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Adolescents and Activities

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ADOLESCENTS AND INTERACTION

This perspective on adolescence reminds us of the considerable social learning which is taking place during the second decade of life. The process of developing identity involves trying out a view of oneself in the social world via interaction with others, and being sensitive to the response which those others make. Adolescents are continuously involved experimenting with their self-presentation and judging the reactions thereto. This is an active process on their part, sometimes knowingly so. McPhail (1967), for example, showed in his interviews with adolescents about the role they played in critical incidents with adults, that up to 40 per cent gave their motive as 'I just wanted to see what would happen', 'I had to find out', and similar. It would be wrong, however, to suggest that all adolescents are aware of this experiential learning and could report it as such (for example, many of the class who are having their first lessons with a new teacher will not see their 'testing' behaviour this way). Those we can help in pastoral care are those who initially lack the reflective capacity to manage their own behaviour: these may be the young people who are not learning by action.

Secondly, this approach to adolescence makes a different sense of the importance of the peer group than does the usual stereotype of slavish conformity. It can be seen that the peer group is an important arena for trying out a social identity. As Salmon (1979) points out in her excellent review of peer group studies, 'the absence of a stable audience with whom to test out a developing

view of oneself in relation to others had resulted (for adolescents making numerous changes of school) in a greatly impaired ability to understand oneself and one's peers', Salmon notes 'three main functions that have been put forward for the peer group: intimacy, consensual validation, and the provision of a frame of reference'. Here we may begin to understand the function of talk with age-mates. In one of the very few studies of what adolescents really do with their time, Csikszentmihalyi (1977) showed that 14.7 per cent of time was taken up in talk with peers as the primary activity, and a further 18.1 per cent as a secondary activity. Talk with adults made up 4.1 per cent of the time a, a primary activity, and 4.0 per cent as secondary. Those who know playground and corridor conversations may infer that much of this talk is about social events and self-presentation. The function of these discussions may be to create and receive feedback on one's own and others' activities.

THE ROLE OF PASTORAL CARE

If the pastoral care team can use active methods which include the model of experimental action plus subsequent discussion, they may replicate the naturally-occurring process and bring about significant learning. Further, and of equal importance, to adopt openly a developmental approach to pastoral care would be a constructive move away from some of the more common distortions of pastoral work, for example the inadequate social welfare or the ineffective discipline via external controls. In day-to-day terms, form tutors who are able to use more creative techniques in their tutor periods are less likely to fall into the traps of making registration last thirty minutes or of 'getting to know' pupils for no obvious purpose. Pupils too may develop a different notion of pastoral care, one which holds reward, for them by giving them skills which contribute to their own personal success.

The activities to be considered in this chapter (role-play, simulation and games) are initiated by teachers and depend on their teaching skills. It may be useful here to consider the history of the use of such active techniques in the formal curriculum. Such approaches were originally put forward with great claims for their results by some proponents: Boocock and Schild (1968) identify an 'acceptance on faith' stage in the American experience when enthusiasm for a new approach greatly outweighed evidence on the

effects. When evidence began to gather on the effects of active techniques in formal learning as compared with other techniques, it seemed that active methods were no worse and possibly better in some respects than other methods (Gibbs, 1974). The results are equivocal and it seems wise to conclude that there is no panacea as far as formal learning is concerned.

In the more informal sphere of social learning it is more difficult to make comparisons between active and other methods, since it has so far proved difficult to suggest a set of definable learnings which may act as criteria. We should still make every effort to set objectives and thence evaluate our methods. But there are difficulties in constructing a 'social curriculum' and its associated measures of achievement that do not fall into the trap of being extremely value-laden or specific to a particular group. It may be more profitable at present to view these approaches as tools for exploration in certain areas rather than tools for teaching 'known facts'. The product, therefore, is not so much a set of factual learnings, but more an extended understanding of processes. Processes of judging others, of understanding others, of communicating with others, and of interacting with others are included here, as are processes of making decisions, solving problems and coping with difficulties which may arise in any of these areas. The general aim is a greater understanding of the principles involved together with an increased self-knowledge regarding one's part in them and an extended language for expressing and reflecting on them.

An associated point arises from the proposal to re-create in the school context a learning process mainly observable in the peer group. Negotiations in the peer group are not confounded by considerations of differences in formal power: in that sense the statuses are equal, and this important distinction marks off many peer relations from many adolescent-adult relations where the statuses are not equal. It is important, then, that teachers take care over utilizing their formal status and power lest the exploration becomes limited and the problems are answered but not really solved by the participants. Glandon (1978) has directed our attention to the "hidden curriculum" in simulations: we would not be doing our pupils a service if the implicit learning they extracted from an experience was, for example, that adults know all the answers. But having made the point that exploration is better than easy answers, this is *not* to suggest that the techniques require a

teacher to be laissez-faire: they are properly constructed techniques where the teacher has responsibility for controlling the structure.

ACTIVE METHODS OUTLINED

Three main types are to be described here. The borderlines between them are not always as distinct as the descriptions may suggest. Many variants and hybrids are possible.

1. Simulation

This method attempts to replicate certain features of reality (for example a job interview, a group tackling a new problem) which have not yet been encountered, so that the main elements can be experienced but without the real-life consequences that would be attached to behaviour. The situation is almost taken as a cultural 'given', and experimentation is on how best to handle the situation.

2. Role play

This is similar to simulation, but generally covers more limited social interactions, often just two people, with less constraint imposed by the situation. The added aim is for one person to learn how the other sees her/his behaviour. This is achieved by the technique of role-reversal where having first played his or her own role in the interaction each person then has to play the role of the other. Examples could include a pupil role-playing a conflict or a misunderstanding with a teacher, a tutor-in-training role-playing an interview with a member of the tutor group, and so on.

3. Games

There are many possible games. Almost any set of transactions between a group of players may be termed a game, but in pastoral care the focus is often on social situations that are neither highly structured nor predictable in outcome. Games in these areas look more like variants of 'Desert Islands' or a 'balloon debate' than

Monopoly or Snakes and Ladders. Players are presented with a number of strategies which they must evaluate, select from and proceed to implement. The aim is to develop particular skills of thinking, decision-making and problem-solving

A crucial element in all these methods is the 'post-play' discussion. This is where analysis takes place and the transfer of learning to other contexts can be discussed and evaluated. All atmosphere of joint exploration is aimed at: negative criticism is discouraged whereas positive criticism, especially suggestion on how the strategies could be improved is welcomed. Again therefore it should be stressed that the teacher is active in this phase. The activity centres on:

1. drawing out the various perspectives which different members have had on the experience, and the different strategies they adopted;
2. identifying the salient events which occurred and their possible effects, both on the later course of events and on the feelings of the participants;
3. evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of the various strategies which were adopted and of any others which can be envisaged;
4. considering whether valid generalizations may be made, in the form of general principles of human interaction;
5. discussing which other situations may have features in common with the one enacted, and which of the learnings may be transferred to those situations

Much of this activity may be structured by the use of simple questions which focus pupils' attention on each of the elements above:

What were you trying to do? What did you achieve?
How did it feel?
Why did the different people see things differently?
What did you feel was the most important thing that happened?
Why?
What was the effect?
How did you feel when ...?

What did he think when you ...?
Whose approach seemed to work? Why?
What else could have been done?
Do most people behave in this way?
What other situations are like this one?

Obviously not all these questions would be used, interrogation-like. They are merely suggestions from which the teacher may select. The teacher's role here is to help pupils to structure the experience and elaborate on what they have learned. In this role the teacher may sometimes be neutral, especially when he/ she considers that expressing his/her point of view may inhibit pupils expressing theirs, but the teacher is not passive. It certainly seems possible that an *unstructured* discussion of some social issues may serve to reinforce prejudice and stereotype if pupils merely find group support for some of their attitudes. This is contrary to educational aims. Active intervention to question and sometimes confront prejudice is required, together with a follow-up on the personal and social functions of stereotyping. Thus the post-play discussion should never be neglected. Discussion is not the only approach: written methods or further active methods may be utilized in the reflection and analysis which can centre on questions like those suggested above.

In the post-play phase pupils are helped to elaborate their ways of expressing what has happened and what were the perceived effects. This is an important aspect, based not on the simple theory that 'expressing feelings is a good thing', but on the idea that adequate language skills are necessary in order to reflect on one's own behaviour. Many adolescents are fluent in the language of action: they have ways of behaving which are almost automatic in response to some event or situation. These active methods try to encourage reflection on behaviour, using the medium of language to extend the meaning of situations and events, and thence encourage more satisfying strategies. During adolescence both the breadth of vocabulary and complexity of language for expressing personal and interpersonal issues are developing continuously. We can help in this development and thereby give young people greater facility to ascribe meaning to their feelings, difficulties and experience. For many who have seldom reflected on their behaviour this will be new and possibly at first the benefits will not be clear. Thus it is important to spell out the purpose and pay-off of these activities.

The introduction of a simulation, role-play or game to a group of pupils is important in a number of respects. As we shall see in the detailed discussion of each technique, thoughtful selection of the situation to be explored will help to make the rewards clear. An initial briefing, however, can clarify the objectives and this will give students some idea of what to expect and how to proceed.

The model of learning which is built into these methods may be summarized as:

1. Act
2. Understand the particular situation
3. Generalize
4. Act in new circumstances

and this approximates to adolescents' experiential learning. The contrast with the 'information-processing' approach to learning which underlies much of the curriculum can be seen by comparing the above with this:

1. Reception of information
2. Understand general principle
3. Particularize
4. Act

This latter model might also underline inactive teaching of social principles, where pupils are informed but their action may remain unaffected.

WHAT CAN BE LEARNED?

Without wishing to give the impression of claiming another panacea, it seems useful to list the potential outcomes of active methods. The concepts underlying this list may also be profitably borne in mind when constructing new simulations, games and role-plays.

1. The ability to 'put oneself in others' shoes' and see things from their perspective is a fundamental ability in co-operative social interaction. These 'role-taking' skills can be fostered by the role-reversal techniques. These are different skills to those of

role-enactment, which are more the concern when the drama teacher uses role-play methods. Our concern here is not with dramatic skills but with cognitive skills of imaginatively constructing another perspective, and anticipating the situation from that point of view. Some information is obviously required in order to construct the other perspective in a realistic way, as also is personal flexibility. One end result of teaching role-taking effectively is that the pupil has an awareness of himself as one member of various dynamic interacting systems of other people.

2. An understanding of the feelings evoked in self and in others by a variety of situations, together with the language for dealing with those feelings may be extended. The latter element is not always given the importance it deserves; a more elaborated language for denoting feelings is an aid to reflecting on them and a tool for organizing self-knowledge.
3. New roles and social skills can be tried out in a safe situation, in which the real-life consequences are temporarily suspended. The other side of this coin is that old faulty strategies may be identified without having to contend with the full force of the real-life consequences. This category would also include the skills of interpersonal communication, of putting one's viewpoint across to others, and of presenting oneself in positive ways. Trying out new lines of behaviour may help their growth as well as their maintenance, because the person will have experienced what it feels like to behave that way, and the feeling will no longer be new. Finally, to experiment with new ways of behaving may be better than only talking of new ways of behaving, running the risk of never actually achieving a change in practice.
4. Learning to assess the costs of an action and the consequences expected may improve anticipation of these elements in other situations. This skill is very much associated with the skills of decision-making, which can be taught in school. It is important to recognize alternative solutions and to evaluate each of the alternatives.

Having listed four general areas of possible learning, it is obvious that there is some overlap between these areas and certainly much interaction between them in day-to-day situations. However, separating them in this way may help to identify which *sort* of

ability is lacking for a particular person in a particular situation. Each of the three active techniques is more relevant to some of these areas than to others. For example, role-play may be most appropriate for area 1 (role-taking), whereas for area 4 (decision-making), a well-constructed game which makes those skills specific may be most effective

HOW ARE THESE ACTIVITIES USED?

In this section some points will be made concerning the construction and use of simulation, role-play and games, together with a consideration of some of the difficulties and self-defeating strategies which may arise. Each will be covered in turn although many comments may apply to other or all methods. One example and suggestions for further reading will be given.

1, Simulation

A major contribution to the success of a simulation is in the choice of issue or situation to be portrayed. A realistic and important issue will obviously have greatest potential. The situation will probably be well known to pupils even if they have not yet experienced it directly; it will be concrete rather than being a somewhat ratified 'moral dilemma'. A moral issue may well be represented, but the reason for choosing the situation is that it represents an issue which young people want to cope with in a more satisfying way. So, for example, rather than constructing a simulation to explore 'parent-peer conflict' as a moral dilemma, it may be more profitable to identify a concrete issue such as 'being out late', or 'how I use my money', where pupils may be experiencing a real difficulty.

It follows then that with a well-chosen situation the rewards for involvement in the simulation should be meaningful and the justification should be clear to the pupils. Ensure this is the case by making them explicit in the introduction. In the last example we could suggest that the simulation would help students examine alternative ways of behaving, anticipate the reactions of other actors in the situation, calculate the costs and consequences of their action, and find a suitable strategy.

Sensitivity is required in introducing a simulation. In the contexts

where these techniques are likely to be used (careers, social education, pastoral care), the method can probably be introduced out of a theme already under discussion. Instead of 'today we're going to do a simulation', a suggestion of 'why don't we see what happens?' will be better received and motivate the pupils to explore.

Some preparation of the group is required. Fears of embarrassment and of 'drying up' are anticipated by the teacher, who can suggest how to cope. For example; 'you may imagine you'll dry up. Before you start, think of a few phrases you might use in your role, and if you do find it difficult, carry on as best you can'; or 'you'll probably be a bit nervous and giggly to start with, but this will wear off as the situation develops'. With older pupils, fruitful discussions can be held on these processes and methods of coping with them. Warn participants against overacting or portraying a stereotype: there is no point in oversimplifying the reality to be portrayed and pupils who do this via stereotyping should be discouraged.

Actors may be chosen in various ways. Volunteering may be the least threatening approach with which to start. If some of the group are not taking up roles, suggest things to look out for in the interaction, so making their role as audience an active one. You may find it useful to notify them of some of the post-play questions suggested earlier. When you allocate individuals to particular roles, make sure that the role does not violate a salient personality trait or personal difficulty, such as asking a withdrawn student to portray an effusive adult or asking a recently bereaved young person to portray someone similar to the one lost.

In simulations the description of the situation and the characters should be detailed enough to 'set the interaction going', but not so much that the role-holders have little responsibility for the enactment. Scripts are inappropriate, except occasionally to give someone a starting line. Hamblin (1974) suggests the following scheme for planning a simulation:

- (a) a description of the basic event
- (b) the role-holders in the situation
- (c) the relations between these characters, and the nature of their interaction
- (d) the rewards and punishments involved
- (e) the barriers to attaining the outcome
- (f) the nature of the intended outcome.

These ingredients should all be present at some point (not necessarily in this order) in the description. Enough information is given to allow actors to construct the role to be portrayed: this information often includes a little of the character's background experience, the perception of this particular event, and some alternative lines of action from which to select.

How long should the enactment take? There is no real answer - a full simulation of an interview could take half an hour, some group problem-solving tasks could take more than one session, but most interaction scenes only need five minutes to generate a good discussion. Probably the best strategy is to start with brief situations.

The post-play discussion invariably takes longer than the simulation. Here the teacher can stimulate discussion by asking for pupils' opinions of the actions taken, the motives attributed, the feelings evoked, the overall process of interaction and so on. This then leads to an evaluation of the experience: were the roles played realistically, how better might they have been played, were there other alternatives? During the discussion the teacher will have in mind the objectives she/he has set and the possible learnings which may be developed. Where the aim has been to practise new skills in handling the situation, the simulation can now be re-run. Finally a discussion evaluating the method is valuable: what other similar situations are there, how could this simulation be improved? In this way the technique can be developed, since student suggestions can be incorporated into the description the next time it is enacted.

An example of simulation where the situation is an interpersonal one which may contain conflicts of interest:

THE CHARACTERS

1. Joanne, 15, has a Saturday morning job where she earns £4 a week. She's just decided to start saving for a new pair of jeans (in at least three weeks' time) and her mother, who thinks Joanne has had too easy an attitude to money, has said that Joanne must buy the jeans with no help from her.
2. Diane, also 15, is Joanne's best friend and has been for about two years. They spend a lot of time together and nearly always go out together, taking considerable care over their appearance.
3. Michael, 23, is Diane's older brother. He has just become a partner in a firm supplying boutiques and often sells clothes

cheaply to his friends. He's a bit suspicious of Joanne because he thinks she goes out with another group of friends without telling Diane, whom he thinks might feel hurt.

THE SITUATION

It's Saturday afternoon and Joanne has arrived at Diane's house to make arrangements for that evening. Diane has just bought a new sweater from Michael and very much wants Joanne to have a similar one when they go to the ice-rink tonight. Michael forgot to go to the bank yesterday and needs some cash in his pocket for Saturday night. But Joanne only has her £4.

* * *

Before acting out the scene, each character should consider the costs and consequences of behaving according to the following alternatives, but not discuss with the others until the scene has been acted.

JOANNE

- a. Refusing the offer of the sweater and keeping to the decision to buy jeans
- b. Accepting the offer and promising to get the rest of the money from mum before tonight
- c. Trying to get Michael to accept £4, with the rest to be paid next week.

DIANE

- a. Giving up the idea of similar sweaters and saying you'll wear something you've worn before.
- b. Not bothering to persuade Joanne and wearing your own new sweater all the same.
- c. Making every attempt to persuade Joanne to get the sweater somehow.

MICHAEL

- a. Telling Joanne it's the last sweater you've got and persuade her to find the money.
- b. Taking £4 now and the rest next week,

c. Not selling the sweater to Joanne and taking the risk of finding another buyer this afternoon.

For further examples and discussion of simulation see: Hamblin (1974) pp. 172-9; Hamblin (1978) p. 158; Davison and Gordon (1978); Taylor and Walford (1972).

2. Role play

This technique is often used to explore two-person interactions. Consequently it is more likely to focus on a relationship or type of relationship, rather than a general social situation as in simulation. Even more often, then, the selection of the issue will arise out of discussion of a particular difficulty that one person is experiencing with another. Role-play might be used, for example, in the context of a tutor's discussion with one member of the tutor group. Some of the difficulties coped with in this way may have themes which are generalizable to a whole group (see pp. 42-44), but there is one major theme which is generally amenable to role-play techniques in groups - that is the theme of interpersonal communication. Here we can build up component skills such as: (i) those of good listening; (ii) of putting one's viewpoint across to others; (iii) of being aware of the impression one creates, (iv) and of being able to adopt non-conforming styles in communication and bargaining.

Again, the technique is not introduced 'cold', but in the context of discussing themes. The rewards and justifications for this mode of learning thus make themselves clear. Difficulties pupils may encounter must be anticipated, and advice given on how to cope with initial embarrassment, drying up, and overacting. Choice of actors is less problematic, especially in the context of a discussion with one pupil, but in the group situation where pupils may be asked to role-play in pairs it is sometimes necessary to allow pupils to opt out if they find the prospect disturbing.

Role-play should be kept brief. Three minutes is sufficient in the first instances: it is better to repeat an episode rather than prolong it. A short enactment is enough to generate a number of discussion points: an overlong period may make the role-reversal scene more difficult, may increase the chance of a stereotype being acted out or of participants drying up. The role-reversal element requires that each person sees and acts the scene from the standpoint of the

partner, thus stimulating the partner's experience of the issue. If this is the chosen purpose, then the actors can change roles, carry on the enactment, and then discuss, how the issue feels from the other's position

Role-reversal can also develop reflexive role-taking skills, that is the ability to put oneself in others' shoes but in order to view oneself from that standpoint. This is central to effective self-presentation, and can help many adolescents who unwittingly and unintentionally create an impression (often non-verbally) which clouds their intended message in the eyes of the receiver. In this case the role-reversal scene should try to approximate the scene first played: the partner tries to give each person a glimpse of him/herself in the way she/he enacted the role originally. If you use this technique with a pupil by playing his/her role yourself, it is useful to start discussion by asking 'How realistically do you think I played your role?' Very simple examples can be handled very effectively here: for example, someone's style on entering a room can be quickly examined by saying: 'Now you sit here and I'll come in the way you did: see what impression is created.'

The post-play discussion is of major importance: here the teacher centres the discussion on the processes which have emerged in the case of an individual improvised role-play, or on the aims that have been set in the case of a planned role-play. In either case the discussion may profitably move to an evaluation of the method and its advantage for finding new ways of behaving.

An example (of a planned role-play for possible use with groups):

'CHANGING MY MIND'

CHARACTERS AND SITUATION

Alan, 14, has just agreed to go with his dad to Bristol next weekend when dad picks up the older brother David from college at the end of term. But Alan has just remembered that he made a vague promise to go fishing with his best friend next weekend, so is just about to tell dad he's changed his mind.

Father is very keen for Alan to get a glimpse of college life: he hopes Alan will eventually go to college like David, but feels that he presently spends time on activities which aren't helping his school work.

PROCEDURE

1. The group divides into pairs and each pair decides who is to be labelled A and who is B.
2. For the first role-play A plays Alan and B his father: each spends a couple of minutes thinking about the role, the situation and how they might behave.
3. Three minutes role-play.
4. Discuss for five minutes. Consider the following:
 - (a) how did each person feel?
 - (b) did Alan succeed or did things get worse?
 - (c) what arguments did father use?
 - (d) did they negotiate some other answer?
 - (e) could they see each other's point of view?
5. Now B plays Alan and A his father: spend some time thinking how you will behave.
6. Three minutes role-play.
7. Final discussion in pairs and evaluation in group.

For further examples and discussion of role-play see Hamblin (1974) pp. 158-67; Hamblin (1978) p. 155; Shafiel and Shafiel (1967); Chesler and Fox (1966).

3. Games

As the name suggests, games are not so strongly concerned with replicating a real situation. Rather they are a set of transactions which focus on one element of a real situation, but approach it in an unusual way. Games are not all sheer flights of fantasy. What is required, then, is to analyse from a particular situation the skills or competences you feel pupils are lacking, and then to construct a game activity to teach, exercise and develop this particular skill.

For example, in learning to cope with the demands of homework and the increasing importance of self-directed work, one of the component skills in this situation may be that of ordering the various alternatives which compete for time. A game could be constructed which teaches and exercises this skill, with the basic idea of getting pupils to put in priority order various demands for time in a variety of hypothetical contexts. Another example would be in careers education, where one ingredient of vocational choice is seen to be the knowledge of the life-style associated with various jobs.

Having identified the sub-skill towards which attention is to be directed, we can now take the first steps in constructing a game. It is important to note how tightly structured the game is to be. A highly structured game may have predictable outcomes for the pupil and this is appropriate when information is to be taught or a particular limited skill developed. A less structured game may involve more elements of exploration for the players and therefore less predictable outcomes (an example here might be a loosely-structured group problem-solving game where players might learn about the problem, or the process of solving problems, or the group's composition, or the style adopted by the various members). When first using games, it is probably best to start with a fairly high degree of structure until pupils are acquainted with the technique.

But what *sort* of structure is provided? Great care must be taken to anticipate any implicit messages which may be generated by the game's structure. It is possible to build in implicit messages which are contrary to our overall aim, so that the game becomes self-defeating. We may need to forget the usual examples of board games such as Monopoly, as many of their features do not serve our purpose. The idea of 'moves' taken in turn by each player may be inappropriate: it is certainly difficult to identify an example of turn-taking in 'real-life' interactions, and the implicit effect of 'moves' may be to disallow the more complicated real negotiation. Similarly, to have progress through the game determined by chance (dice, spinner and so on) is to give a distorted message to the players. This may be all the more counterproductive for those players with a tendency to view the world in a 'fateful' way, where luck and chance are felt to be of major importance. There are some situations, nevertheless, where an element of chance or an unforeseen contingency are valuable: for example, during the course of a group problem-solving game such as 'Survival on a Desert Island' (where the group's personal resources and limited environmental resources need to be marshalled for survival), an extra 'crisis' can be introduced to test the group's flexibility: while planning a scheme for a freshwater reservoir, castaways suddenly have to deal with the effects of a hurricane. These unpredicted demands are possibly best introduced by the teacher.

A third feature of games which we need to examine is that of scoring. The games which are most useful do not necessarily decide a winner at the end; indeed many games aim at co-operation rather

than competition. 'Co-operative Draughts' is a case in point: here the two players aim to exchange all the black and white draughts so that they end at opposite sides of the board. The game differs from the usual rules in that there is no jumping or moving backwards and no draughts are removed. The game is won if each player's last draught is moved to the last open position on the opposite side of the board at the same time. This example shows how exciting well-known games can be creatively modified to suit other educative purposes. If the games you develop do include scoring, check that you are not building in the message that life is a zero-sum game: that is, that what one person wins can only be at the expense of another's losses. Try instead to build in the idea of joint maximizing of rewards. There is a larger point here: each game probably carries an implicit model of man and his supposed way of behaving. Does your game see man as basically competitive? Does it encourage strategies which utilize short-term aims rather than a more reflective strategy? Does it reward manipulative approaches to the other players? Does it view people as only responding to rewards?

Turning now to those features necessary in the design of a game, the following list may help your planning:

1. The objectives of the game: what knowledge or skill do you intend to convey?
2. The roles of the participants: are pupils to be themselves or imagine themselves in another situation? If the latter is your choice, give role descriptions.
3. Players' goals: what are the pupils to aim at in the game? This needs to be spelt out clearly.
4. Players' resources: what can each pupil use to influence the outcome in his/her favour? These may be concrete, physical or abstract, personal.
5. Interaction between players: how can they affect each other and each other's outcomes? Are they partners and collaborators? Or negotiators? Or opponents?
6. How does play progress: what is the sequence of interaction, what choice points are included, how does the game end?
7. External constraints you may wish to place on the players' choices.
8. Materials required.

Remember that games turn out to be more effective if you have developed them in partnership with the people who are going to use them. A schema such as that above can help construct the first draft of a game: the next stage is to go to a group of pupils and ask them to play the draft version of it. Their comments and discussion will lead to much valuable modification of your planned activity. This point, of course, is also valid for simulations and planned role-plays, and it is surprising how much pupils gain from the developed version. Indeed most games can be fruitfully played on a number of occasions, either with increasingly complex rules or situations presented, or to develop a skill which has been taught earlier.

The particular elements you will need to modify will be specific to your game, but some general comments can be made (with thanks to Megarry, 1976, for some).

1. Try to make sure that no player spends much time 'idle'.
2. Try to exclude confusing materials in your game, or cues in the materials which are irrelevant to the task (unless of course you have designed a game to develop pupils' skills in coping with confusing or irrelevant information. This would certainly be a worthwhile enterprise in the study skills area).
3. Avoid, if you can, complex calculations which the players must perform at any stage.
4. Avoid writing in any unnecessary or unclear rules.
5. Do not reward speed in completing the game or learning the rules of the game rather than the skills or knowledge you have intended to reward.

Having constructed and developed a game, many of the earlier comments on how to introduce an activity to a group of pupils, also apply here. There is one further point about the introduction: rather than spending time trying to explain the rules before play starts, it will be more effective to let the players learn the rules as they play the first round.

When it comes to the post-play discussion one further point is added: where the game incorporates elements loosely representing features of a real situation, it is useful for pupils to identify these elements and discuss their interpretation. So in the example of 'Survival on a Desert Island' where the teacher introduces a chance hurricane, post-play discussion would include students'

interpretations of this element, what it might represent, and what similar occurrences they know in real life.

EXAMPLES:

1. A SIMPLE COMMUNICATION GAME

Objectives

- (a) to encourage taking the other's perspective in communication.
- (b) to develop a recognition of the need to encode one's language for the listener.

Roles

This game is played in pairs, where one pupil is the instructor and the other is to follow instructions.

Players' goals

The instructor's aim is to direct the other player in a simple day-to-day task; putting on a jacket. The other player is not committed to this aim: he/she just follows instructions.

Players' resources

The instructor can only use spoken words to convey his directions: no demonstrating or other non-verbal communication. The other merely does what he/she is told, does not ask questions or communicate with the instructor.

Interaction between players

Since the person without the jacket does not share the aim of putting on the jacket, she/he is not basically co-operative towards the instructor and takes every instruction literally.

Sequence of events

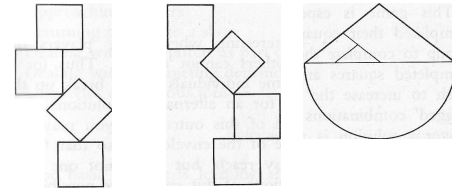
At the start the jacket is lying on a table.

The game can have hilarious results while being played and can serve as a light-hearted introduction to many issues in communication. Similar situations where the effects are more serious will be brought out in the follow-up activities.

2. A SIMILAR COMMUNICATION GAME

As above but the task is different: here, the instructor has to describe to the partner a diagram which only he (the instructor) can

see. The joint aim is for the partner to reproduce accurately the original diagram. Simple diagrams are sufficient to begin with: a series of progressively more difficult diagrams could be developed if your aim is to develop this particular skill.



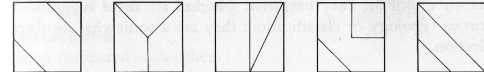
3. A GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING GAME

Objectives

- (a) to analyse group co-operation in solving a problem.
- (b) to show some of the behaviours which may help or hinder group problem solving.

Roles

In groups of five, each person is to contribute towards the task given to the group. Each member is given an envelope containing a random selection of pieces cut from squares as below:



Players' goals

The aim is for each player to end up with a complete square in front of him. Only when all five players have a completed square is the task finished.

Players' resources

Players cannot ask others for the pieces required to complete their square: no member may speak. The only way to get a piece from another is for that person to offer it.

Interaction between players

Non-verbal communication is not allowed. The task therefore is

carried out in silent co-operation. Members may pass any of their pieces to any other group member at any time.

Sequence of events

Each player is given an envelope, the rules are explained and the task is begun.

This game is especially interesting when some players have completed their squares but others cannot do so. Thus for the group to complete the task some individuals must break up their completed squares and search for an alternative solution. If you wish to increase the likelihood of this outcome, you may select 'rigged' combinations for some of the envelopes, so that for one player a solution is within easy reach, but it is not one of the solutions as shown. Other versions of this game are possible with sentences cut up into single words and distributed to the players.

For further examples and discussion of games, see Hamblin (1974) pp. 180-2; Davison and Gordon (1978); Stadslev (1974); Stanford (1977); Krupar (1973).

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER USE

It is sometimes difficult to imagine how to extend the use of a new technique. This section suggests other areas in which simulations, role-play and games may be effective. These suggestions are not exhaustive, nor are they exclusive. Neither are these suggestions a rigorous typology or classification: they are a somewhat incoherent collection.

Simulations

The basic theme is learning about unknown social situations. There may be unknown people, an unknown context, an unknown way of behaving, or any combination of these. The basic aim is greater knowledge of the situation, how to 'handle' the event, present oneself positively and communicate effectively.

Suggested areas:

- Working in groups
- Roles in groups
- Co-operation and competition

- Maintaining one's own identity within a group
- Meeting someone new (same/different sex, same/different age)
- Initiating conversation
- Going to an interview
- Going to a family wedding, funeral, party
- Approaching others
- Returning goods to a shop
- Dealing with the public as part of a job
- Dealing with competing demands in a job
- Life-styles of various jobs

Role-play

Here the basic theme is learning about relationships with known others. These may include difficulties, conflicts, frustrations, feelings of unfair treatment, issues of power and authority. The basic aim is greater understanding of the relationship, the other's perceptions and one's own part, communicating effectively and coping with any difficulty. Suggested areas:

(a) with peers

- Coping with confrontation and escalation
- An invitation to truant
- Others getting me into trouble Embarrassment, feeling silly
- Being teased
- Conflicts of loyalties, changing my mind, saying 'No'

(b) with parents

- Being compared with others
- Taking responsibility at home
- Spending my money, going out
- My effect on my brothers and sisters, their effect on me

(c) with teachers

- Changing my reputation
- Asking for something, a change of decision
- Taking responsibility for my work
- Asking questions in class

(d) with other adults

- Talking to relatives
- Being stopped by an official

(e) with workmates

Coping with 'initiations', being the novice
Making new friendships
Making mistakes

(f) with the boss at work

Taking instructions, not understanding them
Being paid wrongly
Unfair workload

Games

Here the basic theme is a particular set of facts and/or skills which have been identified as necessary elsewhere. These may be skills of thinking, decision-making, evaluating and planning. The basic aim is to improve these skills in a variety of areas, at home, in school and elsewhere.

Suggested areas:

Solving a mystery (each person has one clue)
Using information
Identifying differences and similarities Inference games
Decisions at school (options, stay or leave, careers)
Decisions every day
Level of risk in a decision
'Brainstorming' alternatives in a decision
Forced choice games
Organizing homework
Saving money
Creating a revision timetable Planning a trip, visit, holiday
Co-operation games
Communication games

SOME CONCLUDING COMMENTS

I have tried to describe active methods so that they are amenable to the particular aims and constraints of pastoral care. When considering the use of these activities in tutor time it is clear that

timing is important. If you have, say, thirty minutes with your tutor group and can complete the register in five, you may have five minutes to introduce the activity, five or ten to play it through and ten or fifteen for the follow-up activities. With a shorter period of tutor time it may be necessary to devise follow-up activities which allow pupils to record a few main points and their reactions, so that the main discussion may be held at the next meeting.

This point again brings us to consider the structure which is created by the post-play activity. The questions in this chapter have been suggested in the hope that the post-play activity will be well structured and will extract significant learnings. Discussion is not the only activity possible, and when we have to carry over the discussion to the next meeting, written responses may be convenient. For this purpose we may select some of the questions on which discussion is to centre, but we may also include other types of tasks. For example, simple self-assessment items which focus on the theme being explored can be very helpful: putting in order of importance the various alternatives open to a player, sorting other similar situations into liked and disliked, comparing outcomes from various lines of action, and so on. Processes like 'How I judge others' or 'People I model myself on' may also be incorporated, but for these self-assessments as for active methods generally it is important that the learnings are not seen as static.

Finally, I have tried to suggest one way in which pastoral care could become more creative. A positive involvement with social development and the development of other personal skills, all of which have a spin-off for academic development, may create a more forward-looking approach than some schools have at present. Encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning and giving them the skills to take charge of their lives in this way, rather than watching them sink or swim, may have positive spin-off for many aspects of the school's life. But this is not to claim a panacea: active methods will not revolutionize education overnight, nor will they end conflict in our schools. They may nevertheless equip more students with the ability to succeed in school, and as a form of feedback may help school to become a truly adaptive learning environment.

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