

CPISIS IN ASIA

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By

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## ABSTRACT

This monograph presents a simulation exercise, which studies the Pakistani Civil War of 1971 and the implications which this conflict had for the political situation on the Asian continent. The monograph comprises two volumes. Volume I provides a justification of simulation as an educational technique and an explanation of the structure of Crisis in Asia. Volume I also presents a discussion of the usage of Crisis in Asia in the classroom. Volume II contains the appendices which include the materials necessary for a teacher to use Crisis in Asia in a learning situation.

## INTRODUCTION

Crisis in Asia is a simulation exercise which studies the political situation in Asia brought about by the Pakistani Civil War of 1971. Students assume the leadership roles of key people in one of the following groups: The Awami League, Pakistan, India, the People's Republic of China,<sup>1</sup> the Soviet Union and the United Nations Security Council. Each group attempts to resolve the crisis in such a way so as to satisfy the group's objectives. Participants in the simulation learn the international implications raised by the Bengali revolt against the Pakistani government, and they gain experience in conducting international relations in a simulated environment. They acquire skill in analyzing the various problems presented by the simulation, and in making decisions conducive to solving those same difficulties. Crisis in Asia is an activity in which a class of up to thirty-six students may participate.

The simulation model used as the basic structure of Crisis in Asia resembles the model of Dangerous Parallel.<sup>2</sup> Although both simulations examine a similar conflict situation, Crisis in Asia offers shorter student profiles, less lengthy paperwork and a system of testing which makes it a better teaching device for use in secondary school.

Crisis in Asia may be applied to some aspects of the social studies curriculum currently offered by secondary schools in Quebec. Crisis in Asia would be useful to teachers of "Contemporary World History" (History 512).<sup>3</sup> This course concentrates on the twentieth

century, and Crisis in Asia would provide an insight into one aspect of the present political alignments in Asia. For the same reason, Crisis in Asia could be utilized by teachers of "The Evolution of the Modern World" (History 310), a secondary school course which examines modern world problems. In some high school, introductory political science courses are offered. The names and numbers of these courses vary among the different schools and school boards. Crisis in Asia would introduce these students to the organization and function of the United Nations, as well as providing them with activities in problem-solving and decision-making. Thus, Crisis in Asia is a useful addition to some areas of the secondary school social studies curriculum in Quebec.

## FOOTNOTES TO INTRODUCTION

1

Author. For the purpose of brevity the People's Republic of China will hereafter be referred to as China.

2

Author. Dangerous Parallel is a simulation designed by Roger Mastrude and others. The simulation presents a conflict situation similar to the political crisis in Korea during the Korean War in 1950. Dangerous Parallel is published by Scott, Foresman and Company of Glenview, Illinois.

3

Ministry of Education, Government of Quebec. Handbook 03, 1976, 1977, Secondary Education 1976, pp. 3-101.

4

Ibid., pp. 3-98.

## CHAPTER I

### SIMULATION

#### Simulation: An Introduction

Some social studies teachers in Quebec have recently displayed an interest in the educational technique known as simulation gaming. This interest in simulation gaming arises from the proposition that simulation games "seem not only to involve the student and to absorb his interest but also to help him learn better than do other methods."<sup>1</sup> Many writers do not distinguish between simulation and simulation gaming.<sup>2</sup> Because Crisis in Asia incorporates elements of both terms, the author will make no distinction between simulation and simulation gaming.

A simulation isn't an actual large-as-life situation. By definition, "a simulation is a model of some physical or social situation."<sup>3</sup> The model of the simulation represents "an external reality with which the players interact in much the same way they would interact with the same reality."<sup>4</sup> In essence, the simulation game brings "a miniaturized version of some sphere of real-life activity into the classroom."<sup>5</sup> Because the selected real activity is being reduced to such dimensions as to render it manageable in the classroom, "only certain aspects of the reality can be included in the simulation model."<sup>6</sup> Keeping in mind the educational objectives of a specific simulation game, the game designer must decide which aspects of the real situation will be discarded, and which will be retained.



The purpose of a simulation is "to teach students about the real situation that it simulates."<sup>7</sup> As an educational technique, simulation games achieve the following social studies' objectives:

"knowledge of terms and concepts, knowledge of facts, knowledge of structures and relationships, decision-making skills, interpersonal skills and development of mature attitudes."<sup>8</sup>

### Simulation and Learning

The process of simulation challenges the decision-making abilities of a student. The course which a simulation game will take in the classroom is determined by the operational decisions and actions taken by the student-participant. The student's successes or failures depend upon his powers of deduction. Simulation games involve a number of individual students, or teams of students in pursuit of an objective. It is this quest which provides the participant with a number of problems that must be successfully solved if the desired objective is to be achieved. Simulation games are "an excellent vehicle, when students are involved in realistic cases, for relating problem situations to the social studies."<sup>9</sup>

10

Most simulations are problem-based. The simulation problem is usually presented and defined to the student at the start of the exercise. The student must first seek to understand the problem and then formulate a strategy based upon his analysis of the problem. The strategy which is chosen will guide the participant's actions during the simulation. The decision as to one's type of strategy is the basic way in which simulation enhances the decision-making skills of a student.

The value of the strategy chosen for the simulation also depends upon a student's ability to solve problems. If the participant fails to analyze and solve the simulation problem correctly, the effectiveness of the resulting strategy will be reduced. Problem-solving demands that a student be able to "define the problem in specific terms and to assess the possibilities of solution."<sup>11</sup> In most simulations the participant is left unguided by the teacher, the student must acquire and evaluate information, and hypothesize as to what course of action or strategy should be pursued. "This is the type of learning which theorists have come to feel is the most beneficial--learning by discovery."<sup>12</sup>

The prime objective of simulation is the learning by discovery of "ideas, concepts, and principles in a meaningful and transferable way."<sup>13</sup> Thus, simulation is closely related to the inquiry approach to learning. In social studies, the inquiry approach "places its emphasis on teaching the student to ask the right questions, rather than on requiring him to learn information."<sup>14</sup> The ability to ask pertinent questions will provide students with a more complete view of the simulation problem, thus aiding them in making sound strategic decisions.

As well as enhancing a student's ability to solve problems, the inquiry approach is further related to simulation gaming. Some educational games simulate an historical event. Through participation in the simulation and its incumbent inquiry approach, the student learns some of the terminology, factors and key concepts involved in the historical situation. The adaptation of an historical situation to the scale of a classroom game usually necessitates

the alteration or omission of certain aspects of the historical reality. It may be argued that the preceding statement causes a problem which renders a specific game, and the whole theory of simulation invalid as an educational method.

The author agrees that this difficulty can lead to a student having an incorrect perception of what transpired historically. Yet, just as a simulation game may contribute to a student's misunderstanding of an historical event, a similar misconception may result from reading a poorly researched textbook, or from doing too few case studies or from attending too few lectures.<sup>15</sup> The object of a simulation game isn't to impose specific details by rote learning upon a student. Rather, simulations present the student with an overall perspective on an historical event. "The student should emerge from the game with a better understanding of what it was all about, what was possible and what was not, and why."<sup>16</sup>

The teacher should prepare the class by explaining the basic elements of both the simulation game and the historical reality. The historical details, which are missing from the game, can be supplied by the teacher either preceding or following the simulation. The danger that a student might have an incorrect perception of reality, if the situation provided by the simulation differs from the historical event, can be easily overcome by having a discussion in which the post-game situation is contrasted with historical reality.<sup>17</sup>

In a post-game discussion, the decisions made by the actual historical characters should be compared with those of the simulation participants, with the similarities and the differences being em-

phasized. It should be demonstrated that if the students would have made decisions similar to those that were made historically, the game results would resemble the actual historical events. The students will thus be made aware that if certain other decisions had been adopted at key moments in the simulation, the game result would differ from the real situation. Both the teacher and students may then evaluate the decisions and logic used by both the historical figures and the students themselves. This evaluation will challenge a student's powers of critical thinking.

Simulation games should not serve as the sole vehicle in the teaching of history, but as part of a course or instructional unit.

"Social studies curriculum developers agree that games should not stand by themselves; in fact it may well be that what precedes and follows the game is what makes the game useful. Simulation is a motivational tool that complements and reinforces other materials and techniques, and like other methods it has its proper time and place in learning."<sup>18</sup>

### Strengths and Limitations of Simulation

#### Strengths

The primary strength of a simulation exercise lies in its ability to motivate students by involving them in the learning process. Simulation games are able to arouse student interest, especially among underachievers.<sup>19</sup> Simulation games focus a student's attention upon a particular concept or problem. This interest is further reinforced by the high degree of dramatic effect, interpersonal conflict, and the uncertain outcome of the game itself.<sup>20</sup>

The feedback of results is an important motivational factor in learning. This feedback reinforces learning by informing the student of the amount of success which he has achieved to date. The provision of feedback is a second advantage of simulation. As the student participates in a game, he is informed at periodic intervals of the progress, or lack thereof, in solving the problem presented by the simulation.<sup>21</sup>

A third advantage of simulation is the removal of the teacher-student bipolarity found in a conventional classroom setting.<sup>22</sup> Simulation overcomes this function by removing the functions of adjudication from the teacher. Games are "self-judging; the outcome decides the winner and indicates satisfactory and unsatisfactory performances."<sup>23</sup> This removal of the authoritarian role from a teacher eliminates the source of much potential classroom hostility.

As actors in a simulation, students can affect the simulated environment. Simulation teaches students that real people make decisions that affect the real world. In simulation exercises, students make decisions in which they "weigh various economic, political and social factors."<sup>24</sup> Students can then transfer their ability to make decisions from the simulated environment to the real one. In this way, simulation produces better decision-makers and hence better citizens.<sup>25</sup>

Simulation games contribute to the socialization of a student. "The interaction with other players, the game rules and environment and the player objectives all contribute to the student's acquisition of society's values and norms."<sup>26</sup> Simulation allows students to meet classmates whom they might not ordinarily work with

and this contact among students usually improves the social atmosphere of the classroom.

### Limitations

The chief limitation in the use of simulation is the difficulty in assessing the amount of learning accomplished by a student. "In games it is difficult to establish evaluation criteria as to what the game is in fact teaching and to create tests capable of discriminating among various types of learning."<sup>27</sup> The lack of an exact means of evaluation may limit the educational value of a simulation exercise.

A second drawback of simulation, which has been previously discussed, is the degree of inaccuracy to which a simulation game<sup>28</sup> replicates a real situation. This inaccuracy, which is caused by the deviation from historical details, can be overcome by an adequate preparation of the student by the teacher.

A third problem is that the students might place greater emphasis upon winning the game than upon learning.<sup>29</sup> This problem can be solved by making the model of the simulation game sufficiently intricate so that winning and at least a minimum of learning are inextricably linked.

A fourth objection to simulation gaming is found in their usage in the classroom. "Many teachers distrust games because they believe them to be frivolous, doubt their geographical or historical accuracy, or feel their security in the classroom threatened."<sup>30</sup> Perhaps a judicious choice of simulation games will convince a teacher of the educational value of these games and simulation in general. As to the problem of teacher security in the classroom,

perhaps a change from a conventional teaching approach might modify the classroom atmosphere, and enhance the teacher's feeling of security.

A fifth concern which may arise is that sometimes students may treat simulation games simply as "fun games"--a source of entertainment. While the amusement value of some educational games may be seen as having merit,<sup>31</sup> it must be recognized that too much levity can be a barrier to classroom learning. The motivational features of simulation, previously discussed, and a display of classroom leadership by the teacher, will be sufficient to convince students to combine learning with a degree of enjoyment.

#### Simulation and Other Educational Methods

32

Simulation is an approach to learning through involvement. As an educational technique, simulation is based on "a fundamentally different premise from traditional learning methodology."<sup>33</sup> This premise is the emphasis which simulation places on "experiencing as opposed to simply being taught."<sup>34</sup> This is one reason why most students prefer simulation gaming to more conventional teaching methods.<sup>35</sup>

Simulation is unlike any of the following four conventional means of classroom instruction: textbooks, workbooks, lectures, and audio-visual presentations.<sup>36</sup> Of these four strategies, "a simulation game is the only medium that both requires an active response from each student and responds to the student's action."<sup>37</sup> Simulation requires more interaction between the student and the instructional medium, than do the other four techniques.<sup>38</sup> In this inter-

action, simulation games "resemble both the most complex computer-based instructional systems and the kind of instruction that takes place when a teacher works with a very small group of students."<sup>39</sup>

In comparing the various educational methods, one must remember that simulation isn't all things for all people. By their very nature, simulation games are more appropriate for teaching some things than others. The final decision as to whether or not to use a particular simulation game is left to the teacher. However, for "teaching factual knowledge and intellectual skills, games seem to be as effective as conventional means of instruction."<sup>40</sup> The preceding statement, when combined with the proven ability of simulation to motivate students, definitely establishes simulation as a valid educational methodology.

#### Simulation and Crisis in Asia

<sup>41</sup>  
Crisis in Asia is an educational game which simulates the Asian crisis provoked by the Bengali revolt against the Pakistani government in 1971. Simulation gaming is the best way to teach students about a political confrontation of crisis propositions between nations. This is because simulation games

"...have the capacity to interest students in a field of study and to arouse their curiosity--while at the same time introducing them to some of the terms and concepts of a particular subject. Simulation especially lends itself to a subject that involves some form of mutual competition between multiple forces or actors under conditions where the outcomes are uncertain."<sup>42</sup>

In simulations such as Crisis in Asia, "students assume the roles of decision-makers in a simulated environment and compete for objectives according to specified procedures or rules."<sup>43</sup> Through a simulation exercise, students learn how and why a given historical situation developed. The students also understand how the same



situation might have had a different result if one or more of the historical factors contributing to the situation had been altered. Thus, simulation provides a more complete learning experience than do conventional teaching methods. This is why simulation was the method chosen to examine the 1971 Pakistani civil war and the potential dangers resulting therefrom.

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16  
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17  
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18  
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19  
Nesbitt, W., Ibid., pp. 118 - 119.

20  
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21  
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22  
Taylor, J. and Walford, R., Ibid., p. 35. Taylor and Walford view the conventional classroom bipolarity as the teacher teaching and the student being taught. Thus, the teacher is seen as the judge and evaluator of learning while the student is the judged and the evaluated.

23  
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24  
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25  
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30  
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31  
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33  
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34  
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35  
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36  
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37  
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38  
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39  
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40  
Livingstone, L. and Stoll, C., Ibid., p. 7.

41  
Author. A description of Crisis in Asia is provided in Chapter II.

42  
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43  
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## CHAPTER II

### THE SIMULATION MODEL

#### Dangerous Parallel: The Model

<sup>1</sup>  
Dangerous Parallel is the simulation game currently on the market to which Crisis in Asia can best be compared. This comparison is appropriate because the model of both simulations presents a conflict situation in which there is an armed struggle already in progress. There exists a danger of intervention by other powers not immediately involved, which could result in a further escalation of the confrontation. The model of a simulation is the way in which the reality being simulated is adapted to such proportions so as to render it manageable in the classroom.<sup>2</sup> The problem presented by the simulation model of Dangerous Parallel resembles the "situation in the Korean War at the 38th Parallel in 1950."<sup>3</sup> However, the situation offered by Dangerous Parallel is sufficiently dissimilar from the historical reality that Dangerous Parallel "neither can nor should be taught as history."<sup>4</sup> Nevertheless, Dangerous Parallel offers a useful model for studying a relatively local conflict with international implications. It is for the foregoing reason that the simulation model of Dangerous Parallel was chosen as the basic structure for Crisis in Asia.

In Dangerous Parallel, each student assumes the role of either a government Cabinet Minister or Ambassador of one of six fictionalized nations. The ministers and ambassadors of each nation have different functions and must cooperate to achieve their nation's goals.

The goal of each nation is to resolve, to its satisfaction, a conflict situation in progress at the onset of the simulation game. The students analyze various military, political, economic and psychological factors before deciding upon a course of action in order to achieve their national objectives. This course of action may be either of a diplomatic or a military nature.

Dangerous Parallel gives students an opportunity to experience the roles, activities and problems of top-level national decision-makers. Students learn to define objectives, to analyze information, to suggest courses of action and to estimate the consequences of the course of action which is adopted. Students also develop a more realistic approach to world affairs, as they participate in the operations of international relations. Students learn that:

"Crisis can escalate beyond anyone's intentions, international machinery is difficult to put in motion in a short period of time to resolve a serious problem, weak nations are not very effectual in gaining their wishes as compared to the powerful."<sup>7</sup>

The game aspect of Dangerous Parallel is followed by a debriefing exercise, which evaluates the performances of the participants, and seeks to enlarge the educational experience of each student. Besides being an interesting simulation, Dangerous Parallel is a plausible representation of reality, and as such it serves to explore some aspects of international relations very adequately.

#### Dangerous Parallel and Crisis in Asia

Crisis in Asia is an educational game which examines the Asian crisis caused by the Bangali revolt against the Pakistani government in 1971. A "Crisis Scenario" introduces students to

the political situation as it existed in Pakistan in 1971. At that time, the Pakistani government was engaged in suppressing a rebellion led by the Awami League. The possibility of Indian intervention hung menacingly over the Pakistani crisis, thus threatening to escalate the reality local conflict into a major Asian war.

In Crisis in Asia, there are six groups of students. Some students assume the roles of ministers or national leaders of either the Soviet Union, China, India, Pakistan or the Awami League. Other students represent the Security Council and the Secretary General of the United Nations. Students try to resolve the crisis provoked by the Bengali rebellion so as to satisfy their group's objectives. They do so by acting as a group in studying the situation, making a group decision, and then enduring the resulting consequences. The consequences are determined by the "Director" according to the "Crisis Situation Manual."<sup>10</sup> In Crisis in Asia, the "Director" assumes a role similar to that of "Control" in Dangerous Parallel.

The simulation model of Crisis in Asia resembles that of Dangerous Parallel in that both simulations present a crisis which can be resolved either by armed conflict or by negotiation. However, there are differences which set the two simulations clearly apart. Unlike Dangerous Parallel, Crisis in Asia attempts to teach a part of history. Crisis in Asia allows students to experience the decision options and problems, which faced the world leaders who were involved in the Pakistani civil war and the ensuing Indo-Pakistani war of 1971. Students learn the nature of the crisis from both the simulation game and the supplementary material provided.

In both Dangerous Parallel and Crisis in Asia, there are sufficient similarities in the pattern of decision-making utilized by the students to warrant a comparison. On the following pages, Diagrams I and II depict the sequence of decision-making activities in Dangerous Parallel and Crisis in Asia respectively. An examination of both diagrams reveals that the pattern of decision-making for both simulations is essentially similar. However, it is in the application of each phase of decision-making that Crisis in Asia differs from Dangerous Parallel. In Dangerous Parallel, the student orientation to the conflict and the opposing national positions is accomplished by a filmstrip and an accompanying recording. In Crisis in Asia, the student orientation consists of reading the "Crisis Scenario." In both simulations, the individual student learns his assigned role through a student profile or dossier.

Prior to conducting negotiations or engaging in armed conflict, each group of students in both Dangerous Parallel and Crisis in Asia, analyse the group's particular list of national goals or group objectives. This analysis helps the students to decide what their group wants to achieve in the simulation game. The third, fourth and fifth parts of the decision-making process occur during each phase of the simulation game. During each phase or round of the game, each student group issues a public statement, formulates a strategy for negotiation, conducts discussions with other groups, and then adopts a course of action.

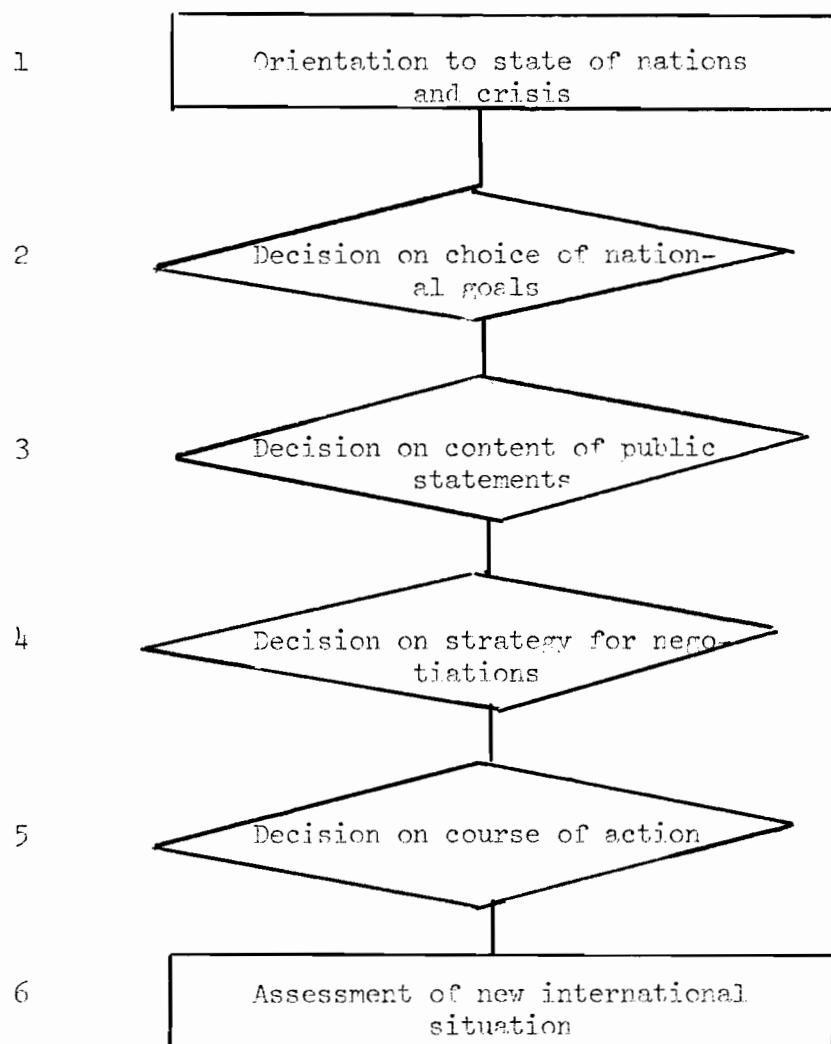
Both at the end of each phase of the game and at the end of the simulation, the international situation is assessed by the



## DIAGRAM I

DANGEROUS PARALLEL

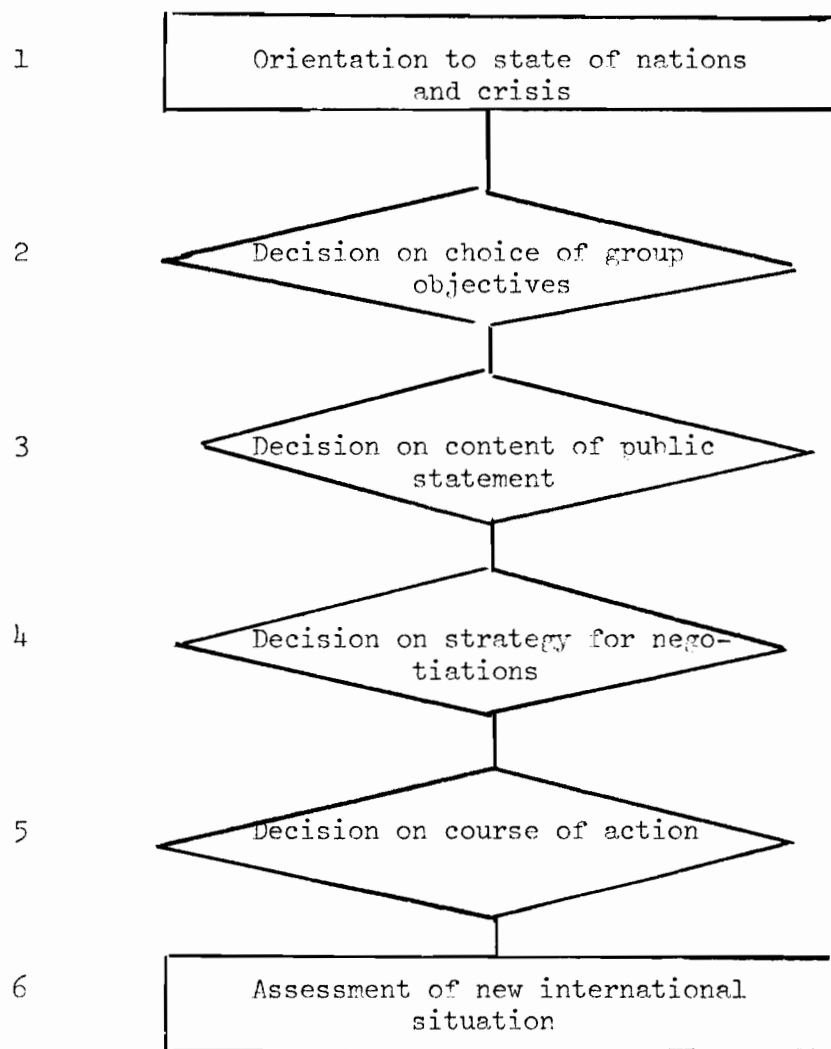
## Sequence of Decision-making



## DIAGRAM II

CRISIS IN ASIA

## Sequence of Decision-making



teacher and the consequences accompanying the international situation meted out to the student groups. In Crisis in Asia and Dangerous Parallel, the decisions arrived at by the student groups determine the structure of the final international situation, which in turn decides the degree of success achieved by each group in the simulation. Both simulations have a debriefing session in which the decisions made by each student group during the game are evaluated.

Testing is another way in which Crisis in Asia differs from Dangerous Parallel. In Crisis in Asia, the students are given a "Crisis Scenario" which introduces the problem situation, that is, the Pakistani civil war and possible foreign intervention. The students are also given additional information concerning the structure and function of the United Nations.<sup>11</sup> The students are tested in both these areas, because this knowledge is essential for the student to conduct the simulation game more fully. After the simulation game has been concluded, two types of exercises occur. Firstly, the students answer a "Debriefing Questionnaire"<sup>12</sup> which then allows the students to express any feelings which they may have about the simulation.<sup>13</sup> Secondly, a "Final Test" is administered. This test measures the amount of factual information which has been retained by the student from the simulation exercise.

#### Learning and Crisis in Asia

Students working with Crisis in Asia learn the main organs, structure and limitations of the United Nations. Participants in the simulation exercise are given an introduction to the political geography of the Indian subcontinent, the Asian power blocs as-

sociated with the Bengali revolt, and the historical background to the Pakistani civil war with the Indian intervention in 1971. Furthermore, the participants study the difference between a civil war and an international war. By contrasting the results of the simulation exercise with the actual historical happening, the students can better understand the decisions and actions of the nations which were involved in the Asian crisis.

Through participation in the simulation game, the students acquire experience in conducting diplomatic relations, and become better able to appreciate the difficulties encountered by government leaders in achieving national objectives. The structure of the simulation model allows students to develop skills in analysing a situation and in deciding upon a course of action based on this analysis. The nature of the foregoing concepts and skills experienced in Crisis in Asia renders them transferable to other similar historical and contemporary political situations. Thus, the knowledge acquired by the student from Crisis in Asia is applicable to various aspects of some secondary school social studies courses.

## FOOTNOTES TO CHAPTER II

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7

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8

Weil, J., Ibid., p. 26.

9

Author. Please refer to the "Director's Manual" in Appendix A.

10

Author, Ibid., p. 42.

11

Author. Please refer to Chapter III - Supplementary Information to Crisis in Asia. p. 29.

12

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13

Author. Ibid., p. 31.

### CHAPTER III

#### SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION TO CRISIS IN ASIA

This section of the monograph provides an historical account of the conflict on the Indian subcontinent in 1971, and a description of the framework of the United Nations. The teacher may use this information to answer questions which the students may raise about some aspects of simulation game. This information may also be used to compare the post-game situation in Asia with the actual historical experience.

#### The Pakistani Civil War

In 1971, a constitutional crisis in the Pakistani government exploded into civil war when the Pakistani army, directed by President Mohammed Yohya Khan, attempted to crush the Bengali opposition in East Pakistan led by the Awami League. The crisis came about because of the ethnic composition of the Pakistani society, and the undemocratic structure of the Pakistani government. Fifty-<sup>1</sup> five per-cent<sup>2</sup> of an estimated Pakistani population of 114,189,000 lived in East Pakistan, which was inhabited predominantly by Bengalis who are different both ethnically and linguistically from West Pakistanis. The Bengalis of East Pakistan had more ethnic affinity<sup>3</sup> with the Bengalis of India, than with the West Pakistanis. The<sup>4</sup> Bengalis spoke Bengali while the West Pakistanis preferred Urdu. The ethnic and cultural differences contributed to a Bengali feeling that East Pakistan constituted a community separate from West Pakistan. This feeling was increased by the discrimination experienced by the

West Pakistani dominated government of Pakistan. As examples of this discrimination one sees that there were less hospitals and colleges in East than in West Pakistan.<sup>5</sup> Also, Bengalis held a minority of positions in the civil service and the armed forces.<sup>6</sup> Thus, despite being a majority of the population, the Bengalis were in a minority position in Pakistan, when compared to the West Pakistanis.

In 1970, the government of Pakistan was controlled by a military council which ruled by martial law.<sup>7</sup> The President of Pakistan was a West Pakistani, Major General Mohammed Yahya Khan. As the West Pakistanis dominated the military hierarchy, they effectively ruled the country. In response to popular agitation for a more democratic government, the military rulers conducted a "one person, one vote" election in October 1970. This election, which was held throughout Pakistan, was to provide members for a 313 seat National Assembly. The Awami League, a political party based in East Pakistan, won 160 seats in the election, and its leader, Mujibur Rahman, was to be the next Prime Minister of Pakistan.<sup>8</sup> The Awami League promised to represent the interests of the Bengalis, and to improve their lot in Pakistan.

President Yahya Khan reacted to the election results by postponing the convening of the National Assembly and by not appointing Mujibur Rahman as Prime Minister. Denied their victory, the Awami League called for a general strike which paralyzed East Pakistan. When negotiations with the Awami League broke down, Yahya Khan called upon the military to restore order in East Pakistan.

On March 25, 1971, heavily armed units of the Pakistani army moved into East Pakistan. They fired indiscriminately, accompanying the slaughter with rape, looting and wanton destruction.<sup>9</sup> Many Bengali intellectuals, including Mujibur Rahman, were arrested.<sup>10</sup> Estimates of the Bengalis killed in the ensuing fighting range from several hundred thousand to three million. The figure of between 8 - 10 million Bengalis who fled to India as refugees is generally accepted.

The Pakistani army was resisted by the Mukti Bahini or Liberation Army. The Mukti Bahini was composed of some Awami League members and other Bengali supporters. Throughout 1971 there was periodic fighting along the Indian-Pakistani borders. In August, the Soviet Union and India signed a treaty of friendship and security. This treaty served to warn China of a new Soviet-Indian relationship. China accused the Soviet Union, India and the United States of America of interference in Pakistan's internal affairs.<sup>11</sup> However, the Chinese indications of support for Pakistan didn't extend to military action. This is probably due as much to the Indo-Soviet treaty as to Chinese logistical problems in waging a long-range war beyond her borders.

On December 3, 1971, amid mutual accusations of aggression, full-scale war broke out on both the East and West Pakistani frontiers with India. On December 6, after three Soviet vetoes of a United Nations Security Council resolution calling for a ceasefire, the matter was referred to the General Assembly.<sup>12</sup> The next day, a ceasefire resolution was passed in the United Nations General Assembly. India ignored the ceasefire resolution, recognized the Bengali nation of Bangladesh (former East Pakistan), and the fighting continued.



On December 16, the Pakistani armed forces in East Pakistan surrendered and India proclaimed a ceasefire. The following day, Yahya Khan accepted the ceasefire. To continue the war was pointless, because the Pakistani military had suffered reverses on the western front as well as in Bangladesh. The war was over and a nation called Bangladesh was born.

### The United Nations

In order to understand features of Crisis in Asia, it is necessary for the students to be given the following information about the United Nations before the simulation game is conducted. The United Nations isn't a world government. It is an association to which most nations belong to. Members of the United Nations have pledged themselves "to maintain international peace and security and to cooperate in establishing political, economic and social conditions, under which this task can be securely achieved."<sup>13</sup>

The sovereign rights of individual member states are respected to the extent that the United Nations cannot interfere in the domestic affairs of a member state.<sup>14</sup> The Charter of the United Nations was signed by the emissaries of fifty countries in June 1943.<sup>15</sup>

By 1971, 132 countries belonged to the United Nations.<sup>16</sup> All members of the United Nations are represented in the General Assembly of the United Nations. The two main organs of the United Nations involved in Crisis in Asia are the Security Council and the Secretariat in the person of the Secretary General.

In 1971, The Security Council consisted of fifteen members, each possessing one vote. There were five permanent members and ten non-permanent members on the Security Council. The five per-

manent members were and still are the Soviet Union, the People's  
17  
Republic of China, France, the United Kingdom and the United  
States of America. By casting a negative vote, any permanent member  
of the Security Council can veto a decision reached by the majori-  
18  
ty of the Council members. The ten non-permanent members are  
elected by a two-thirds majority of the General Assembly for a two-  
year term, and they may not veto a Security Council resolution.  
In 1971, the non-permanent members of the Security Council were  
Argentina, Belgium, Burundi, Italy, Japan, Nicaragua, Poland, Sierra  
19  
Leone, Somalia and Syria.

The Secretariat of the United Nations is composed of the Sec-  
retary General, who is the chief administrative officer, and a sup-  
port staff. The Secretary General is elected by the General As-  
20  
sembly, subject to the approval of the Security Council. The  
Secretary General may attend meetings of the General Assembly and  
the Security Council, but lacks voting privileges. Both the Sec-  
retariat and the Security Council attempt to mediate international  
disputes to prevent the eruption of major military conflicts between  
members of the United Nations.

In 1971, the United Nations was unable to intervene directly  
in the Pakistani civil war because the United Nations Charter for-  
bids interference in the domestic affairs of a member state.  
Furthermore, the United Nations was unable to prevent the war be-  
tween India and Pakistan, or to successfully mediate the conflict  
once it began, as the ceasefire resolution was ignored by the com-  
batants. Students would be made aware that the United Nations  
is only as effective as the member states allow it to be. Without

the cooperation of its members, the United Nations is severely hampered in its efforts to secure world peace.

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- 2  
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- 5  
Singhal, D., Ibid., pp. 177-178.
- 6  
Singhal, D., Ibid., pp. 179-180.
- 7  
Paxton, John, ed. The Statesman's Year-Book 1971-1972. Toronto: The Macmillan Company of Canada Ltd., 1971, p. 3.
- 8  
Singhal, D., Ibid., pp. 191-192.
- 9  
Brown, N., Ibid., p. 217.
- 10  
Author. Mujibur Rahman was released from confinement and returned to Bangladesh in 1972. He served as Prime Minister of Bangladesh from 1972 until his death in 1975.
- 11  
Barnds, William. India, Pakistan and the Great Powers. New York: Praeger Publications, 1972, p. 244.
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- 13  
Paxton, J., ed., Ibid., p. 3.
- 14  
Paxton, J., ed., Ibid., p. 3.

15

Paxton, J., ed., Ibid., p. 3

16

Henderson, W., ed., Ibid., p. 506.

17

Author. On October 25, 1971, the United Nations General Assembly voted to expel the Republic of China (Taiwan) and to admit the People's Republic of China (Mainland China) to the General Assembly, and to the Security Council as a permanent member with veto privileges.

18

Coyle David. The United Nations and How it Works. New York: Columbia University Press, 1969, pp. 187-188.

19

Paxton, J., ed., Ibid., p. 5

20

Paxton, J., ed., Ibid., pp. 178-179.

## CHAPTER IV

### CRISIS IN ASIA

The materials which comprise Crisis in Asia are to be found in the Appendices in Volume II. There are three Appendices. Appendix A contains the "Director's Manual" and the "Crisis Situation Manual." Appendix B provides the thirty-six (36) dossiers each of which provides a student role. Each participant in the simulation receives a dossier. Appendix C provides a copy of each test or questionnaire which must be answered by each student during the course of the simulation exercise. Each document must be reprinted by the teacher to the requisite number of students participating in the simulation.

The reader should now proceed to read Volume II so that the following chapters will be better understood.

## CHAPTER V

### CRISIS IN ASIA IN THE CLASSROOM

This section of the monograph is a report of my utilization of Crisis in Asia in a classroom situation. Crisis in Asia was used by four classes of Secondary III students, fourteen to fifteen years of age, at William Hingston High School in Montreal. All four classes were studying a Secondary III optional academic course entitled History 320, "An Introduction to Politics." Crisis in Asia was used in association with the part of the aforementioned course which deals with international relations.

Because Crisis in Asia was used by students as one of the activities used in their study of international relations, it is interesting to see how they scored on the "Final Test,"<sup>1</sup> which is one of the components of the simulation exercise. It is useful to examine the student scores on the "Final Test" because this test was intended to measure what the students learned in terms of factual knowledge from their participation in Crisis in Asia. The following Table presents the distribution of raw scores obtained on the "Final Test."

An examination of the foregoing Table demonstrates that only a small minority of 6 were unable to attain a score of fifty per cent and that a large majority of students performed extremely well on the "Final Test." Inasmuch as the "Final Test" is designed to assess the

TABLE 1

<u>Percentage Scored</u>	<u>Class 1</u>	<u>Class 2</u>	<u>Class 3</u>	<u>Class 4</u>	<u>Total Number of Students</u>
0 - 25	0	0	0	0	0
26 - 50	0	1	3	2	6
51 - 75	10	11	9	7	35
76 -100	<u>24</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>95</u>
TOTAL	<u>34</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>126</u>

amount of factual information assimilated by participants in the simulation exercise, the large number of students who scored over 75% indicates that the majority of students found Crisis in Asia to be a profitable learning experience.

However, the "Final Test" doesn't measure any areas of learning provided by Crisis in Asia other than the acquisition of facts. To pursue this point, I will examine selected student responses to the "Assessment Questionnaire" which was distributed and answered during the Phase XIV of the simulation exercise. I will now provide a question by question analysis of selected student responses to the "Assessment Questionnaire."<sup>2</sup>

3

There were a variety of answers to the following questions:  
WHAT DID YOU LEARN FROM CRISIS IN ASIA?

A number of students claimed to have learned something about how nations conduct diplomatic relations. One of these was W.Q., who said: "I learned the way nations deal with each other." Other students learned about the organization and functioning of the United Nations. G.R. wrote "I learned how the U.N. works." Some students remarked about the difficulty in preserving peaceful relations between nations. S.S. stated, "I learned that to make a war it doesn't



take much but to make peace it takes long before you can get it." The remainder of the students made general statements, the most representative of which would be A.P.'s who said "I learned about the crisis in Asia and diplomatic relations and what a civil war is."

#### WHAT DID YOU LIKE ABOUT CRISIS IN ASIA?

Some students appreciated the realistic environment created by Crisis in Asia. B.Z. wrote, "It made me feel like a leader." Concurring with B.Z., A.M. said "It felt like a real war. It was like Monopoly but here it kind of mattered if you won or lost." Others liked the decision-making aspects of the simulation. T.T. said, "I liked making decisions." Z.M. stated, "It was fun figuring out what to do to get our points." A number of students enjoyed simulation as a method of instruction. J.G. wrote, "I liked the game way of learning because since it was a game more people were interested and they learned something. Also it was fun working with other people together."

However, fifty-two students disliked the frustration they experienced in attaining their group's objectives. E.A. asserted, "I disliked losing." M.F. simply wrote, "a lack of cooperation" and when pressed refused to elaborate. Presumably, this "lack of cooperation" was experienced with other members of the group. One student, M.G. who was deceived by other groups in the simulation commented, "The fact that India and the Awami League bluffed."

Nine students were confused. One of these, F.L., stated, "What I didn't like was the beginning everyone was confused but after a while it was running smoothly." Three students claimed that the

entire exercise was boring and finally two others liked everything in the simulation but the "Final Test."

The following table gives general reaction to Crisis in Asia. An examination of this table clearly shows that a substantial majority of students deemed Crisis in Asia to be an interesting activity.

TABLE 2

CRISIS IN ASIA IS.....

<u>Class</u>	<u>Interesting</u>	<u>Boring</u>	<u>In-Between</u>	<u>Total Number of Students</u>
1	16	1	17	34
2	31		1	32
3	23	1	6	30
4	<u>27</u>	<u>---</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>30</u>
TOTAL	<u>97</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>126</u>

If the student responses in Table 2 are compared with the student answers in the following table, one can conclude that even those pupils who didn't find Crisis in Asia to be particularly interesting, still feel that Crisis in Asia should be used by future history classes.

TABLE 3

CRISIS IN ASIA SHOULD BE USED BY OTHER STUDENTS NEXT YEAR.

<u>Class</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total Number of Students</u>
1	32	2	34
2	32	0	32
3	30	0	30
4	<u>29</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>30</u>
TOTAL	<u>123</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>126</u>

The answers which are provided in Table 4 indicate that the overwhelming majority of students are interested in simulation as learning experience.

TABLE 4

I WOULD LIKE TO DO MORE SIMULATION EXERCISES THIS YEAR.

<u>Class</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total Number of Students</u>
1	29	5	34
2	32	0	32
3	30	0	30
4	<u>29</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>30</u>
TOTAL	<u>120</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>126</u>

The answers given by the students to the "Assessment Questionnaire" prove that Crisis in Asia is a worthwhile educational activity. It seems to me that a considerable majority of students judged Crisis in Asia to be a very worthwhile educational experience.

Thus far in Section 5 of the monograph the student performance on the "Final Test" and the "Assessment Questionnaire" has been discussed; I will now describe the results of the simulation game in terms of the points accumulated by each group of students. The following table gives the points scored by each group in each class of students:

TABLE 5

<u>Group</u>	<u>Class 1</u>	<u>Class 2</u>	<u>Class 3</u>	<u>Class 4</u>
Soviet Union	9	9	9	9
China	10	8	8	8
India	6	9	9	9
Pakistan	7	0	0	0
Awami League	0	9	9	9
United Nations	10	7	7	7

Generally speaking, the points system, which made some objectives more important to the group than others, dominated the game. Because it was in everyone's interest, no wars occurred between either the USSR and China or China and India in any class. However, various diplomatic factors such as intimidation, bluffing, and deceit played an important part in the simulation game. In classes 2, 3, and 4 India successfully secured the independence of Bangladesh by invading and defeating Pakistan in a short war. In these classes, both the USSR and the United Nations persuaded China from undertaking any military intervention. The resulting situation at the end of the simulation game corresponded to the historical reality. However, in class 1, India was sufficiently intimidated by China that Pakistan was able to crush the revolt of the Awami League without India military intervention. This was the only instance where a result was produced which did not correspond to the historical reality. This fact was pointed out to the students after the simulation game was concluded and the intimidation of the Indian group by the Chinese group was recognized in the resulting class discussion.

There were a number of satisfactory experiences in the application of Crisis in Asia in the classroom situation. In Phase 1<sup>5</sup> of simulation exercise, I tried to impress upon the class that simulation is a teaching method as valid as the more familiar lecture and inquiry techniques. Once the students understood that they would be required to think, to make decisions, and that they would be evaluated, their attitudes towards Crisis in Asia became considerably more serious.<sup>6</sup> Double-testing also proved to be very successful. The "Scenario"

was the student's first contact with Crisis in Asia. When the "Scenario Test"<sup>7</sup> immediately followed this initial contact, the pupils realized that they had to understand the basic factors in the problem presented by Crisis in Asia, in order to play the game effectively. Once the students understood the basic problem in Crisis in Asia, namely the Pakistani civil war of 1971 and the implications which this conflict had for Asian peace, they were able to get into the game rather quickly, and better comprehend their game materials. The "Final Test" was to demonstrate the amount of knowledge acquired by a student from participation in the simulation exercise. I feel that the presence of testing encouraged some students to participate who might not ordinarily have done so.

The individual student dossiers contained sufficient information to clearly define the role of each student and that of his or her group in the simulation game. As was pointed out by several students in each class, those students who didn't bother to read their dossiers were usually victimized by the more knowledgeable ones in the diplomatic moves which comprise the simulation game. When assessed as a whole Crisis in Asia proved to be an interesting and educational experience for the students.

## FOOTNOTES TO CHAPTER V

1  
Appendix A, Director's Manual, p. 31.

2  
Appendix A, Director's Manual, p. 39.

3  
Author. The grammar and spelling involved in the student responses have not been altered.

4  
Author. Each group of students was assigned a number of objectives. Each objective was worth a number of points. If at the end of the simulation game the objective had been secured the student group was awarded the amount of points which the objective was worth. The maximum number of points a group could get was ten (10) points. The points system is designed to encourage students to make decisions which would result in a political situation at the end of the simulation game which corresponds with the historical reality.

5  
Appendix A, Director's Manual p. 6.

6  
Appendix A, Director's Manual, p. 7.

7  
Appendix A, Director's Manual p. 12.

## CHAPTER VI

### CONCLUSION

Crisis in Asia was designed to teach students about the Pakistani civil war in 1971 and the implications which this struggle had for the political situation in Asia. Participants in this simulation exercise became acquainted with the general structure and function of the United Nations. Simulation gaming was chosen as the instructional method to present the aforementioned information because a game can serve to encourage learning by students who wouldn't ordinarily be interested in a given topic. The gaming aspect of Crisis in Asia is accompanied by activities for the student such as reading material and testing, which make it a more comprehensive educational instrument than a simple game would be. By assuming the role of a national leader, a student is enabled to study the problems presented by the simulation exercise from the point of view of someone who was directly involved in the crisis in 1971. By comparing the historical reality with the result of the simulation game, students are better able to understand the decisions made by the national leaders in 1971. Students thus enjoy a more complete learning experience because after the simulation, they not only know what happened, but they can see the factors and logic that went into the decision-making process of each national leader.

Crisis in Asia was used by four classes of Secondary III<sup>1</sup> high school students. As has been previously shown in Section V, the student responses to the "Final Test" and the "Assessment Ques-

tionnaire<sup>10</sup> indicate that the majority of participants found Crisis in Asia to be an interesting and worthwhile learning experience. Thus, when considered on its merits as an instructional instrument, Crisis in Asia should be useful to a teacher intending to use simulation in the classroom.



## FOOTNOTES TO CHAPTER VI

<sup>1</sup>

Author. See Chapter V in *Crisis in Asia*, pp. 35-41.

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