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ABSTRACT

In an effort to put new vigor into the learning situation, an experiential approach to the teaching of social sciences in higher education is offered in this paper. The paper describes how the experiential approach is being used in an academic sociology course at Stanford which is adaptable to a wide variety of social sciences courses. Differing from the traditional directive method, the experiential approach involves several interrelated factors. First, educational philosophy stresses student motivation, peer learning, equal emphasis upon both intellectual and affective content, and shared decision making. Second, there is a body of intellectual social science content. Third, a complex battery of instructional techniques including experience teams, field activities, simulation games, experiential exercises, readings, lectures, and other media are employed. Emerging out of past experience with this type of course, practical suggestions for running a course include introducing the approach slowly with a backup of practice and planning, forming a cadre of interested people, trying a weekend retreat, finding enough space and time, providing a flexible structure, clarifying goals, understanding the professor's role, and expecting students to go through various stages in their attitudes toward the course. (SJM)

STANFORD CENTER
FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
IN TEACHING

Research and Development Memorandum No. 99

AN EXPERIENTIAL COURSE FOR TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCE

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Introductory Statement

The Center's mission is to improve teaching in American schools. Too many teachers still employ a didactic style aimed at filling passive students with facts. The teacher's environment often prevents him from changing his style, and may indeed drive him out of the profession. And the children of the poor typically suffer from the worst teaching.

The Center uses the resources of the behavioral sciences in pursuing its objectives. Drawing primarily upon psychology and sociology, but also upon other behavioral science disciplines, the Center has formulated programs of research, development, demonstration, and dissemination in three areas. Program 1, Teaching Effectiveness, is now developing a Model Teacher Training System that can be used to train both beginning and experienced teachers in effective teaching skills. Program 2, The Environment for Teaching, is developing models of school organization and ways of evaluating teachers that will encourage teachers to become more professional and more committed. Program 3, Teaching Students from Low-Income Areas, is developing materials and procedures for motivating both students and teachers in low-income schools.

The component in Program 2 from which this report emerges, the organizational change project, is concerned with decision-making processes and their impact on educational innovations. This report concerns one particular type of innovation, a new course organization for teaching social sciences.

Contents

Abstract

This paper describes and discusses an experiential approach to teaching social science in a college setting. First, the experiential philosophy is outlined, a philosophy that stresses student self-motivation; peer learning; the sharing of decision-making power among professors, staff, and students; and affective as well as cognitive learning. Second, the intellectual content of a sample course on the sociology of education is reviewed. The course focused on power, stratification, minority groups, and conflict in the modern educational scene. The authors believe, however, that the experiential approach can be adapted to a wide variety of social science courses. Third, the instructional techniques are described. Experience teams are the prime activity unit of the sample course; experiential exercises, field projects, films and other media, lectures, and readings are interwoven as instructional tools. The question of evaluating student achievement in an experiential course is discussed, and the evaluation process used in the sample course is described. Finally, some practical suggestions derived from experience with the experiential approach are offered.

This paper offers concrete, practical suggestions and an interpretation of a teaching and learning approach that could be widely adopted, even in more or less traditional educational settings.

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Introduction

Mark Twain said of the weather that everybody talks about it but nobody does anything about it. Plenty of people are saying the same thing about college teaching: it is wooden, dull, bogged down in tradition, and deadly boring to everyone involved--students and faculty alike. The social sciences, for example, should be among the liveliest, most involving courses in the college curriculum. They should turn people on, they should make them want to see people acting out their destiny in society; to understand power and oppression, class revolution and elitist control; to sense the intricate web of human patterns in everyday life. But are the social sciences this kind of gripping experience for the average student? The answer is all too obvious!

What can be done about the pallid, stale stuff we trot out under the guise of social science? Are there teaching alternatives that have greater impact? Can we mobilize our creative efforts so that students--and faculty--actually enjoy learning about human society? There are many exciting ideas floating around about new teaching techniques, but among college professors, unfortunately, they tend to travel only by word of mouth. There are few established channels for exchanging information about teaching at the college level. Professors write about their research, but few of them write articles about improving university teaching. In this paper we hope to share some experiences with a new approach to teaching sociology (or almost any other social science) that may be useful for people who want to put new vigor and excitement into their learning situation.

The "experiential" approach to teaching really predates John Dewey and the progressive education movement, but it owes its current thrust to

ideas emerging from humanistic psychology, the experimental education movement, radical sociology, and sensitivity training. To be frank, there is little agreement about what experiential learning really means, for every advocate has a slightly different interpretation. Consistency of terminology and agreement about philosophies may be reassuring, but in this new movement there is a delicious chaos that leaves plenty of room for individual interpretation. This paper gives only one version of experiential learning processes, although we believe most other advocates would agree with the basic tenets.

The experiential approach has been used in a variety of settings. One of the most common has been the large-scale training program, such as managerial training in industry, Peace Corps training, and high-impact, pre-service experiences for teachers. In some cases complete colleges have been designed for implementing one or another type of experiential mode. Johnston College in Redlands, California; Governor's State at Park Forest, Illinois; the Experimental College at Brandeis University in Waltham, Massachusetts; and the Union for Experimenting Colleges at Yellow Springs, Ohio, are only a few examples of such efforts.

This paper describes how the experiential approach is being used in an academic course at Stanford, a rather traditional university. This approach seems to hold great promise for individual courses because it can be introduced gradually, it can function within the normal confines of a traditional college, and it does not require the enormous financial resources of a new college or training program. Our approach is conservative since it does not require upsetting the educational system completely, but it is probably more useful than more radical approaches, at least for professors who are not working in an experimental college or training program. The goal, then, is to make a new experiment work even in the ordinary setting of large classes, traditional structures, and heavy constraints--the conditions under which most college professors work. This explains why we regard it as a modest radical proposal. In our experience teaching sociology over the last few years, experiential learning has been a complex mixture of four elements:

1. A philosophy of learning that stresses emotional involvement, affective learning, student self-responsibility, active rather than passive experiences, and peer teaching.
2. A body of sociological knowledge that emphasizes power, stratification, and social movements in modern society. (Another social science or another list of topics could easily be substituted; this was the topic for the developmental courses.)
3. A battery of learning techniques that includes experience teams, simulation games, field projects, short wrap-up lectures, presentation through various media, and self-evaluation devices.
4. A set of practical operational guides that help teachers manage the courses.

The following four sections describe these elements of the course in detail.

Experiential Learning as an Educational Philosophy

Experiential learning can best be described by contrasting it with "directive" styles of teaching. In directive education the teacher sets objectives, designs instructional material, presents knowledge in a formal manner, and examines the students' achievement according to preconceived ideas of what should have been learned. The student is basically a passive receiver into whom the teacher pours facts. In experiential learning the process of education is seriously modified: the student becomes co-initiator. He helps define his own needs, helps prepare his own curriculum materials, assesses his own progress, and shares decision-making power with the professor. Self-motivation, self-learning, and peer teaching all become central to the process. The teacher still plays a critical role as facilitator, information gatherer, resource person, planner, and coordinator.

The roles of student and teacher in experiential learning are based on the following premises of the experiential philosophy.

1. The student is already self-motivated. He does not resist learning if the subject and presentation are exciting and relevant. The student is not, by nature, a lazy creature who must be forced into learning with the threat of bad grades. Instead, he is a

responsible person who will act in his own learning interest if he is stimulated by good learning experiences

2. Natural curiosity and interest determine how much a student will learn. Without serious interest, very shallow learning takes place (perhaps enough to pass a multiple-choice exam). Natural curiosity can be stimulated, to be sure, but without it, performing will be a false exercise in getting through the educational system.

3. The student learns best when he assesses his own needs and helps plan his own learning experiences. These processes require a serious sharing of decision-making power between professor and student.

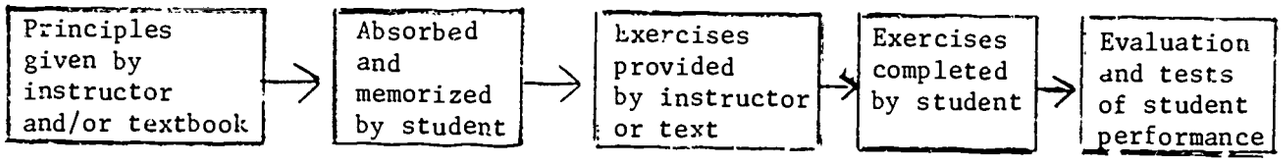
4. Peer learning and teaching are as critical as the student-teacher relationship. The individual learner is the prime source of learning, but his peer group often becomes his major resource.

5. Evaluating learning progress is the responsibility of the student, his peer group, and the professor acting jointly. Evaluation is closely tuned to individual needs and student assessment of goals students have set themselves. The students may also evaluate the professor's ability as a facilitator and resource person.

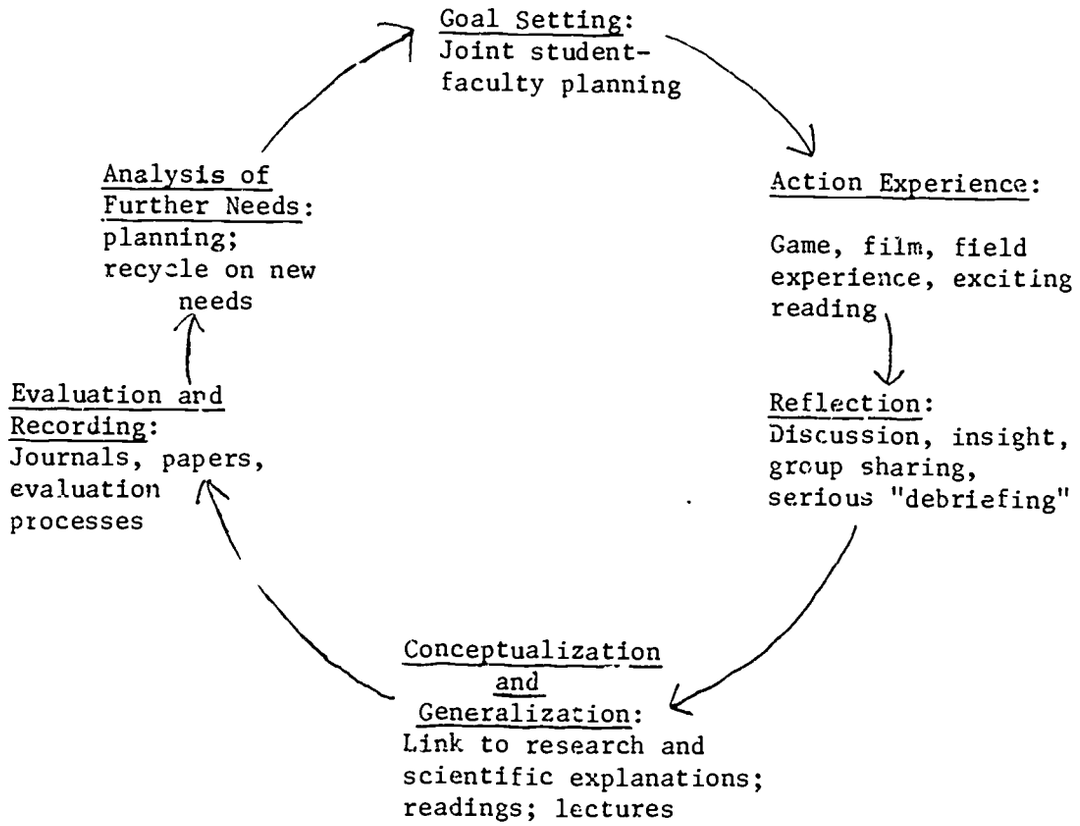
6. Cognitive learning and affective learning must be brought into constant interplay. Cognitive content without affect is lifeless; affect without content is shallow, momentary, and fragmented. Both are necessary if the learning process is to be integrated. Experiential learning models have often been criticized for eliminating intellectual content in the search for affective experiences. This is an unnecessary and foolish criticism. To see subject matter in cognitive terms only limits the notion of what is intellectual. For, in the best sense, an intellectual is a player with ideas, an excited, questioning, self-motivated learner. An intellectual, in our opinion, is not an academic technician, simply an acquirer of information; rather he is a person who infuses his life with the energy of ideas which grow and change as he seeks new opportunities for mind-expansion. Our course has attempted to provide opportunities for this intellectualism by emphasizing academic subject matter content tied to deep affective experiences.

In short, the experiential learning model is different from the directive model in many ways. It assumes a higher degree of responsibility from the student; it calls for greater peer learning; it depends heavily on affective experiences coupled with content learning, and it radically reshapes the roles of teacher and student. Figure 1 compares the directive and the experiential approaches. In the directive model,

FIG. 1. COMPARISON OF DIRECTIVE AND EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODELS



Experiential Model



the teacher sets objectives, designs instructional material, presents knowledge in a formal lecture manner, and examines the student's achievement according to preconceived ideas of what should be learned. The student is the receptacle into whom the teacher pours facts. A student's own ideas are largely inconsequential in this kind of learning; feelings are often irrelevant. Although there may be feedback devices such as discussion, there is generally no feedback until the student is tested on how well he has read the teacher's mind.

The experiential strategy is quite different, as Figure 1 shows. In experiential learning the focus becomes the student, not the teacher. The student becomes a participator: he defines his own needs, helps prepare curriculum materials, assesses his own progress, comes to his own conclusions, integrates feeling and thought, shares decision-making power with the staff, works in teams with other students, and receives intermittent feedback. Self-motivation, self-learning, and peer teaching all become central to the process. The teacher still plays a critical role as facilitator, information gatherer, resource person, planner, and coordinator.

In experiential learning, the learning process begins with some kind of action experience: a simulation, a group discussion, role-playing, a field experience, a film. Reflection, insight, and discussion follow, helping to draw out the content learned. No one states principles and concepts in advance; they emerge from the experience itself. Later, however there are serious attempts to conceptualize and generalize the insights, coupling action experiences with research and social science theories. At this stage the professor may play a central role, bringing theories, reading, research, and action experiences together in some type of wrap-up session. Finally, there are assessments of progress and planning for the future, with the students participating to define their own needs and to decide their future experiences.

This is not a philosophy to be taken lightly. It may look obvious to many who consider themselves progressive, but it actually requires a radical reshaping of our conceptions. The traditional mode of teaching

is still the rule among almost all college professors. Why should it be otherwise? We grew up in schools where innovations were heresy--where neat rows, clean desks, objective tests, dull lectures, and meaningless assignments were the order of the day. We persist in that style because it is the only style we know. For most college teachers, adopting the experiential approach will require a painful reeducation, personal evaluation, and much hard work. Converting to experiential learning is, in some ways, an emotional process; in other ways, it is a process of learning new skills one has seldom seen used in his own educational experience. In the next section we will discuss how these ideas about educational philosophy can be used in a practical situation.

Intellectual Content in an Experiential Approach

Let us affirm once and for all that experiential learning does not discard the intellectual content of the subjects being studied. On the contrary, intellectual content remains at center stage, hand-in-hand with affective experience. Although advocates of experiential learning argue that cognitive content without affective learning is ultimately useless, we argue just as strongly that emotion without an intellectual superstructure is shallow and aimless. We attempted to interweave thinking and feeling in our course at Stanford, believing that both are necessary for growth in an academic environment. This point is important to understand, since the experiential approach is often criticized for being intellectually weak--for replacing intellectual content with momentary experiences and casting aside the hard-won facts and theories of academic disciplines. This is simply not the case in the courses being taught at Stanford, nor is it a likely feature of any other experiential course.

Certainly social science research, well-selected readings, and hard-nosed sociological conceptualization are major components of the experiential approach to social science teaching. Certainly, too, the expert, well-trained social scientist is still needed as a facilitator and resource person. Students cannot be expected to rediscover every idea in social science on their own.

Of course, the experiential approach is not limited to any specific subject matter, since many materials and experiences are directly relevant to a number of courses. With a little imagination the approach can be readily adapted to almost any topic in a social science discipline. (Its usefulness in the physical sciences or the humanities is less certain.) Presently we are adapting the material to an introductory sociology course using the experiential approach, and we are producing a manual to be published by John Wiley and Sons under the title Action: An Experiential Approach to Sociology.

Previously, we used the experiential strategy in a course on the sociology of education. That course offered a radical view of modern society, stressing the oppression of minority groups, class structure, the ties between education and social mobility, and the ties between racism and oppressive education. Its theme was "Power and Conflict in Education," and all the experiences, readings, and instructional activities were focused on this issue. The topics were as follows:

1. Small Group Processes
   A major aspect of the course will be small group experiences. This introductory section on small groups will try to prepare students for analyzing their own group experiences throughout the course.

2. Power and Control of the Schools
   A major emphasis throughout the course will be power relationships in the changing society. Using that focus we will look at various social interest groups who try to control the schools. Subtopics are power and the formal bureaucracy; the professionalization of teachers; community control and the power of unions; community interest groups and the local school board; and student revolt as a power system.

3. The Counter-Culture and Changing Social Values
   Without question, one of the critical cultural changes sweeping the nation and affecting the educational system is the counter-culture. Its impact on education will be analyzed.

4. Total Institutions: Are Schools Really Prisons?
   A large body of sociological research on total institutions (prisons, mental hospitals, military networks) is now available. Many insights into the school as a social system come from

comparisons with these studies. Much of the current student unrest and many of the reform movements can be attributed to the repressive, prisonlike character of many schools.

5. Education and Social Mobility
   Education is a key factor in social mobility in a modern society. However, many factors that bar some groups from social mobility seem beyond the control of the schools.

6. Education and the Social Status of Women
   Can education meet the challenge of training women and men for the changing role of women and the changing nature of the family?

7. Education and Race
   One of the greatest social problems facing this society is inequality of opportunity. Many of the great social debates of the last twenty years have focused on this problem.

In an experiential course, topic areas are planned much as they might be in any other course. Surveys of the literature are made, basic concepts are outlined, lectures are prepared for wrap-up sessions, reading lists and activity outlines are compiled and arranged topically, and audio-visual aids are assembled. Individual members of the staff, in our case, were assigned the major development of a content area. At the same time, there are several differences in pla[illegible] for an experiential course. First, more topics are prepared than can be used, so that students will have a greater choice of alternatives and may feel free to further explore particular topics. Second, many extra materials are gathered, for students may eventually set different goals than those foreseen in the original course plans. Third, all plans are tentative since goal-setting with students often revises the schedule of topics. Fourth, and most significant, plans for the presentation of content are different, as explained in the following section.

Experiential Learning Strategies

In the Stanford course, interconnected learning strategies were used: (a) experience teams of students; (b) a battery of instructional processes including stimulation games, role-playing, discussion groups, field experience, and the extensive use of media; and (c) a set of feedback and evaluation procedures.

Experience Teams

Early in the course students were told that they would form experience teams for their basic participation unit in the class. A number of activities were scheduled to acquaint class members with each other, including a three-day retreat in a YMCA camp. After these acquaintance activities the class was divided into self-selected experience teams, the only stipulation being that the teams have the optimum small group size of five or six members and that the team members agree on a time to meet. From that point on there was one major class meeting each week for three hours and one scheduled experience-team meeting for two hours a week.

The purposes of the teams were directly in accord with the experiential philosophy outlined earlier. First, they provided a personal interaction group within a class of fifty students. The continuity of team membership stimulated long-term personal relationships and encouraged self-criticism. The students became intensely involved in and excited about the team approach; people got out and did things together. Not all teams were completely successful, of course, but even the failures of a particular group of interacting students provided ground for learning.

Second, the experience teams became the major activity unit for the course. Each team provided a cadre of peers who could assist each other in the learning process and participate together in field experiences and other activities. Time periods were arranged to allow at least two teams to meet at the same time, so that activities requiring more than five participants could be handled by combining teams into groups of ten or more. Activities requiring larger numbers were done with the entire class.

Third, the teams became a major student decision-making vehicle for the course. The staff had prepared topics and activities but with the promise that changes could be made. To avoid unwieldy decision-making processes in the larger class, proposals for change were developed, planned and carried out by the teams. Particularly in the area of field activities, the teams frequently responded to the staff's suggestions with alternative ideas, and the staff usually accepted the proposals.

Finally, the teams were the unit for understanding small group processes, the first topic of the course. The first two weeks of the class, plus a weekend retreat, were devoted to studying a number of issues which provided support for this purpose of the team: leadership patterns, decision-making processes, scapegoating tendencies, interaction rates, status characteristics, conflict, and coordination process. Throughout the course, teams were then asked to be self-analytic, to watch their own behavior closely. In fact, formal periods were set aside for self-analysis at various times; a hand-out given to students as a guide appears in Appendix B.

During the first quarter of the course, there were eight teaching assistants working with experience teams. There were both advantages and disadvantages in this: on the one hand, they were valuable resource people, and they constantly pressed the teams to stick to the overall goals of the course; on the other hand, their presence reduced the independence of the teams and probably prevented them from reshaping the course's content as much as they might have. Certainly, it is not essential to have staff members on experience teams. Teams worked unaided by staff the second quarter of the course, and were quite capable of running their own activities as long as the minimum guidelines were clear.

Field Observations, Simulation Games and Other Techniques

In setting up activities with experience teams, the staff attempted to offer a wide variety so that people would not get bored, and to interweave different experiences to form a holistic view of the topic being studied. All the experiences had high affective components, but they were constantly accompanied by theoretical interpretations.

Bob Cotrell, a staff member, suggested a way to describe different types of activities, based on their degree of affective content. He said activities in a course could vary from "fantasy" to the "real world," as shown in Figure 2. In Figure 2 the activities form a continuum, with those at the right-hand side having much more affective involvment and personal commitment than those at the left.

FIG. 2. INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES

FANTASY	EMPATHY	OBSERVATION	REAL WORLD
Lectures	Simulation	Field observation	Actual committed involvement with problems in a job or work project
Readings	Role playing		
		Film and other media	

The typical course keeps students at the fantasy level, in nonaffective lecture and reading situations. Obviously, as a person moves toward the "real world," he becomes more emotionally involved; the affective content of his experiences increases and abstract concepts are continually pressed for relevance. No academic course can possibly duplicate the real world, but an experiential approach which touches it certainly comes closer than most. We did not actually have any activities at the real world level; there were no work-study provisions in our course, though in many experimental colleges such programs exist. We did have a number of other activities, however, and they are discussed below.

Field observations. Each experience team carried out a number of field observations directly linked to the topics studied in the course. The basic requirement for a field observation was (a) that it be outside the confines of the university, if possible, (b) that it deal directly with power and conflict as an issue, (c) that it be related to people actually doing their normal activities, and (d) that prior to the observation the group would construct a detailed observation guide. (An example appears in Appendix B). After the activity was completed each person wrote up his experiences and recorded them in a journal.

The staff suggested a number of field activities for each topic, and each experience team was urged to think up its own. A significant variety of activities were suggested, including the following:

1. Observation of decision-making group (this activity is the subject of the sample in Appendix C).
2. Interviews with publishing houses to determine how the decisions were made to publish textbooks that the team considered racially biased.
3. Observation of student radical groups as they tried to influence university decision making.
4. Observation of the local police at work, including riding in police cars with patrolmen.
5. Attendance at local city council or school board meetings when major community issues (e.g., school busing plans) were being debated.

With a little imagination, professor and students can think up hundreds of similar experiences. After planning an activity, the experience team draws up an observation plan, observes, and then analyzes their findings. The post-experience debriefing is critical, for it allows students to pool their ideas, to correct misconceptions, and to challenge each other to think more deeply about their observations.

Simulation games and role playing. As the resources list (Appendix A) suggests, there are now dozens of simulation games and role playing situations available from many sources. The variety of these activities is indicated by the list below, in which types of games and role plays are arranged according to their degree of structure, from the least structured at the top of the list, to the most structured at the bottom:

1. Non-verbal Activities
   These are activities designed to help people alert themselves to each other's feelings, with very little intellectual interchange.
2. Unstructured Role Plays
   The situation is defined for an actor group, but beyond that, free-style interaction takes place.
3. Structured Role Plays
   The situation is defined, as well as a set of specific roles that have built-in pressures to move the action in a preconceived direction.
4. Simulation Games
   The situation, roles, and rules of interaction are all defined by the game itself. The game is structured so that player interactions are highly interdependent, and so that given actions have specific consequences.

5. Computer Simulations
   These are very similar to simulation games, except that the primary interaction is not with other players but with the computer, which gives the feedback and the consequences.

The objective in using simulation games is to create a highly affective and realistic situation in which the student can experience a situation to some limited degree. Of course, no simulation can possibly recreate the real world, but to a surprising extent students can get seriously involved in these games and draw important insights during the debriefing sessions. Normally, the debriefing takes at least as much time as the game itself.

A good example for showing how simulation games work is the tower-building exercise (adapted from Pfeiffer & Jones, 1969) used in our topic on small group processes. The purpose in the class was to demonstrate (a) internal group processes, such as leadership, conflict, scapegoating, and decision making, and (b) inter-group relationships, such as competition, group self-identification, and group ethnocentrism. This simulation was done in a five-hour block of time at a weekend retreat. The class was warned beforehand that they would be building large towers and told to bring material for constructing them. At the retreat the group was divided into five subgroups, each of which was told simply to proceed with building a tower. A staff member was assigned to each team as an observer; his job was to record interaction patterns, leadership styles, conflicts, and task orientations. (Class members were often chosen as observers for subsequent exercises). Some of the conclusions reached by the observers were the following:

1. People developed strong emotional identification with their towers. (Among the class it became common to say of a person with strong ego-investment in some idea or plan, "He's built his tower; let's give him a try at it.")
2. Leadership patterns emerged almost at once, with one or two people becoming the coordinators while most others took more passive roles.
3. In some groups, conflicts arose about issues involved in tower-building--what to name it, how big it should be, what the symbols represented. Elaborate decision processes sometimes emerged, including voting. Other groups had very little conflict, however.

By analyzing the events afterward, we could usually identify some factors that explained the degree of conflict in a group (e.g., two people vying for leadership).

4. There was some scapegoating. In one group the scapegoat took about all the negative feedback he could and then went for a hike in the woods. Another person crawled under a table when his ideas were consistently put down, and he stayed there until a strong member of his group incorporated his idea. He then rejoined the group t work on the idea, though he was never given credit for it. Another person was blamed for the partial collapse of a tower, even though the observer believed it was really the leader's fault that the tower fell.

5. Interaction rates (amount of talking, number of suggestions) varied greatly from one student to another. This finding verified a common small group research tenet and was extremely interesting to the students, especially when it was pointed out that people with high interaction rates also generally had the most influence over decisions, even if their ideas were not very good.

In the debriefing session the observers sat in a circle in the center of the room and discussed with each other what they had seen, while the students listened and gradually joined the conversation as they gained insight into their group's activities. (The debriefing group is called a "fishbowl.") There was much discussion with many concrete examples that fit the observers' conclusions and many insights about group behavior. In addition, there were some fairly sharp disagreements. The conclusions about leadership patterns and scapegoating brought almost universal denials from group members. There was very strong sentiment among the students in favor of cooperative behavior, and they vigorously attacked the observers for projecting such noncooperative behavior onto the group. The observers remained convinced, however, that in most cases their conclusions were correct. ("I calls 'em as I sees 'em," shrugged one observer.) An interesting, highly emotional conversation ensued.

But there was a second stage in the activity. After the towers were built, the teams were asked to vote on the best tower. Each team had 13 points that it could distribute any way it pleased, including giving all 13 points to itself. When they voted, four of the five groups gave the majority of their votes to themselves. Then they were asked to

appoint a spokesman to argue the case for their vote, and heated debates began over the merits of tall versus short towers, beautiful versus strong towers, towers with one theme versus those with another. Then a second vote was taken. This time three groups gave a large majority of their points to themselves; one group divided its points exactly evenly among all the towers, and one group refused to engage in "such a competitive enterprise" (although they had voted for their own tower the first time). The group that had not voted for itself the first time gave all 13 points to itself in the second round--the only group to do so!

In the third stage of the activity, the towers were evaluated by judges who had been selected earlier, one from each group. Before the evaluation began, the judges were paraded before the entire class. The class was asked to fill out an adjective checklist about the qualifications of the judges as surmised merely from their appearance. Generally the adjectives checked by all groups were "fair," "impartial," "wise," "consistent," and the like, despite the fact that there were no logical grounds for rating the judges at all. Then came the crunch: the students were asked to rate the judges again after the winning tower was announced. The members of the winning team still rated the judges high, but the losers suddenly changed their adjectives to "biased," "stupid," "blind," and "unfair." (In one case, with a different group of students, when the judges refused to name a winning tower--"all towers to the people"--the second-round rating remained high.)

The kinds of issues that came out in the debriefing session were not surprising. The cooperative ethic voiced earlier by the students was still articulated, but the hard voting facts on the blackboard eventually forced the conclusion that most of the groups had been very competitive. This debriefing session was a gold mine of issues for discussion of intergroup competition, group ethnocentrism, rationalization processes that allow groups to favor their own project at the expense of others, and the process of internal rank-closing when a group is faced with outside competition.

In addition to the tower-building exercise, there were many other small group activities used in our course, including a "campus revolt"

simulation that took three hours and ended with a confrontation between "police" and "radicals"; a communication game with videotaped interaction that was deliberately hindered by restrictive rules; and a group decision-making game called "Lost on the Moon" (see Hall, 1971). After each set of topics, lectures were used to tie many points together and to bring in the sociological research on the particular topic.

Films and other media. One member of the staff searched for films, video-tapes, and plays tha would dovetail with the purposes of the course. The films were available from city, county, and university film libraries; the tapes were off-the-air recordings of current programs relating to the topic areas. In addition, there were often films or plays on campus or in nearby communities which we assigned, suggested, or used for group activities. For example, while we studied the topic of "total institutions" the entire class went to see Ken Kesey's play "One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest," a portrayal of life in a mental institution. We found that most of these media-oriented activities could be carried out at minimal cost, but they required a lot of advance planning, and media supplements continually had to be advertised to the class. Many of these activities were done during class time, but the majority were done by small teams or informal groups

Lectures and readings. We did not hesitate to use traditional modes of instruction, if and when they were appropriate. Lectures were used infrequently, but they served as valuable tools of summation, for focusing on ideas that emerged from simulation games, and for bringing research to bear on affective experiences. We prepared a number of overhead projection transparencies to accompany the lectures, and generally the lectures were well received. In fact, we had the unusual experience of having students ask for more lectures when they felt the elements of the course needed more tying together. We also prepared a reading list to provide a cognitive framework for experiences.

Using the techniques together. No one method dominated the course. The pattern followed was generally: (a) introduction of the topic area, including a handout outlining major concepts, goals, and readings;

(b) three or four simulation games or role plays appropriate to the topic; (c) thorough debriefings of the exercises; (d) one field experience carried out by individual teams; (e) one or more films, videotapes, or plays; and (f) a summation of major concepts with a lecture, group discussions using a summary handout, or a quasi-lecture with extensive use of overhead projection transparencies. Usually the course ran on a schedule that the staff planned, but often the class (usually working through the small experience teams) decided to do something different. In that case those who wanted a change worked with the staff to plan alternate topics. This rather elaborate mixture of activities as opposed to the use of any one technique by itself, was the key to the course.

Evaluation procedures. In an experiential course, how can a teacher be sure what the students know? How many units of credit are given? How are students graded? What kinds of papers do they write? Do they take tests?

As previously discussed, the experiential approach is based on goals that require student self-motivation, peer learning, and self-assessment; thus, in many respects it is useless to impose the normal set of evaluation procedures. But since experiential learning has at best a toehold in otherwise traditional education systems, traditional rules and regulations must be dealt with. Let us describe how we resolved this conflict at Stanford, and then suggest some other compromises that could be made with a traditional system. Our evaluation system was as follows:

1. The course was offered for a grade of Pass or No Credit, an option that Stanford affords most courses at the instructor's discretion. No letter grades were offered. If a student actively participated in the classes and conscientiously kept the journal mentioned next, he passed.
2. An "experience journal" was required from each student; a handout describing the journal to students appears in Appendix D. We considered this journal extremely important, for it played a key role in the reflection-and-analysis phase of the experiential cycle.

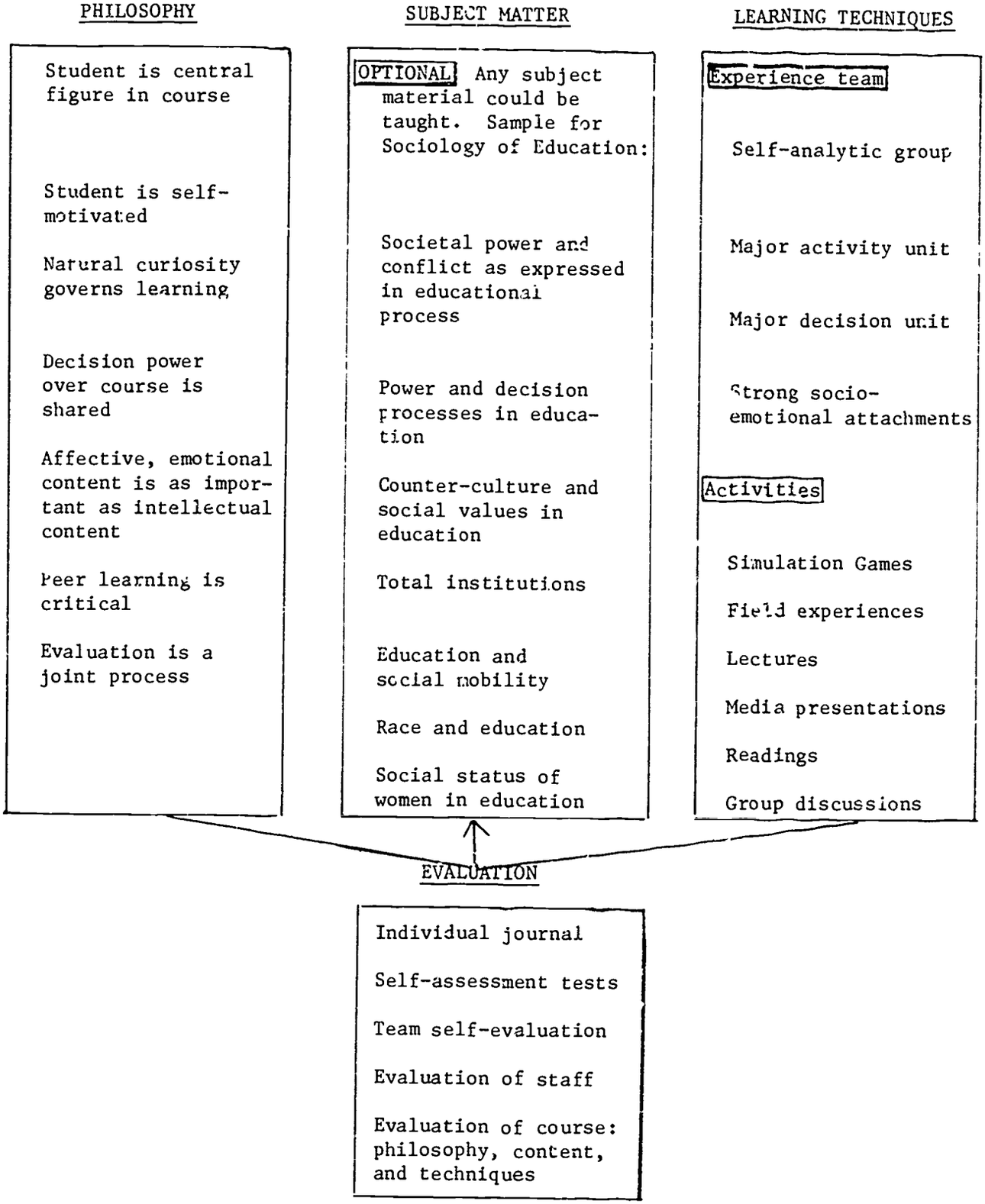
3. Each team evaluated its own processes, using a group self-evaluation form as its guide (see Appendix A).
4. Several opportunities were given for formal evaluation of the staff and the course itself by the students. Evaluation forms were used, but more spontaneous reactions were also encouraged. From these evaluations the staff learned about their own behavior as well as that of the students.
5. Formal tests were not given. However, some purely self-diagnostic tests were prepared for individuals to gauge their mastery of concepts and research by.
6. No papers were required aside from the journal.

While these were the evaluation strategies that we preferred to use in our course, there are certainly a wide variety of other approaches that might be used. In some situations the faculty member will not have as much freedom to introduce new grading and evaluation procedures as we had, either because of the institution's regulations or because classes are so large that the processes outlined above would be impractical. In that case all kinds of modifications could be engineered. For example, the self-assessment tests could be converted into graded tests; the experience teams could rate their own activities and each other; each individual could offer a self-evaluation; and the journal could be offered as evidence of work completed. Of course, grading the students would in many ways undermine the philosophy articulated earlier; however, if out of necessity or conviction a professor wanted to give grades in the normal fashion, the structure of an experiential course would not prevent it. But regardless of modifications, several elements of the evaluation do seem critical in an experiential course: (a) heavy involvement of the student in his own evaluation, (b) a substantial amount of peer evaluation, and (c) student evaluation of the instructor and the course itself.

Some Practical Tips for Experiential Courses

Figure 3 summarizes the material covered in the first three parts of this paper: the experiential philosophy of learning, the social science content to be learned, and the battery of instructional techniques.

FIG. 3. THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH: BASIC ELEMENTS



This last section offers a few practical suggestions that have emerged from our experience with this type of course.

It is not easy to run an experiential course; all the odds seem stacked against it. We have few role models to pattern ourselves after, since our personal experience has almost universally been in traditional directive courses. At most college-level institutions the grading system, time schedule, academic calendar, and even the physical plant tend to sabotage experiential courses. The students themselves often present difficulties because they are used to an externally defined curriculum, and they simply cannot handle the experiential approach without discarding many of their habits. The traditional professor-oriented style of teaching undercuts the group approach to learning. Such a set of barriers is impressive, but not insurmountable, expecially in view of the benefits to be derived.

For the sake of dicussion, let us assume that we must work under adverse circumstances: a large class, very few teaching assistants, strict schedules, mandatory grades, and formal testing procedures. A major task for anyone interested in the approach is to try to get some of the conditions changed, but, in the meantime, the experiential approach might be used even in a hostile environment. The following suggestions are made with such a situation in mind.

Start Slowly

If you want to begin teaching with the experiential approach, nothing is surer to bring failure than premature, half-planned efforts. Unquestionably, it will be difficult to work such an approach into the typical college setting, so begin by thinking about this approach, reading about it, discussing it with friends, and gathering materials (see the list of resources in Appendix A). Form experience teams in your regular class, using them at first for discussion groups and field experiences. It is probably easier, at first, to introduce a few well-planned field experiences than to try simulation games or role playing. Then, choose a few simulation games or role plays and try them out informally at your home with a small group of students. Plan for a year hence to convert to the

full experiential model, and in the meantime integrate activities into your classes. Practice and planning will probably get better results in the long run than any hasty attempt to force an abrupt change. By introducing the experiential approach slowly, you will gain skills, develop interest among students who can help develop the approach further, and gradually assemble a backlog of useful activities that have been tested over time. In many cases, you will find professors and students who have backgrounds in experiential exercises. Use them as much as possible.

Form a Cadre of Interested People

Peer learning is critical to the experiential learning approach, as much for the professor as for the students. As we gradually introduced experiential procedures into our Stanford courses, more and more students and faculty became interested in the idea. Finally, at the end of one course, a group of graduate students proposed that we hold informal seminars on the experiential approach for a few months. Out of those sessions the full course emerged.

If no graduate students are available to form the staff for an experiential course, upperclassmen and/or additional professors can easily be used instead. Perhaps students majoring in the discipline can be recruited to help in exchange for credit in seminar or fieldwork. Whatever the arrangement, there must be an enthusiastic cadre of committed people who can support each other and share the work of directing the course. One professor we know teaches a one-quarter course on the experiential method, and then uses that class as his teaching staff for a large sociology course during the next two quarters. Each year we incorporate several students into our staff during the course and they help plan and direct activities. Many of them continue as volunteer staff for subsequent years.

Try a Weekend Retreat

After you have introduced experience teams into your regular classes for field activities, assemble a small group interested in testing a few

simulation exercises informally. Then work with this planning group to engineer a weekend retreat for the class. Make it optional, and do not be disappointed if only a dozen students take the opportunity to go; in fact, it is wise to start with a small group. Plan opportunities to get acquainted, plenty of free time, and a few simulation or role-playing exercises. Have structure but don't be too worried about filling up every minute with planned activities. You will probably find your students amazingly adaptable, especially if you can locate a comfortable natural surrounding for them away from school (a Boy Scout camp, YMCA camp, church camp, or the like). If the retreat goes well, then gradually expand the class activities. If not, then practice more with small-scale informal activities.

Find Enough Time and Space

After you have jumped all these hurdles to develop a total experiential course, the next barriers will be scheduling time for class activities and finding space for class meetings. Most simulation games take at least an hour. With debriefing the time requirement may increase to two hours. In our classes we schedule one three-hour block each week for the entire group, during which we run most of the exercises and present media and lectures. We also set aside a two-hour block for each experience team. In addition, the staff meets for planning and evaluation. For a meeting space you need a large room, preferably with flexible furniture, such as a lounge, a commons, or perhaps even a huge living room in someone's home. Of course, if such space is not available, compromises with the traditional classroom are possible.

Some time and space adjustments similar to those above seem necessary for a successful experiential course. Unfortunately, most courses are locked in by the tradition of 50-minute classes three times a week, or something similar. The best strategy would be to break that mold completely, scheduling the class for one three hour block and one two hour block. Alternatively, the class could meet for two 50-minute periods and one long laboratory session. Fortunately, physical science courses have set the precedent for long lab sessions. Social scientists will

find that they can easily set up lab sections if they think far enough in advance to get them on the calendar. In any event, the specific arrangements can be adapted, but the fundamental requirement is for at least one large block of time when simulations, films, and other activities can be done. As an absolute last resort the professor can select only very short activities, squeezing them into the traditional 50-minute period, but this option is not very attractive. Perhaps such short activities could be used during a year of practice and experimentation, with an eye to rescheduling if the experiential approach is deemed successful.

Provide a Flexible Structure

Some experimental courses are entirely "nondirected." Although that approach is useful for some purposes, such as therapeutic or counseling groups, it is not useful in this kind of experiential course, which requires very careful pre-planning. We prepare a schedule of topics, a set of activities, a list of readings, and a variety of media events prior to the beginning of the course, although changes and further planning continue throughout the course. Our approach never claims to be totally open-ended and nondirective. This point should be made clear at the beginning so that unnecessary student frustration or misunderstanding does not occur. We see experiential learning in a semi-structured setting; without a framework such activities are likely to be aimless and fragmented.

Within our structure, however, we attempt to be flexible--to leave room for negotiation, to foster experimentation with goals other than the ones we have tentatively set, and to encourage alternative methods of reaching goals. The topics to be studied in the course are announced at the first meeting, and negotiations begin at once, with alternative topics to be explored. We do insist that anyone who suggests alternate topics be committed to carry out the planning for his or her own suggestion by mobilizing an interested group of students to work with the staff. Students who wish change are invited to help plan the change; they cannot simply complain and shift all the responsibility for

alternative action onto the staff. This rule, incidentally, eliminates the petty complaints that may result when students are allowed to criticize a course at random, without consequences for their own involvement.

Clarify Goals

Much time should be spent with the class discussing the type of course being offered--its philosophy, its content, and its technique. Students probably will want a description (perhaps such as this article provides) outlining various facets of the course and clarifying what they should expect. It is especially important to go over the experiential cycle with them shown in Figure 2, p.12. Students often ask why they are being assigned readings as in a directive course, why they must listen to lectures, analyze their field experiences, or keep a journal. By referring back to the experiential cycle you can clear up misconceptions about course goals and show how various kinds of activities contribute to the experiential cycle.

For example, in the first days of an experiential course, you are very likely to have a student who argues that "gut" experience is enough and that all the rest of that "analytic nonsense" is out of place in an experiential course. The response to such a complaint is that gut experience alone is incomplete; the experiential cycle includes other types of activity as well. With constant reiteration of the holistic philosophy that includes both affective and intellectual content, many misconceptions can be avoided. Finally, the fact that the course is not entirely nondirective is a point to get across early in the game, for otherwise there is a serious danger of moving toward a large-scale encounter group in which goals are vague and intellectual content is carelessly tossed aside.

Understand the Professor's Role

In the experiential model the professor's role is quite different from that in the directive model. Most important, he becomes the manager of the staff, coordinating the planning, gathering resources, guiding the staff, and providing facilities and services. If the staff is highly

committed, they will assume much of the work for planning; however, there is still a real need for the professor to serve as an expert information source and to plan and maintain the conceptual framework which ties the various activities and topics together in an experiential model.

The professor in an experiential course becomes, to a great extent, a facilitator behind the scenes, playing a much less obvious role in the classroom. He does not lecture as often, and he shares other responsibilities with his staff. Of course, the extent to which the professor can stay in the background depends on the capabilities of his staff. Whatever the conditions, the professor should promote peer coordination and student self-direction. This does not mean that he withdraws into a totally laissez-faire role, but it does mean that he provides many more options than are normally available for student participation.

The professor's reign over his class is sometimes undermined in a truly experiential course, and often he may feel with some justification that things are not going exactly the way he wishes they would. But the whole notion of experiential teaching depends on a diffusion of power and decision making. The students and staff will want to change activities in which the professor has much ego-involvement or expertise. In this case, no doubt discussions will be loud and long, but in an experiential course "pulling rank" sabotages the course. It may well be that something is drastically wrong if everything is going well and there is no conflict between the professor, staff, and students. Learning to live with anxiety and subduing one's desire to interfere is a natural part of the experiential approach, particularly if one has a high quality group of students and staff who force an instructor to live his philosophy as well as talk about it.

Expect the Revolution

Normally students in this kind of course go through various stages in their attitudes toward the course and the staff. Many leaders of experiential courses remark that there is an initial "testing period" in which students try to find out just how far they can go in upsetting the goals of the course as originally outlined by the staff. Often

this stage lasts only a few days or weeks until the course goals are clarified, the techniques to be used are defined, and good faith is demonstrated. Later there is likely to be a serious period of disillusionment when students and staff find that the course does not live up to their individual expectations. This "expectation gap" constantly plagues experiential approaches to education, for students are usually so sick of standard classroom rituals that the prospect of a new approach raises their hopes much too high. And they still expect you to do something to them, not realizing that the success of the course and what they learn depends largely on themselves. The experiential approach is exciting and new, to be sure, but it is not a panacea for all the problems in education. When the expectations of the students are not met, there is likely to emerge an incipient "revolution" in which students make a point of doing things their own way, rejecting the staff's leadership, and insisting that the staff's requirements are unrealistic.

Three things should be said about this revolution. First, it is almost inevitable. Everyone associated with this kind of course usually reports such an upheaval as expectations are not met and as the students mature to the point of really wanting to redirect the course. Second, in many ways it is a healthy sign, for it brings expectations into question and shows that the principles of student self-responsibility and shared decision-making are indeed working. Third, even though it is to be expected, and even though it shows maturing self-consciousness on the student's part, the revolution should not be dismissed by the staff as a minor event. It is a testing time for students to determine how authentic the course intention is. In addition, students may have serious grievances that deserve attention at this point: the activities planned by the staff may not be meeting the students' needs, the staff may not be letting students redirect the activities as initially promised; or the staff may be overly directive or patronizing. Whatever issues arise during the revolution should be seriously explored. It will probably be a very positive experience, making the course stronger and more responsive to student needs and self-determination.

Tips on Simulation Games and Field Experiences

As a final word of practical advice, let us make a few brief, concrete suggestions about running simulation games, field experiences and other experiential activities:

1. Gather and prepare your materials well in advance. If necessary, write for materials long before the course begins.
2. Practice! Always practice an action experience and debriefing with an informal group before trying it out with a class.
3. Let the person in charge of the simulation game run it. It is almost impossible to run an activity with other people telling you in front of the class that it should be done differently. Staff members are especially likely to meddle in this way. Constant feedback is necessary; but constant harrassment in the middle of an activity is counter-productive.
4. Always have some observers who are not actually involved in the exercise itself; they can later offer invaluable insights about behavior that were missed because people were too tied up in the action of the exercise.
5. Always stop an activity when it is dead. Sometimes the best-laid plans flop. When they do, stop, and do something else. Be alert to a simulation game that is dull, and kill it quickly.
6. Leave plenty of time for debriefing and discussion; they are at least as critical as the simulation itself. Do not hesitate to draw out points you believe are important if the group fails to mention them. Never be seduced into believing that the action speaks for itself: it may, but it speaks in many different tongues and needs shared interpretation.
7. Always leave plenty of staff planning time to evaluate the previous activities. Learn as much as possible from past mistakes. (We always had one staff hour set aside solely for this purpose, which students could also attend if they wished.) This kind of constant evaluation encouraged us to make better choices when planning for new activities.
8. Be alert to some students trying to "psych out" exercises and sabotage the results by doing the opposite of what the game is intended to bring out. This tendency is more likely when students become used to experiential techniques, when they become "game savvy." When this happened, we talked about the need for honesty in reacting to situations in a way they really thought they would in "the real world."

Summary

As we see it, the experiential approach involves four interrelated factors. First, there is an educational philosophy, which stresses student self-motivation, peer learning, affective content coupled with intellectual content, and shared decision making. Second, there is a body of serious social science content, just as in any other course. Third, there is a complex battery of instructional techniques including experience teams, field activities, experiential exercises, readings, lectures, and other media. Finally, we have offered a set of practical suggestions, derived from our experience, for running an experiential course.

If you think the experiential approach is worth trying, then begin looking over the bibliography, gathering materials, and recruiting some fellow believers. Then plunge into a new, exciting experience.

APPENDIX A: RESOURCES FOR EXPERIENTIAL ACTIVITIES

This list contains a variety of sources for initial investigations into simulation gaming and experiential approaches. Each item also contains its own bibliography, which may list additional useful sources.

American Behavioral Scientist, 12 (1969). (A special issue on social simulations.)

Hall, Jay. "Decisions, Decisions, Decisions." Psychology Today, November 1971, pp. 6-19.

Kidder, Steve J. "Simulation Games: Practical References, Potential Use, and Selected Bibliography." Report No. 112. Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University. (A significant source on simulation games.)

Long, Norton. "The Community as an Ecology of Games." American Journal of Sociology, 64 (1958), 251-56. (A now classic essay, republished a number of times, conceptualizing community systems as games with players who pursue their own games and interact with players of other games.)

Occasional Newsletter about Simulations and Games. R. Garry Shirts, Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1150 Silverado, La Jolla, California 92037. (Good source on what is happening with people and projects, and with the latest books and articles in the whole field of gaming.)

Pfeiffer, J. William, and John E. Jones. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. 3 vols. Available from University Associates, Box 615, Iowa City, Iowa 52240; $3.00 per volume. (An excellent source for role plays and relatively unstructured simulation games. Don't be fooled by the unsophisticated format of the books; they have excellent material in them.)

Raser, John. Simulation and Society: An Exploration of Scientific Gaming. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969. (In paperback, with extensive bibliography. This is a good basic introduction to gaming.)

Simulation and Games: An International Journal of Theory, Design, and Research, 1 (1970). Sage Publications, Inc., 275 S. Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, California 90212, four issues per year; institutional rate $15, professionals and teachers $10.

Simulation/Gaming/News. Available from Simulation/Gaming/News. Box 8899, Stanford, California 94305.

Thornton, Barbara. Gaming Techniques for City Planning: A Bibliography Exchange Bibliography No. 181. March 1971. Available from Council of Planning Librarians, P. O. Box 229, Monticello, Illinois 61856; $1.50.

"Urban Simulation Games," a regular section in The Urban and Social Change Review. Available from the Institute of Human Sciences, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts 02167. (Includes review of books and games.)

Wight, Albert R. "Participative Education and the Inevitable Revolution," Journal of Creative Behavior, 4 (1970), 234-82. (An excellent discussion of the philosophy of experiential education.)

Wight, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Pts. 1-4. Washington, D. C.: Office of Training Support, Peace Corps.

Zuckerman, David and Robert Horn, eds. The Guide to Simulation Games for Education and Training. Available from Information Resources, Inc. 1675 Massachusetts Ave., Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138. (One of the most complete catalogs of available games and simulations.)

APPENDIX B: GROUP SELF-EVALUATION FORM

Group formation.

What attractions toward each other and mutual interests did the group members discover?

What were the problems in forming the group?

How did the group get organized for work?

Sociometric analysis.

Identify the task leader. Was there more than one? If so, how would you identify the task leaders?

Who was the socio-emotional leader?

Were there social isolates and low contributors?

Who worked closely with whom? Draw a chart showing all group members and place them in subgroups depending on how they liked each other and how closely they worked together. This kind of chart is known as a sociometric diagram.

After answering these questions individually, discuss the questions with your whole group.

Decision making.

How did the group make decisions? Democratically? As a result of domination by a subgroup or by strong leaders?

Discuss some concrete question that provoked discussion and indicate how it was decided.

Group conflicts.

Identify conflicts within the group. How did the group handle them?

Were there ill feelings between individuals? How were they handled?

Did your group ever face external conflicts with other groups, the staff, or the public?

Were there major splits in your group? How did subgroups interact?

Influence on individuals.

Is there any outstanding case of the group's influence on a particular individual? Describe and discuss.

Task definition.

Were there major instances in which the group had difficulty defining or performing its task? Describe and comment.

Death of group.

Were there drop-outs from the group? Why? How did the group feel about this?

Were new people recruited?

Group continuance.

Do you think your group will sustain its relationships? Why or why not?

Individual roles.

Using the attached rating sheet, have every member rate every other member. Then discuss the ratings as a group.

APPENDIX C: GUIDE FOR OBSERVING A DECISION-MAKING GROUP (A SAMPLE FIELD ACTIVITY)

Purposes.

To observe ongoing groups with decision responsibilities.

To understand the influence roles played by different people in the group.

To see the ties that such decision groups have to external responsibilities and to external interest groups.

The Activity.

Select some accessible decision group that is working on a controversial issue. It is important that such a group have actual decision power for some public body or organization.

Possibilities:

A school board discussing integration problems, social studies controversies, or some other issue.
A city council (e.g. Berkeley) that usually has interesting meetings.
The Stanford University Faculty Senate or Senate of the Associated Students on a date when a known controversial issue is to be discussed.
Special interest group meetings or political caucuses in surrounding communities.

The Observation.

The following points should be discussed in a post-observation session of your experience team, and the outcome of that discussion should be briefly written up in your experience journal.

Have one person (or more) in your group do a crude interaction analysis by simply listing all those present for the discussion and then counting the complete thoughts or comments offered by each member of the decision-making group.

Does it seem that some members of this group are more liberal or conservative than others? What evidence would you use to back up your designation of such people? Does the entire group tend to lean in one direction or another?

Does the group have an outside authority participating? (For example, does a city council meeting include the mayor? Does the

university senate include the president?) Does this person tend to exert disproportionate influence? Does he interact with the others?

Do there seem to be people in the group who are representing outside interest groups? If so, what organizations or interests do they represent? How does their presence seem to affect the group?

Does the group seem to go through phases in its decision processes? (Does it have conflict that is then resolved by bargaining or cooperation that turns into conflict?)

How does the group interact with the people who come to the meeting, if the latter are permitted to make statements? Does the decision group seem responsive to the interests of the public?

What observations can you make about the decision-making process of such a group?

APPENDIX D: GUIDE FOR AN EXPERIENCE JOURNAL

The journal is designed primarily as a record of your individual experience in this course. As such it can contain articles, graffiti, diary entries, short quotes or comments, and exclamations of outrage when appropriate. However, we suggest that the following material be included at least:

Introductory material for course (as handed out in the first-meeting package).

Group Self-Evaluation.

A list of all group members with their addresses and phone numbers.

A group self-evaluation write-up.

Notes on group activities and personal observations of group processes taken throughout the course. (See questions to consider in evaluating your group on Group Self-Evaluation form).

Retreat.

All the materials used on the retreat.

Personal reactions to any or all of the activities held during the retreat. (See suggested questions you might ask of yourself below.)*

Topic Sections.

Materials and reports pertaining to each section.

Discussion of field activities and class activities in each section. (See suggested questions you might ask of yourself below.)*

Evaluation.

Individual statement of critical points you have learned in terms of cognitive information, concepts, group processes, and self information.*

Evaluation of staff.*

Evaluation of entire course.*

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*You will receive various forms throughout the course which will ask information relating to these inclusions. (See p. 38.)

In your critiques of any or all films, games, exercises, and fieldwork as they relate to insights you might have into power and conflict, social change, and education, we suggest that you bear in mind the following questions:

What do you perceive as the issues in the power conflict?

Who has the power?

How is the power displayed and maintained? What resources are controlled?

What roles are changing? How?

What tactics are used to effect change?

Is there a social movement? Why or why not?

Is there a movement effective in producing demonstrable change?

Are there any alliances formed? For what purposes? What is the bargaining issue?

Do you envision alternative tactics or power bases that might be more effective?

What insights into these issues are applicable to education?

What specific changes would you make in response to these insights (e.g. in curriculum, methodology, educational structure and roles, and political relationships)?