case study, "The Emergency Energy Bill", pp. 120-124, in <u>American Government</u>, students will list positive and negative aspects of the system as they read how the bill moved through the legislative system. Students will discuss their opinions.</p>	<p>Correct Identification of at least three positive and three negative aspects of our law-making system.</p>

## LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will apply knowledge, analyze, and evaluate, as they make decisions, accept opinions of other students, and communicate ideas in a dramatization of the operation of the U.S. law-making system.</p>	<p>Students will simulate the legislative process, dividing into House and Senate and political parties. Students will propose bills, deal with student lobbyists, debate, vote, and repeat the process in each House of Congress.</p>	<p>Level of involvement by all students. Accuracy in playing assigned role. Student questionnaire</p>
<p>IRO A, E, F, G, H, I, J, L, Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii</p>	<p>The student-president may sign or veto. Two-thirds of both Houses may pass it over the president's veto.</p>	

Students will participate in a de-briefing activity.

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will use inductive thinking processes as they investigate and identify the informal requirements of the presidency.</p>	<p>Students will divide into groups of four, read a short bibliographical summary of ten presidents, and answer the following questions.</p>	<p>Identification of at least three informal requirements for the office of U.S. President.</p>
<p>IRO F, Dd, Ff</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) What type of social/economic class was this president a part of?</li> <li>2) Where did he receive his education?</li> <li>3) How did he get started in his career?</li> <li>4) What was his first major position?</li> <li>5) How did he attain this position?</li> </ol>	
	<p>Each group will report to the class, and the class will try to identify common elements in the backgrounds of these Presidents.</p>	



## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will form opinions, communicate ideas, practice interpersonal and social skills, as they demonstrate the electoral process for the president from primaries to inauguration.</p>	<p>Students will carry out a complete simulation of the electoral process from primaries to Inauguration.</p> <p>Step 1: student candidates will register to enter the race.</p> <p>Step 2: student-candidates will give speeches in the five-minute reserved portion of each class period.</p> <p>Step 3: class will divide into parties and will choose the final candidate.</p> <p>Step 4: students will begin formal campaigning.</p> <p>Step 5: students will elect the electors</p> <p>Step 6: student-electors will elect the President.</p> <p>Step 7: student-president will be inaugurated.</p>	<p>Quality of student's notes and observations from the simulation</p> <p>90% accuracy in describing steps.</p>
<p>IRO G, Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh</p>	<p>Students will write an essay describing the steps of the electoral process.</p>	

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
Students will cite the constitutional and inherent powers of the president.	Students will read an account of a day in the life of Lyndon B. Johnson as President.	Correct identification of at least two constitutional and two inherent powers of the president.
IRO A, B, C, E, I	For each time period students will identify constitutional or inherent powers associated with the presidential task at hand.	
	Students will also identify presidential roles for each time period.	Correct identification of seven activities which portray the seven roles of the President.

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will practice interpersonal and group social skills as they demonstrate the different functional roles the president performs in his position.</p>	<p>After studying the seven main roles of the president, students will break up into groups of five, and compose skits which portray the presidential role assigned to them.</p>	<p>Accuracy of student's portrayal of the particular presidential role in their skit.</p>
<p>IRO B, C, Cc, Dd, Ee</p>		



## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

## OBJECTIVES

## ACTIVITY

## EVALUATION

Students will recognize and express opinions on the unique role of the Vice-President.

IRO H, Cc, Hh

Students will read several excerpts in the opinions of former Presidents about the office of Vice-President.

Students will read excerpts of opinions of former Vice-Presidents about the office of Vice-President.

Students will give their reactions to the above readings and their opinions on what they might have the Vice-President do, if they were the President.

Quality of student's opinions based on readings about the Vice-Presidency.

### EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will analyze the bureaucratic support system which helps a president to make decisions and fulfill the responsibilities of his office.</p>	<p>Students will study a diagram of the organizational structure of the Executive Branch, from president to support agencies.</p>	<p>Quality of class discussion.</p> <p>Ability of students to analyze how presidential decisions are made, who is involved in making them, and the process that is used in Executive decision-making.</p>
<p>IRO A, E, Aa, Hh</p>	<p>Students will view a filmstrip which depicts two historical crisis situations, the decision to use the A-bomb, by Harry Truman, and the Cuban Missile Crisis of the John Kennedy Administration.</p>	
	<p>Students will record the steps of the decision-making process as they occurred in each crisis and pinpoint how a president makes decisions.</p>	
	<p>Class will discuss their observations.</p>	

### EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will examine their values, make predictions, engage in forecasting, and evaluation, as they demonstrate the basic organization and function of the executive branch.</p>	<p>Students will simulate the process of presidential decision-making in a National crisis.</p>	<p>Student's accuracy in role-playing their part in the crisis, and the working relationships which exist between the President and his staff.</p>
<p>IRO A, E, Aa, Cc, Ee, Ff Hh</p>	<p>Students role-playing Cabinet members and advisors will be called upon to give pertinent information and advice.</p>	
	<p>The student role-playing President will make a decision after receiving the information from his staff.</p>	
	<p>The class will participate in a de-briefing exercise.</p>	



## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will interpret and apply the laws to presidential actions, and will make judgements concerning their constitutionality as they identify checks on presidential power.</p>	<p>One student will act as President, and role-play the carrying-out of various presidential powers and responsibilities. Other students who will role-play the Supreme Court Justices, Congress, and the American people, will voice their "checks" on the President when they have the legal right to do so, or when they think it is necessary.</p>	<p>Constitutional accuracy of student's decisions to check or not check the president</p>
<p>IRO B, D, Aa, Cc, Ee, Ff, Hh</p>	<p>Two-thirds majority vote is required to check the President.</p>	

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will form and defend their opinions, evaluate information presented, and make a decision, as they analyze an example of the presidential abuse of power.</p>	<p>Students will examine the main facts of the Watergate event. They will act as the Senate in trying the hypothetical impeachment of Richard Nixon.</p> <p>Each student will compose a 1-2 minute speech giving his/her opinion on whether or not Nixon should be found guilty.</p>	<p>Quality of reasoning in student speeches expressing their reasoning for or against Nixon's impeachment.</p>
<p>IRO B, D, Bb, Cc, Ee, Hh</p>	<p>A two-thirds vote is required to convict the President.</p>	

## EXECUTIVE BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will employ the evaluation process in choosing Supreme Court Judges as they examine the role of political parties in the executive branch.</p>	<p>Students will view a filmstrip on the process of appointment of Supreme Court Justices by the President.</p>	<p>Practicality of student's choices for Justices based on political considerations.</p>
<p>IRO I, D, Aa, Ee, Ff</p>	<p>Students will role-play President George Bush in appointing one of several candidates to the court.</p>	<p>Correctness of justifications for choices made based on political realities.</p>
	<p>A candidate's background, political affiliations and experience will be noted on profile cards.</p>	
	<p>Students will list the requirements that George Bush would probably have in mind; they should base their decision on how well the candidates meet those requirements.</p>	



## JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will describe the basic organization and function of the Judicial Branch of Government.</p> <p>IRO A, E, Ee, Ff</p>	<p>After studying the basic organization of the court system, students will decide whether a case described by the teacher is criminal or civil, and will also decide which court has jurisdiction in the case, and how it might proceed through the court system.</p>	<p>80% accuracy on student's answers for 20 court cases.</p>

**JUDICIAL BRANCH****OBJECTIVES****ACTIVITY****EVALUATION**

Students will identify formal and informal requirements for becoming a judge.

Students will read Article III of the U.S. Constitution in search of formal requirements for federal judges.

Quality of student's list of informal requirements.

IRO B, J, Aa, Ee, Ff, Hh

Students will write a job description for a federal judge, and will then decide what the informal requirements for becoming a judge might be in terms of education, political affiliation, and experience.

## JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will formulate their opinions and make decisions as they interpret the concept of "judicial review."</p> <p>IRO D, F, Aa, Cc, Ee, Gg, Hh</p>	<p>Students will read and analyze the case of "Tinker v. Des Moines Community School District".</p> <p>Students should:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) state important facts in this case.</li> <li>2) state law, laws, or constitutional issues involved in this case.</li> <li>3) state whether or not the law or action violates the Constitution.</li> <li>4) give arguments for both sides.</li> <li>5) role-play the judge and state what they would decide and why.</li> </ol>	<p>Student's ability in deciding the case by interpreting the case by noting the Constitutional applications.</p>



## JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will analyze a famous Supreme Court case, determine the effect this case had on society, and make inferences as to the impact this court decision has on their lives.</p>	<p>Students will read and analyze the case of "Brown v. Board of Education".</p> <p>Students will role-play the judges and answer the following questions.</p>	<p>Student's accurate descriptions of the effects of the Court decision on society.</p>
<p>IRO C, D, F, G, Aa, Bb, Cc, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) What are the important facts in this case?</li> <li>2) What law, laws, or constitutional issues are involved in this case?</li> <li>3) What are the arguments for both sides in this case?</li> <li>4) What was the precedent set prior to this case, regarding segregation?</li> <li>5) How did this decision effect society?</li> <li>6) What was the decision in Brown v. Board of Education?</li> <li>7) Describe 7 ways in which American society was changed as a result of this decision.</li> </ol>	

### JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will form and defend their opinions, make decisions, and explain the basis for their reasoning in a formal, written statement as they emulate the powers given to the judicial branch of government.</p>	<p>Students will read summaries of five landmark Supreme Court dealing with our rights and freedoms.</p> <p>Students will break into groups of five and role-play the judges in these cases. They will discuss the case, form their opinion and vote. The majority will decide the case, and write their opinion. Other students who agree with the majority but for different reasons will write the concurring opinion. Those disagreeing will write the dissenting opinion.</p>	<p>Quality of group discussion and written opinions.</p>
<p>IRO A, C, D, F, G, Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh</p>	<p>Opinions will be presented to the class.</p>	

### JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will compose skits in a cooperative group effort, and evaluate their meaning as they demonstrate the concept of "due process of law."</p>	<p>After studying the specific steps which must be taken in the legal treatment of accused persons, based on several cases such as "Gideon", "Miranda", and "Escebedo", students will break up into groups of five and devise five-minute skits which portray their impressions of how accused persons will be treated.</p>	<p>Accuracy of the steps of "due process" shown in skits.</p>
<p>IRO A, D, H, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Hh</p>	<p>The class will evaluate each skit and decide whether or not "due process" was followed.</p>	<p>Accuracy of evaluations by observer-students.</p> <p>Quiz on chronology of "due process".</p> <p>80% accuracy.</p>



## JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will evaluate our criminal justice system, and practice communication skills, as they present their evaluations to the class and investigate the role of the judiciary in American governmental system.</p>	<p>Students will view a program entitled, "Do the Guilty Go Free?"</p> <p>Students will write out their evaluations of our criminal justice system after viewing Part I.</p> <p>Students will define the "exclusionary rule".</p> <p>Students will write out any changes in their evaluations after viewing Part II.</p> <p>Students will share their opinions with the class.</p>	<p>Consistency of student's opinions and reasoning based on the facts.</p>
<p>IRO D, H, Ee, Gg, Hh</p>		

### JUDICIAL BRANCH

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITY	EVALUATION
<p>Students will investigate arguments for both sides, make a judgement, and defend their decision as they interact with other student-judges, and demonstrate the concept of "due process" as it applies to juvenile rights.</p>	<p>Students will read and analyze the case of "Gault v. Arizona"</p> <p>Students will answer the following questions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) State the important facts in this case.</li> <li>2) State the law, laws, or constitutional issues involved in this case.</li> <li>3) Give arguments for both sides.</li> <li>4) State the violations of "due process" in Gerald Gault's treatment as an accused person.</li> <li>5) Role-play the judge, state your decision, and give your reasons.</li> <li>6) What was the decision in this case?</li> <li>7) What precedent was set by this case?</li> </ol>	<p>80% accuracy in student's answers.</p> <p>Quality of class discussion.</p>
<p>IRO H, E, Cc, Ee, Ff, Hh</p>		

**JUDICIAL BRANCH**

---

<b>OBJECTIVES</b>	<b>ACTIVITY</b>	<b>EVALUATION</b>
<p>Students will examine values, analyze information, make decisions, and judgements, enhance interpersonal skills and demonstrate courtroom procedure.</p>	<p>Students will enact a murder trial, "Missouri v. Mike Mean".</p> <p>Students will role-play one of the following parts: judge, lawyer, witness, bailiff, or jury.</p> <p>Lawyers will develop their cases, inventing their own questioning strategies. Witnesses will answer the lawyers' questions based on their testimonies. The jury will listen to all testimonies and decide the verdict. The judge will conduct the trial and decide punishment if the defendant is found guilty. The bailiff will swear in witnesses and keep order.</p>	<p>Student's ability in portraying court procedure correctly.</p>
<p>IRO A, C, D, H, I, Cc, Ee, Ff, Hh</p>		



1. What is the purpose of the study?
2. How is the study being conducted?
3. What are the limitations of the study?
4. How is the data being analyzed?
5. What are the expected results?

### APPENDICES

6. How long is the study?
7. List the names of the researchers.
8. How long is the study?
9. What are the objectives of the study?
10. How long is the study?
11. How long is the study?
12. How long is the study?
13. How long is the study?
14. How long is the study?
15. How long is the study?
16. How long is the study?
17. How long is the study?
18. How long is the study?
19. How long is the study?
20. How long is the study?

American Government  
House and Senate Fact Sheet

Devise a three-minute interview for a congressman based on the information found in this worksheet.

1. Where does Congress meet?
2. Name the two Houses that compose our Congress.
3. How many representatives are in the House? in the Senate?
4. How is the number of representatives for each state decided for the House? for the Senate?
5. What is the special function of the legislative branch?
6. When does Congress meet? How long is a session? What is the difference between a term and a session?
7. List two privileges that members of Congress have.
8. How long is a Representative's term? a Senator's term?
9. When are congressional elections held?
10. After an election, would there be all new representatives in the House? What percentage of Senators are up for re-election every 2 years?
11. Which house is meant to be more in touch with the people? Why?
12. About how many people does each representative represent?
13. Why is the number of representatives set at 435 in the House?
14. What happens to the number of representatives when a state grows in population?
15. What is gerrymandering?

16. How has the make-up of congress changed in the last 30 years?
17. What are the qualifications for the office of Representative? for Senator?
18. Who is the leader of the House? of the Senate? What do these leaders do?
19. Who chooses the leadership positions in the House and Senate?
20. Who disciplines or expels members of the House and Senate?
21. Why is the Senate more traditional than the House?
22. What is the yearly salary of Representatives and Senators?
23. How would a citizen find out what is going on in Congress without having to go to Washington?
24. How would a citizen make their ideas known to our lawmakers?
25. Who are our U.S. Representatives for our state? our U.S. Senators? How are they different from our State Representatives and Senators?
26. What is a Quorum?
27. Who determines the rules for proceedings in each House of Congress?
28. Under what conditions may a House adjourn for more than three days?



### CONGRESSIONAL POWERS

Do you, as members of the Legislative Branch, have the power to carry out each of the 20 specific functions listed below? Find out by checking Article I, Section 8, Clauses 1-18, of the Constitution.

1. To suspend the privilege of the writ of habeas corpus.
2. To lay and collect taxes, duties, tariffs, and excise taxes.
3. To declare war.
4. To establish post offices and roads.
5. To grant titles of nobility.
6. To accept gifts or titles from foreign countries.
7. To set up courts lower than the Supreme Court.
8. To pass ex post facto laws.
9. To punish counterfeiters.
10. To regulate commerce and trade with foreign countries.
11. To spend money.
12. To borrow money.
13. To raise and support the army and navy.
14. To lay taxes on products exported from any state.
15. To call out the State Militia for executing the laws of the U.S.
16. To raise and support the Air Force, Marines, and Coast Guard.
17. To decide which States shall have special treatment in matters of trade and commerce.
18. To define and punish crimes on the seas or in the air.
19. To provide copyrights and patents to authors and inventors.
20. To establish laws for persons wishing to be U.S. citizens.

SPECIAL POWERS OF THE HOUSE AND SENATE

Decide who has jurisdiction over these tasks, the Senate, or the House.

1. A president has grossly violated the constitution. Which House has the power to impeach him?
2. A president has been impeached. Which House tries the impeachment?
3. The president submits his budget to Congress. Which House will consider it first, as it has the power to handle all money matters?
4. In the election for the presidency, none of the candidates have the required 270 votes. Which house will choose the president?
5. In the above situation, which house will choose the Vice-President?
6. The president has signed a treaty with the Soviet Union. Which House must approve it before it will become a law?
7. A Vice-President has died. The President chooses a new one. Which House must approve of the appointment?
8. A bill is on the floor for debate. Which house has unlimited debate on the bill? (filibuster)
9. A new President has taken office. He has appointed several Cabinet members. Which house has the power to approve or reject these appointments?
10. Which House seems to have the most power?

101st CONGRESS  
1st Session

S. 550

To enact a program of socialized medicine in the United States.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

January 21, 1989

Sponsors:

A BILL

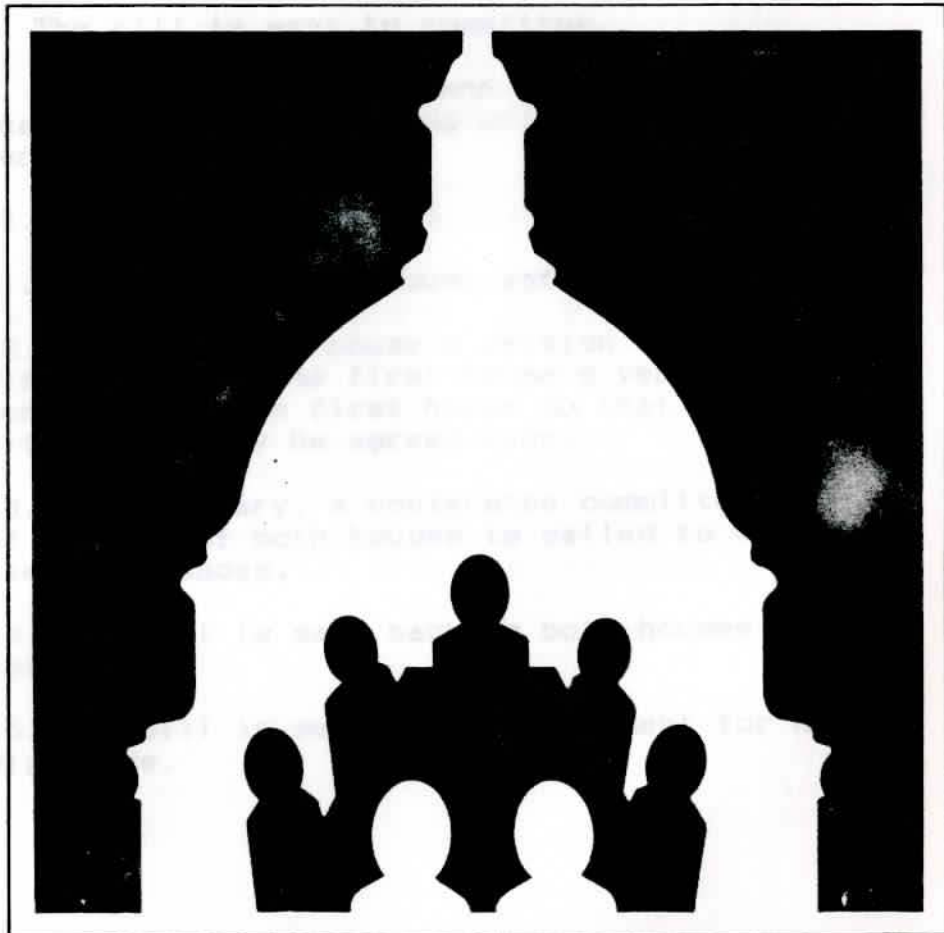
1 Be it enacted by the Senate and the House of  
2 Representatives that the United States shall  
3 adopt a system of socialized medicine. This  
4 shall include government ownership of  
5 certain hospitals and clinics. This shall  
6 also include government staffing of such  
7 medical facilities; doctors, nurses,  
8 technicians, and other medical personnel.  
9 Medical personnel now engaged in practice  
10 will be required to take on patients who are  
11 in need of medical services at reduced  
12 rates. These rates will be determined by the  
13 government. Those patients who do not  
14 qualify for the reduced rate will pay the  
15 regular fees. However, the government will  
16 institute limits on the fees that doctors  
17 and hospitals may charge patients.



**interact**  
LEARNING THROUGH INVOLVEMENT

# COMMITTEE

A simulation of the Congressional committee system



### BILL-TO-LAW PROCESS

1. Someone has an idea for a law.
2. A Congressman proposes it in the first house.
3. The bill is sent to committee.
4. The committee researches it, holds public hearings, revises it, and writes up the new version.
5. The committee calls for a final vote.
6. The first whole house votes on the bill.
7. The second house proposes it.
8. The bill is sent to committee.
9. The committee researches it, holds public hearings, revises it, and writes up the new version.
10. The committee votes.
11. The second whole house votes.
12. If the second house's version of the bill is different from the first house's version, it is sent back to the first house so that the differences may be agreed upon.
13. If necessary, a conference committee made up of members of both houses is called to work out the differences.
14. The bill is sent back to both houses for a vote.
15. The bill is sent to the President for his signature.

SIMULATION OF LEGISLATIVE PROCESS

1. Divide class into House and Senate.
2. Determine party membership.
3. Generate ideas for laws.
4. Choose the best five. Eliminate the rest.
5. Assign lobbyists.
6. Debate within each house.
7. Hold hearings if necessary.
8. Committee should make changes if desired.
9. Committee should vote.
10. Houses will exchange bills.
11. Process repeats itself.
12. If needed equal number of party members should be chosen for conference committee from each house.
13. Final versions presented to each house.
14. Final vote.
15. President signs or vetoes. (If veto, reasons should be written for Congressional examination)
16. If veto, vote of two-thirds of both houses would pass the bill over the President's head.



## SEVEN ROLES OF THE PRESIDENT

After reaching an understanding of what these roles involve, compose a skit on the role which has been assigned to you.

### 1. Chief of State

This role requires the President to be a symbol of the country. Wherever he is, and whatever he does, he is chief of state. In America, our President is the leader of the Government, and has true governmental power, as well as being a symbol. In some countries, there are two leaders, one which has ruling power, and one which only serves as a symbol. This is usually part of their history. A king and queen may wear their crowns and officiate in ceremonies on special days, but they have very little influence in the government. So the American President does both. Many presidents have enjoyed this role. Ronald Reagan was especially talented in performing this role. Other presidents were more reluctant, and preferred to keep a low profile on social-type activities.

### 2. Chief Executive

The President is the leader of the government, and specifically, the executive branch. He decides how the laws made by Congress will be enforced. He appoints his Cabinet, and other important officials. Together, the President and his staff run the country. He gets their advice and makes important decisions. Especially, in times of crises, Americans all look to the President for a wise decision.

### 3. Chief Diplomat

The President has the most power in this field. He alone may decide who this country will recognize and carry on relations with. He does not need the consent of the Congress for this. He may also make informal agreements with other nations without anyone's consent. Inviting ambassadors from other countries, and making foreign policy is part of this important role.

### Commander-in-Chief

The President is in charge of all military forces. He decides where the armed forces will be sent, and how our weapons will be employed. He evaluates our preparedness and makes

recommendations for what we need in the military field. He may send troops overseas to engage in combat for 60 days without the consent of Congress. Our President does not wear a uniform, however, as in some countries. In America, we wanted the civilian government to be superior to the military. In other countries, the military and the government are one and the same.

#### 5. Chief Legislator

In this role, the President may influence the laws, but not make them. In the State of the Union Address which he gives each January, he outlines his goals and programs. In this way, Congress knows what he feels the nation needs. The President also sends his White House lobbyists to Congress to try and get his programs passed. The President usually tries to influence key congressmen, members of his party, to work in getting the laws passed that he wants. Even though this is more of an indirect role, the President can use it very skillfully to his benefit.

#### 6. Chief of Party

Our political system has been mainly organized around two parties throughout history. It would be very hard to get into office without the support and influence of these parties. So the President is the official leader of his party. He campaigns for other party members. It's especially important for him to have as many Congressmen from his party in Congress as is possible. The President will surround himself with loyal party members once he is in office. He will also appoint Supreme Court Judges and other judges that are members of his party.

#### 7. Chief Budget-Maker

In this role the President strives to make a healthy economy for America so that all citizens may enjoy a kind of prosperity. He is responsible for preparing a budget and submitting it to Congress for approval. Generally, the President tries to control inflation, keep unemployment down, encourage business profits, maintain reasonable tax rates, and set a reasonable interest rate.



## PRESIDENTIAL CRISIS

### JIMMY CARTER

The following description of a real crisis which occurred several years ago is explained briefly below. Read this description. Several of you will be presidential advisors and will be called upon to give advice to the President. You will be given the opportunity to research events of terrorism before this crisis, and also to find out as much as is possible about the new leader of Iran, his background, and his orientation as a representative of the "old order". You should bring to the presidential meeting any information which you feel is important to the President in making this decision. Also be prepared to give your own opinion of what should be done.

On November 4, 1979, several angry students broke into the American embassy in Teheran, Iran, and took sixty employees hostage. Their hands were tied and they were blindfolded. President Carter was informed of the incident. Prior to this event, Iran's former leader, the Shah, who had good relations with the U.S., had went into exile when his life was endangered after the revolution which overthrew him. President Carter had allowed him to come to New York for cancer treatment. Now, the new leader of Iran, the Ayatollah Khomeini, demanded the Shah's return in exchange for the hostages.

1. The student-president will call a meeting of all advisors.
2. Student-advisors will present background information to the president, and give their opinion as to what should be done.
3. The student-president will follow the steps listed below in making his decision.

### STEPS OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. State your goals and objectives
2. List possible actions.



3. For each action, list good points and bad points.
4. Begin eliminating less desirable options.
5. Choose final option.
6. Announce option.

#### DE-BRIEFING QUESTIONS

1. How did the president use his staff?
2. How did the decision-making steps aid him in making a decision?
3. Did the president make the decision his staff was in favor of?
4. What part did the president's staff play in the whole process?
5. Could a president function without such a staff? Why or Why not?
6. If someone from another country asked you how your president makes important decisions, how would you answer them?

## CHECKS ON PRESIDENTIAL POWER

Below is a listing of actions or responsibilities the president may carry out. Some of them require the participation of other branches of government. This kind of participation is called a "check" on the executive branch or on the president. Please voice your checks according to the role you are playing. A two-thirds majority vote will be required of the whole group before the presidential action will be stopped. If you feel a "check" is not appropriate then say so.

### Student-president

1. I am appointing John Paynes to the Supreme Court.
2. Today, I am signing a Nuclear Arms Limitation Treaty with the Soviet Union.
3. I am nominating Jan Kople for the position of Secretary of Defense.
4. Next week, the leader of Communist China will be coming to the White House, by my personal invitation.
5. I have just finished preparing the United States Budget for the upcoming year.
6. Because of war-like conditions, I have sent American troops to El Salvador to help in regaining control and stemming a revolution which is resulting in disruption of life and great bloodshed.
7. I found it necessary to make an informal agreement with Haiti for emergency use of American ships to aid in the project of re-establishing their communities after Hurricane Floyd hit last week.
8. My legislative program for this year is complete and will be submitted today.
9. It was crucial on my part to act as peacemaker between the nations of Israel and Egypt.
10. During this crisis the only input I found absolutely necessary was from my Cabinet. It was a matter of national security and I have my experts.

TYPE OF CASE AND COURT

State the type of case and name the court it would be heard in.

1. The state of California is suing the state of Nevada for failure to fulfill an agreement made by the two states over interstate highway construction.

2. Mike Stern sued Proctor and Gamble for discrimination when he was passed over for a promotion. Now he is appealing his case for the first time.

3. Joseph Blunt was arrested for stealing weapons and ammunition from a U.S. Army warehouse in Sumter, South Carolina.

4. Stephen Conley was arrested for the bizarre murders of twelve women.

5. John Sirocco is suing his neighbor for the faulty drain system he built which causes water to flood his property when it rains.

6. Maria Tinsley has attempted to shoot the Vice-President at a political rally.

7. Bill Kirby received a summons to appear in court for twenty-eight parking tickets he recieved in Chicago.

8. Susan Martin was driving in excess of sixty-five miles per hour in a subdivision when she struck and killed a child on a bicycle.

9. Tom Cirrus was crushed by a weight machine which was improperly mounted at a Nautilus weight club. He is filing charges against them.

10. Dan and Staci Wright's daughter sustained injuries from the neighbor's electric fence when she stooped under the fence to retrieve her ball. They are pressing charges against the neighbor.

11. Henry Neff is appealing his case for the third time. He was charged with stealing money from the Anheiser-Busch Corporation.



12. Four members of a counterfeit ring were convicted and sentenced to twenty years in prison. Two of them are appealing their case.

13. Fred Kaiser has been accused of Grand Theft. He withdrew 1.2 million dollars from the Mark Twain Bank through the use of his computer modem.

14. The American Ambassador to Turkey is filing charges against the government of Turkey for false charges and imprisonment of his son, Philip.

15. Jill Stanwich was injured on a ski lift at the Highland Ski Resort which malfunctioned and caused her to break her leg.

16. Jim Davis robbed the Sunny Grove liquor store.

17. Teresa Knowles was indicted in a hijacking conspiracy at John Kennedy airport in New York City.

18. Tim Bivero ran a stoplight and caused a four-car accident.

19. Babek Kuishui took over a radio station and held several employees hostage for seventy-five hours in Chicago. He made demands for the release of PLO prisoners in Israel.

20. Ken Ritenor sold a product which was copied from a company that had a legal registered U.S. patent.

## THE TINKER CASE

In 1965, there were protests against the Vietnam War across the United States. Many people wrote against the War, others refused to stand up when the Star-Spangled Banner was played. Three students by the names of Chris Eckhardt, John Tinker, and Mary Beth Tinker decided to wear black armbands to school to protest America's involvement in the War. School officials thought this would cause disruption in the school, so they announced that anyone wearing an armband would be asked to remove it, and if they refused, they would be suspended until they would agree to come to school without it.

The three students mentioned above came to school wearing the armbands and were suspended. The student's parents sued the school district in a U.S. district court. The student's lawyers argued that the school rule violated their First Amendment rights to freedom of expression, as well as the Fourteenth Amendment, which guarantees citizens of states against infringements on their rights of liberty without due process of law.

The school officials argued that the armbands might cause disruptions in the educational process. It was their duty to prevent such interruptions. The district court agreed with them.

The Tinkers appealed the decision to an Appeals court which upheld the decision of the district court.

The Tinkers then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. The question the Court must answer was: Did students in school have free speech rights? Could those rights be limited in some cases?



## BROWN VS. THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF TOPEKA, KANSAS

Back in the late 1800's, about half the states passed laws that separated white and non-white people in public places in the United States. In 1896, a black man by the name of Homer Plessy was arrested for refusing to move from a "white railroad car" to the "black railroad car". The case went to court and it was decided that as long as the facilities were equal in quality, it was legal to have separate facilities. After that, more segregation laws were passed. This continued for forty years until the Court ruled that many facilities were not equal in quality and would have to be improved. Many states spent large sums of money to maintain segregation.

By 1950, seventeen U.S. states had segregation. Many parents of black students were upset over this ruling as it applied to schools because the black schools were not, in any way, equal to the white schools. The first case which was taken was the case of Oliver Brown and his eight-year-old daughter, Linda. Thurgood Marshall, their lawyer, argued that separate schools could never be equal. Black students were effected physically and mentally by the separation. The attorney for the other side, John Davis, argued that it was a state decision, and the Supreme Court should not have such great power to change society. This should be the job of the state governments or the U.S. Congress.



## FIVE LANDMARK SUPREME COURT CASES

### 1. Press Freedom: Near v. Minnesota

In 1927, a sleazy journalist, named Jay Near, started a scandal sheet called the Saturday Press. He charged that corrupt city officials were working closely with local gangsters. Some of the things he said were true. Some were lies. All of them involved vicious attacks on Jews and blacks. In one issue he claimed that 90% of the crimes were committed by Jew gangsters. Under Minnesota law, the court could shut down scandalous newspapers. A local judge closed the newspaper company. The Minnesota Supreme Court upheld his decision.

Near's lawyers took his case to court. They felt the Minnesota Court action violated his Constitutional rights.

### 2. Affirmative Action: University of California v. Bakke

In 1971, local minority group leaders protested that the University of California medical school was not allowing enough non-white applicants to enter. The school decided to set aside 16 out of 100 admissions for blacks, Mexican-Americans, Asian Americans, and Indians.

Alan Bakke, an engineer, and Vietnam veteran wanted to become a doctor. He applied to the school and was denied twice, even though his test scores were higher than some minority group applicants who were accepted. He decided to take his case to court.

### 3. Freedom of Speech: Spence v. Washington

In 1970, the nation's colleges were experiencing protests against the Vietnam War. American flags were being burned. This form of protest had been outlawed by Congress and most of the states.

One student, Harold Spence, expressed his opposition to the war differently. He attached a peace symbol to flag with masking tape, and then hung the flag upside down outside his window. Spence was arrested and convicted. He appealed his case to the Supreme Court.

#### 4. Right to Counsel: Gideon v. Wainwright

In 1961, Clarence Gideon was arrested and charged with breaking and entering a Florida poolhall. He was too poor to hire a lawyer, so he defended himself. He was not versed in the law or in tactics which lawyers use in questioning witnesses to find the truth. He was found guilty and sent to prison. He appealed his case to the Supreme Court. They agreed to hear it.

#### 5. Student Rights: New Jersey v. T.L.O.

In Piscataway, New Jersey, a teacher caught two girls smoking cigarettes in a high school bathroom. Both girls were brought before an assistant principal. One admitted smoking, the other denied it. The school official searched the girl's purse who had denied smoking. He found cigarettes, rolling papers, a pipe, marijuana, plastic bags, a large amount of cash, and records that suggested the girl was selling marijuana.

The assistant principal called the girl's mother and the police. The girl then admitted to the police that she had actually been selling marijuana. She was charged with delinquency in juvenile court. But her lawyer argued that her purse should not be admitted as evidence.



THE CASE OF GERALD GAULT

In 1964, a young man named Gerald Gault, 15 yrs. old, was reported to have made an obscene phone call to a woman living in the neighborhood. Gault was arrested. At that time he had been serving six-month probation for being with another boy who had stolen a wallet. A Mrs. Cook called the police and stated that the two boys had called her and made indecent remarks on the phone. At the time of the arrest, Gerald's parents were not at home. The police did not leave word as to where Gerald was. When his mother arrived home, she sent an older brother to look for Gerald, and then found out what had happened. The next day there was a hearing.

The officer filed papers for the hearing, but they were not given to the Gaults. The papers did not say why Gerald had been arrested. They said he was a delinquent minor in need of help from the court.

On June 9th a hearing was held. Gerald, his mother, his older brother, Officer Flagg, and the Judge were present. Mrs. Cook was not there. No record was kept. Later, Gerald's mother stated that at this hearing Gerald never admitted to talking on the phone, but only dialing the number. The officer said Gerald had admitted to making some of the remarks while he was testifying at this hearing.

Another hearing was held on June 15th. The same people were present, with the addition of Gerald's father. Mrs. Cook again was not present.

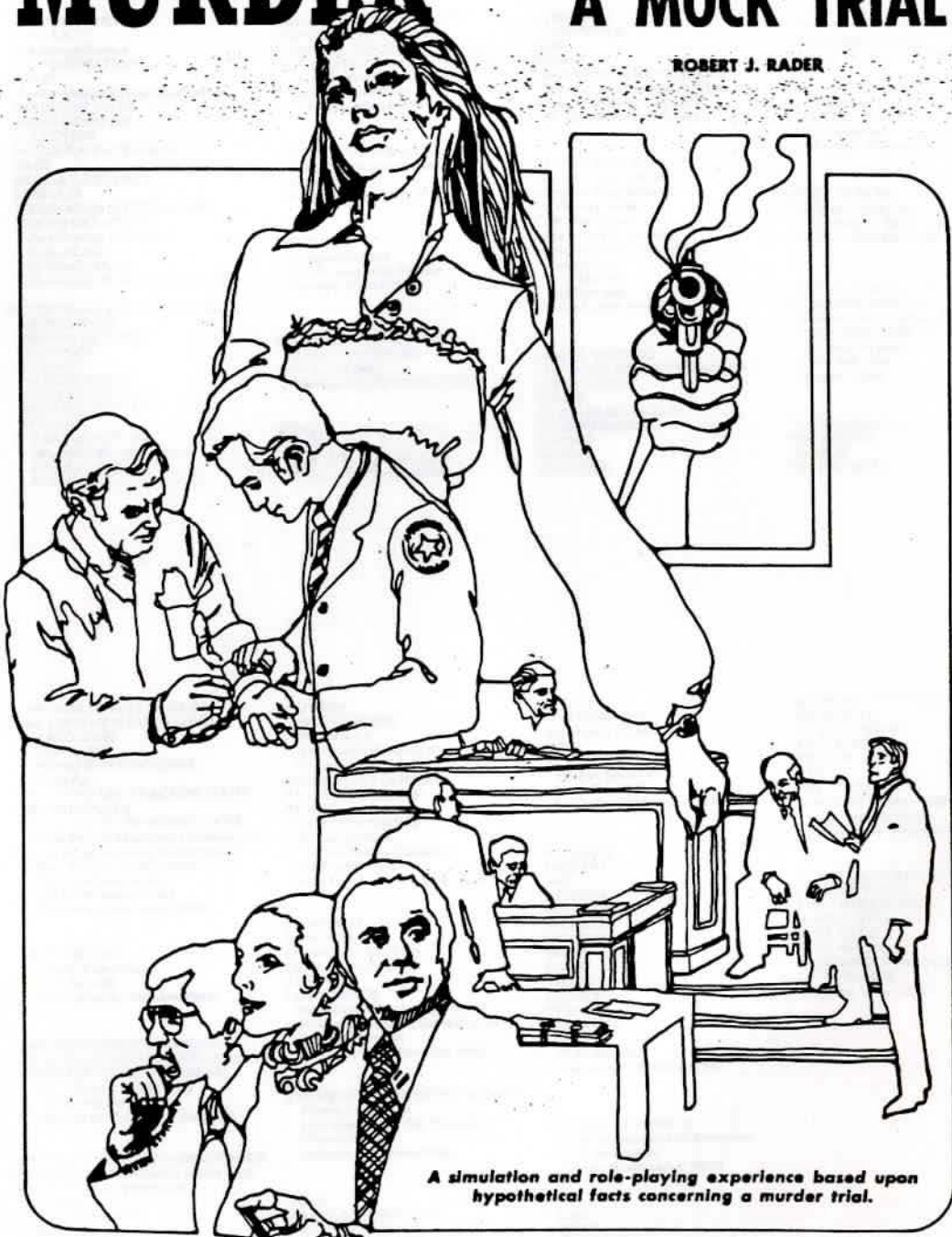
The decision of the judge was to declare Gerald a juvenile delinquent and send him to the state school until his 21st birthday. Gerald's parent asked the court to release Gerald. It refused. The Arizona Supreme Court also refused. Gerald's parents appealed to the Supreme Court and they agreed to hear his case.



# MURDER

## A MOCK TRIAL

ROBERT J. RADER



*A simulation and role-playing experience based upon hypothetical facts concerning a murder trial.*

## A Concise Sampling of Published Classroom Games (and Their Sources)

- CULTURECONTACT**  
EDPLAN  
"Exploring Careers"  
GRAND STRATEGY  
HELP!  
"How to Design Educational Games"  
INNOCENT UNTIL . . .  
NEIGHBORHOOD  
POLLUTION  
POTLATCH PACKAGE (2)  
RAID  
SETTLE OR STRIKE  
SIMPOLIS  
TO DRINK OR NOT TO DRINK  
TRANSPORTATION  
*Free Catalog on Request*  
Games Central  
55 Wheeler Street  
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138
- GET SET Reading Readiness Series:**  
ANIMAL RACE  
BROKEN LETTERS  
DOMINOES  
PICKAFIT  
PICTURE WORDS  
SENTENCE TRAIN  
SILLY SENTENCES  
STOP DOT  
Educational Division  
Houghton Mifflin Company  
110 Tremont Street  
Boston, Massachusetts 02107
- AMERICAN GOVERNMENT**  
SIMULATION SERIES (5)  
ECONOMIC DECISION GAMES (8)  
INTERNATION SIMULATION KIT  
Science Research Associates  
259 East Erie Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60611
- DANGEROUS PARALLEL**  
Scott, Foresman and Company  
99 Bauer Drive  
Oakland, New Jersey 07436
- EMPIRE**  
Denoyer Geppert  
5235 Ravenswood Avenue  
Chicago, Illinois 60640
- PURSUIT OF CIVIL RIGHTS**  
Educational Division  
*Reader's Digest*  
Pleasantville, New York 10570
- MARKET**  
Benefit Press  
10300 West Roosevelt Road  
Westchester, Illinois 60153
- CAMPAIGN**  
CZAR POWER  
FLIP  
IMPACT  
LEARNING GAME SYSTEM I  
Instructional Simulations, Inc.  
2147 University Avenue  
St. Paul, Minnesota 55114
- ACTIONALYSIS**  
*(A series of simulation games and newsletters)*  
Dr. Harvey Mettler  
C. W. Post Center  
Long Island University  
Greenvale, New York 11548  
Randa, Inc.  
P. O. Box 143  
Old Bethpage  
Long Island, New York
- BLOCK 'N SCORE**  
THE BLUE WODJET COMPANY  
CITY COUNCIL  
CRISIS  
EXPLORERS (I and II)  
HOMESTEADERS  
IMPORT  
NAPOLI  
PANATINA
- DYNASTY**  
Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.  
383 Madison Avenue  
New York City, New York 10017
- VOCABULARY™**  
Advanced Ideas Company  
65-A Broadway  
Arlington, Massachusetts 02174
- HORSE IS BOSS**  
Halfway Press Inc.  
1301 Orleans, Suite 713E  
Detroit, Michigan 48207
- YOU! Crisis Resolution Games**  
*(27 different role plays)*  
Educational Materials Division  
Miller Productions, Inc.  
800 West Avenue  
P. O. Box 3584  
Austin, Texas 78763
- CONFIGURATIONS**  
EQUATIONS  
OX SETS  
PROPAGANDA
- ARANDA MARRIAGE GAME**  
BENIN INHERITANCE GAME  
CARGO GAME  
CORN GAME  
ESKIMO HUNTING GAME  
GITHAKA  
HUNTING AND TRACKING GAME  
MARKETPLACE  
TOOL AND TECHNOLOGY GAME  
*Available only as parts of various units in the 4th grade social studies course "Man: A Study in Adaptation"*  
Ed. Com Systems, Inc.  
145 Witherspoon Street  
Princeton, New Jersey 08540
- MYSTERY DIG**  
Digger Expeditions  
P. O. Box 103  
East Lansing, Michigan 48823
- DOMINO NUMBER GAMES (5)**  
PLAYING CARD NUMBER GAMES (5)  
SPINNER NUMBER GAMES (5)  
D. C. Heath and Company  
125 Spring Street  
Lexington, Massachusetts 02173
- AMERICAN HISTORY GAMES SERIES**  
*(designed for A. K. Gordon's Junior High text *The Promise of America*)*  
COLONY  
DEVELOPMENT  
FRONTIER  
INTERVENTION  
PROMOTION  
RECONSTRUCTION
- SECTION**  
POINT ROBERTS  
PORTSVILLE  
*Above are parts of the High School Geography Project*  
INNER CITY PLANNING  
STATE LEGISLATOR  
STRIKE  
YES, BUT NOT HERE  
School Division  
The MacMillan Company  
866 Third Avenue  
New York City, New York 10022
- CONSUMER**  
DEMOCRACY  
ECONOMIC SYSTEM  
GENERATION GAP  
GHETTO  
LIFE CAREER  
School and Library Department  
Western Publishing Company, Inc.  
850 Third Avenue  
New York City, New York 10022
- PACEMAKER GAMES PROGRAM (67)**  
Fearon Publishers  
Lear Siegler, Inc., Ed. Division  
61 Davis Drive  
Belmont, California 94002
- TAKE**  
TRADE AND DEVELOP  
THE DRUG DEBATE  
Academic Games Associates, Inc.  
130 East 61st Street  
Baltimore, Maryland 21218
- PLANS**  
POWDERHORN  
ROARING CAMP  
SITTE  
STAR POWER  
Project Simile II  
P. O. Box 1021  
La Jolla, California 92037
- BALANCE**  
DESTINY  
DIG  
DISUNIA  
DIVISION  
LIBERTE  
MISSION  
MOOT  
PANIC  
PEACE  
SEARCH  
STRIKE  
SUNSHINE  
Interact  
P. O. Box 262  
Lakeside, California 92040
- INTERDEPENDENCE**  
Dolphin Educational Resources  
P. O. Box 22968  
Seattle, Washington 98122
- CLUG**  
SINSON  
Free Press  
866 Third Avenue  
New York City, New York 10022
- QUERIES 'N THEORIES**  
QUICK SANE  
REAL NUMBERS  
TACKLE  
TRINIM  
WFF  
WFF 'N PROOF  
Learning Games Associates  
1111 Maple Avenue  
Turtle Creek, Pennsylvania 15145
- BLACKS AND WHITES**  
SOCIETY TODAY  
THE CITIES GAME  
WOMAN AND MAN  
BOBBY TALK  
FEEL WHEEL  
Psychology Today Games  
P. O. Box 4758  
Clinton, Iowa 52712

1. ...  
 2. ...  
 3. ...  
 4. ...  
 5. ...

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**

6. ...  
 7. ...  
 8. ...  
 9. ...  
 10. ...  
 11. ...  
 12. ...  
 13. ...  
 14. ...  
 15. ...  
 16. ...  
 17. ...  
 18. ...  
 19. ...  
 20. ...  
 21. ...  
 22. ...  
 23. ...  
 24. ...  
 25. ...  
 26. ...  
 27. ...  
 28. ...  
 29. ...  
 30. ...  
 31. ...  
 32. ...  
 33. ...  
 34. ...  
 35. ...  
 36. ...  
 37. ...  
 38. ...  
 39. ...  
 40. ...  
 41. ...  
 42. ...  
 43. ...  
 44. ...  
 45. ...  
 46. ...  
 47. ...  
 48. ...  
 49. ...  
 50. ...  
 51. ...  
 52. ...  
 53. ...  
 54. ...  
 55. ...  
 56. ...  
 57. ...  
 58. ...  
 59. ...  
 60. ...  
 61. ...  
 62. ...  
 63. ...  
 64. ...  
 65. ...  
 66. ...  
 67. ...  
 68. ...  
 69. ...  
 70. ...  
 71. ...  
 72. ...  
 73. ...  
 74. ...  
 75. ...  
 76. ...  
 77. ...  
 78. ...  
 79. ...  
 80. ...  
 81. ...  
 82. ...  
 83. ...  
 84. ...  
 85. ...  
 86. ...  
 87. ...  
 88. ...  
 89. ...  
 90. ...  
 91. ...  
 92. ...  
 93. ...  
 94. ...  
 95. ...  
 96. ...  
 97. ...  
 98. ...  
 99. ...  
 100. ...



## Bibliography

- Abt, C. C. (1966). The social studies curriculum program. Cambridge, MA: Education Services Inc.
- Adams, D. M. (1973). Simulation games: An approach to learning. Worthington OH: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company.
- Almy, M. (1966). Spontaneous play: An avenue for intellectual development. Bulletin of the Institute of Child Study, 28, 2-15.
- Anderson, R. C. (1970). Measuring behavioral learning; A study in consumer credit. (Report No. 67). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 039 607).
- Attig, J. C. (1967, January). The use of games as a teaching technique. Social Studies, 58, 25-29.
- Baker, E. H. (1968). A pre-civil war simulation for teaching American history. In Boocock, S. S. & Schild, E. O.: Simulation Games in Learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Boocock, S. S. (1966). An experimental study of the learning effects of two games with simulated environments. In Boocock, S. S. & Schild, E. O.: Simulation Games in Learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Boocock, S. S. & Coleman J. S. (1966, Summer). Games with simulated environments in learning. Sociology of Education, 39, 215-36.
- Boocock, S. S. & Schild, E. O. (1968). Simulation games in learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Brown, G. I. (1971). Human teaching for human learning. NY: Viking Press.
- Bruner, J. (1966). Toward a theory of instruction. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Carlson, E. (1969). Learning through games. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press
- Cherryholmes, C. H. (1965). Developments in simulation of international relations for high school teaching. Phi Delta Kappan, 46, 227-231.
- Cherryholmes, C. H. (1966). Some current research on effectiveness of educational simulations: Implications for alternative strategies. American Behavioral Scientist, 10, 4-7.
- Chesler, M., & Fox, R. (1966). Role-playing methods in the classroom. Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates, Inc.
- Cohen, K. C. (1970). Effects of the consumer game on learning and attitudes of selected seventh grade students in a target-area school. ( Report No. 65) ( ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 038 733)
- Coleman, J. S. (1966, October). In defense of games. American Behavioral Scientist, 10, 3-4.
- Coleman, J. S. (1967). Academic games and learning. Proceedings of invitation conference on testing problems, In Tansey, P. J. & Unwin, Derick: Simulation and Gaming in Education. London: Methuen Educational Ltd.
- Coleman, J. S. (1968). Social processes in social simulation games. In Boocock, S.S. and Schild, E.O.: Simulation Games in Learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Cruickshank, D. R. (1977). A first book of games and simulations. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.
- Dawson, R. E. (1962). Simulation in the social sciences, In Guetzkow, H.: Simulation in social science. NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.



- Dekock, P. (1969, February). Simulations and changes in racial attitudes, Social Education, 33, 181-183.
- DeVries, D. L., & Edwards, K. J. (1973). Learning games and student teams: Their effects on classroom process. American Educational Research Journal, 10, 307-318.
- Dewey, J. (1917). Democracy and education. NY: The Macmillan Company.
- Dukes, R. L., & Seidner, C. J. (1978) Learning with simulations and games. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Farran, D. C. (1968). Competition and learning for underachievers. In Boocock, S.S. & Schild, E.O.: Simulation Games in Learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Garvey, D. M., & Seiler, W. H. (1966). A study of effectiveness of different methods of teaching international relations to high school students. (Final Report, Cooperative Research Project No. S-270) Emporia: Kansas State Teachers College.
- Gilliom, E. M. (1974, April). Trends in simulation. The High School Journal, 58, 265-272.
- Gillispie, P. H. (1973). Learning through simulations. NY: Paulist Press.
- Goodman, P. (1964). Compulsory miseducation and the community of scholars. NY: Horizon Press.
- Gordon, A. K. (1970). Games for growth. Palo Alto, CA: Science Research Associates, Inc.
- Guetzkow, H. (1962). Simulation in social science: Readings. NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Hawley, R. C. (1975). Value exploration through role-playing. NY: Hart Publishing Company.



- Hebb, D., O. (1955). Drives and the conceptual nervous system. Psychological Review, 62, 243-254.
- Heitzman, W. R. (1974). Education games and simulations. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.
- Holt, J. (1964). How children fail. NY: Pitman Publishing Co.
- Huizinga, J. (1955). Homo ludens. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Hyman, R. T. (1978). Simulation gaming for values education. NY: University Press of America.
- Jones, K. (1985). Designing your own simulations. NY: Methuen & Company Ltd.
- Keach, E. T., & Pierfy, D. A. (1972). The effects of a simulation game on learning of geographic information at the 5th grade level. University of Georgia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 068 889.
- Kidder, S. J., & Aubertine, H. E. (1972). Attitude change and number of plays of a social simulation game. (Report No. 145) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 072 392.
- Kownslar, A., & Smart, T. (1983). American government. NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Lehman, D. L. (1971). Role-playing and teacher education, publication no. 30. Washington, D.C.: The Commission on Undergraduate Education in the Biological Sciences.
- Livingston, S. A. (1971). Effects of a legislative simulation game on the political attitudes of junior high students. (Report No. 114) (ERIC Document Research Service No. ED 055 005).

- Livingston, S. A. (1971). Two types of learning in a business simulation. (Report No. 104) (ERIC Document Research Service No. ED 052 392).
- Livingston, S. A. (1973). The Hopkins game program. (Final Report No. 155) Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of the Schools, John Hopkins University.
- Livingston, S. A., & Kidder, S. J. (1972). Role identification and game structure: Effects on political attitudes. (Report No. 134) (ERIC Document Research Service No. ED 065 444)
- Lyon, H. C. (1970). Learning to feel, feeling to learn. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Co.
- Maldent, R., & Bronstein, R. (1973). Simulation games, design and implementation. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Mallory, A. (1986). Core competencies and key skills for Missouri schools for grades 2 through 10. MO: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.
- Maxon, R. C. (1973). Simulation: A method that can make a difference. The High School Journal, 57, 107-111.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). Mind, self, and society. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Megary, J. (1977). Aspects of simulation and gaming. London: Kogan Page Ltd.
- Milroy, E. (1982). Role-play, a practical guide. Aberdeen University Press.
- Neill, A. S. (1960). Summerhill. NY: Hart Publishing Company.
- Piaget, J. (1962). Play, dreams, and imitation in childhood. NY: W.W. Norton and Company.
- Polette, N. & Levine, G. (1987). The abcs of reading, thinking, and literacy. MO: Book Lures Inc.



- Rogers, C. (1961). Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Co.
- Rosenthal, R. & Jackson, L. (1968). Pvomalion in the classroom. NY: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Seidner, C. & Dukes, R. (1978). Learning with simulations and games. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Shaftel, F. R. & Shaftel, G. (1982). Role-playing in the curriculum. 2nd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Skinner, B. F. (1969). The technology of teaching. NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Stemler, W. A. (1972, Spring). Teaching facts through simulation: The world war one game. Social Science Record, 9, 3.
- Tansey, P. J. (1969). Educational aspects of simulation. NY: McGraw-Hill Co.
- Tansey, P. J. & Unwin, D. (1969). Simulation and gaming in education. London: Methuen Educational Ltd.
- Taylor, J. L. and Walford, R. (1972). Simulation in the classroom. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books Inc.
- Thompson, J. F. (1978). Using role-playing in the classroom. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Van ments, M. (1983). The effective use of role-play: A handbook for teachers and trainers. London: Kogan Page Ltd.
- Wing, R. L. (1968). Two computer-based economics games for sixth graders. In Boocock, S. S. and Schild, E. O.: Simulation Games in Learning. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Wohlking, W. & Gill, P. (1980). Role-playing. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.



Young, P. (1973). Teaching, learning and the mind. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.