Techniques employed in a "Joint University-Community Urban Problem-Solving Course" in promoting discussion among two diverse sets of population are described in this handbook. The course, offered during the Fall 1971 and Spring 1972 semesters at Syracuse University, comprised approximately 30 undergraduates from the university and 30 members of the Greater Syracuse community. The program was conducted with a two-hour meeting once a week, each meeting being devoted to one of the public policy issues of the program: education, housing, unemployment, and police-community relations. One or more role-playing exercises or structured simulation exercises were conducted for each issue. In each class session, the staff explained the game, and asked class members to take certain roles. Following each exercise, a full-group discussion was conducted on the issues presented, pro and con arguments, the quality of role playing, problems presented, and how close the exercises were to the actual situations. In some instances, the role playing was video-taped and played back to the class for critique and analysis. This follow-up was considered important in determining what participants learned during the game sessions. During the sessions on each topic, some time was usually devoted to a presentation by a local authority on the topic. Class presentations were made before community groups on nine occasions. Appendixes present two examples of exercises employed in the program. Samples of the communications form, war form, and petition form are provided. (DB)
INTRODUCTION

University College, the continuing education division of Syracuse University, has a long history of program development in the general field of public affairs—community issues—people problems. In past years, this concern was strengthened and made feasible by support from the Ford Foundation's Fund for Adult Education and several federal government agencies. More recently, the College has been encouraged to experiment in this area by grants from the New York State Department of Education. These have been made possible through Title I of the Federal Higher Education Act.

The program described in this handbook is the latest in a series of continuing education experiments generally devoted to exploring "issues that divide the American people." Previous programs were concerned with racism, conflict in schools, generational gaps, international conflict and dissent in our society. The current program was more complicated in form and method, and probably too ambitious in purpose. It is our hope that the report of this experience, its good and poor features, will prove useful to others who might be interested in developing educational programs involving college students and community adults in analyzing public problems. The current interest in such efforts on college campuses should make this report relevant for many educators and school administrators.

The material for the report was assembled by Syracuse University Professor William Coplin and his Graduate Assistant, Larry Cohen. The handbook was edited by Richard Case, a reporter on the staff of the Syracuse Herald-Journal newspaper. Further information on the project may be obtained from L. L. Smith, Assistant Dean, University College, 110 Roney Lane, Syracuse, New York 13210.
"Joint University-Community Urban Problem-Solving Course" was offered during the Fall 1971 and Spring 1972 semesters through the combined efforts of the Syracuse University Department of Political Science and the Continuing Education Center for the Public Service. It was made possible by a grant of Title I funds, Federal Higher Education Act.

The course comprised approximately 30 undergraduates from Syracuse University and 30 members of the Greater Syracuse community, individuals who represented, as much as possible, a broad spectrum of socio-economic life in Syracuse. Each week participants met for two hours at the Continuing Education Center under the direction of Professors William Coplin and Linda O'Leary. They discussed key problems of the urban environment—police-community relations, public education, housing, and employment—which were identified as the most important to inner-city residents by the President's National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.

The course's main purpose was to facilitate discussion of urban problems between and among members of the Syracuse community and University students.

This handbook proposes to provide information on the kinds of techniques employed in the course. These techniques are applicable to discussion groups in general but they have a special utility in promoting discussion among two diverse sets of population, especially community people and college students.

Three general areas should be considered when studying this technique:

1. Problems of generating useful discussion among community people and undergraduates;

2. Problems of setting up situations in which one can get the two groups together and use the techniques;

3. How the kinds of techniques used in the course deal with those problems, including a discussion of the nature of the specific techniques.
Role-playing probably has gotten a bad name. We are encouraged to BE OURSELVES. When we aren’t—or don’t seem to be—warnings fail. Social critics, for example, take great delight in scolding sophisticated college students for wearing construction boots and bib overalls and making themselves out to be “the people.” The social climber is a role-player. So is the politician, who eats kosher hot dogs in one voting district and opens his shirt in another.

But there is, obviously, a difference between masking and empathy. For understanding, the American Indian taught his children to “walk in the older man’s moccasins.” Recently, an academic system of role-playing has evolved
in which participants are encouraged to step into another's psyche for a time—if they can—in an effort to move toward appreciation of a point of view different from your own.

This was the goal of a program initiated by Syracuse University's Continuing Education Center for the Public Service in 1971-72.

In this case, role-playing games were used to try to open up channels of discussion between two groups of differing goals and backgrounds: college students and adults from the Syracuse community.

Students were signed up through conventional University registration; community participants were actively recruited by staff of the Center. Encounters were staged within the framework of the student-teacher-class relationship.

Participants varied. They ranged from undergraduates with an interest in credit hours to leaders of community organizations who said they wanted to hone their communication skills.

There were several professional policemen among the students. All are seeking credits toward college degrees. Included was Thomas J. Sardino, the career law enforcement officer who is Syracuse's Chief of Police. As a result of credits earned in the program, Sardino was able to complete his work toward a bachelor's degree in Sociology. He joined graduates honored at the University's commencement exercises last June.

Tom Sardino probably fits everyone's visual stereotype of a "tough cop." He is bulky, usually stern, and much in uniform, his service revolver always at the hip. Yet there is something else going on inside the seemingly hard shell.

You would very likely place Syracuse's Chief on the liberal end of the scale of his fellow commanders, nationally. He is a compassionate man, a talker and a thinker, as well as a rugged professional who worked his way up to the department's top job from "pounding a beat."

Sardino saw the Center's urban study course as more than an opportunity to add hours to his credit portfolio. It gave him, he told a reporter recently, a chance to mix informally with students and community people to "demonstrate to the academic world and to others that police are people."

Police are people.

That is a major theme in the Chief's administrative style.

"One of our goals is to present an accurate picture of police to the college campus," the Chief explained, expanding on his initial enthusiasm for the type of course the Center had in mind.

"They usually see the police officer as a stereotype stupe. When we participate in a course like this, it gives us an opportunity to present our perspectives on social problems, from the police view, and to talk about the various restraints placed on us. I felt this course gave us a chance, at least in a limited way, to give students a different perspective on us. People should be helped to understand some of the things that encumber us, how far we can go, and what we can't do. You'd be surprised that some people think the police are responsible for court delays and setting bail. Well, we aren't."
Sardino’s style is to work in the open arena, when circumstances permit. He thinks his profession hasn’t, by custom, been open to public inspection as much as it should.

“It's important for us to explain ourselves more to everyone—students, housewives—everyone,” he continued. “We've played it too close to the chest. You have to co-mingle.”

So, the policeman who had faced college students and community organization leaders over demonstration lines “came to college” to confront them over ideas and issues.

“We realize that there will be a more sympathetic understanding of what we're trying to do if we take the time to sit down and explain to people, when we have the time,” the Chief explained.

The special course, with its emphasis on role-playing, filled this need, Sardino felt. It provided a forum for exchange of information, both in and out of the classroom.

“We talked during the coffee breaks, too,” the Chief recalled. “People would say to me ‘I didn’t know you had to do that.’ That part of the program was good, too.”

The Chief took several “roles” during the course, including his own, as a policeman. In the classroom, with its restraints, he faced some of the same flack he does on the street, or in the frequent sessions he and his staff have with community groups.

In one game, Sardino played the part of a school principal trying to sort out the problems of a student who faced expulsion. He presided over a mock hearing in which other students in the class took the roles of the pupil, his parents, and the teacher.

Looking back on his experiences at the Center, Sardino said he found them valuable for what he was able to gain himself—credit and understanding—as well as what he hopes he got across in community understanding of the role of police.

“After all,” he added, “that’s a big part of this job.”

The Chief, who strongly supports continuing education for his men, earned his bachelor’s degree after 18 years of part-time study, most of it through the University’s adult division. He is now working toward a master’s degree in adult education.

II

The staff of the Continuing Education Center moved against a number of interesting challenges in building this course. Obviously, there are problems in promoting meaningful discussions on urban problems between students and community people.

One is deciding on the proper format within which to meet.
Should both groups be treated as students? Where to meet? On whose turf? Should the undergraduates go to the community, or vice versa?

We also had to deal with differences in motivations. Students want grades and credit, as well as the experience of participating in what they consider, at least at the outset, to be a challenging course. They expect to do some research and written work in return for the credit. Community people, on the other hand, want information and skills that help them zero in on particular problems.

The matter of understanding must be grappled with. (This is aside from wide differences in basic intelligence found in any population sample.) Students are used to dealing with academic theories, even though they may not understand them and dislike trying to gain understanding. But, some teachers find a discussion of what might be called "nitty-gritty" matters turns them off, while this is exactly what attracts community leaders to such a program.

And how about convincing both groups that sitting down together will be worthwhile?

Professor William Coplin, who ran the course, put it this way:

"Students are afraid of community people because they understand urban problems; they live with the problems.

"Community people, on the other hand, are wary of students in the beginning because students represent youths who usually have more formal education than they do. When community people find out that the students are afraid of them, they try to intimidate the students."

Finally, it was decided to offer a three-credit course in which community participants would be given free tuition. For students, it was treated as a political science course. The course was for 12 to 15 weeks, covering four urban problem areas: police-community relations, public education, housing, and employment. Participants also put on game demonstrations in the community at meetings of various local groups.

Although this was the final strategy, other options are open. One might be to give one-credit courses to community people on selected topics. This would mean they would have to attend only three or four meetings. You could recruit for each "mini-course" in the community while using the same undergraduates who would take a three-credit course.

Another approach considered dealing directly with local organizations—P.T.A., school boards, church discussion groups, city agencies, citizen action or neighborhood associations. In this relationship, students would attend meetings as observers, then stage discussions. Credit could be offered.

III

In recruiting, the staff concerned itself mainly with finding adults in the Syracuse community who might want to earn college credit. At the outset, it seemed desirable to recruit adults who would represent a cross-section of the
population in two depressed areas of the city. This meant whites, blacks, and Puerto Ricans. The economic level would range from poor to lower middle class.

Two methods were considered. One would be to canvas neighborhoods and recruit people "off the street." Or, to approach appropriate existing agencies and organizations. The second seemed better, for several reasons.

For one thing, it was a way of informing the various groups of the existence of the program.

Secondly, by working through established groups, the staff felt individuals would be less likely to drop out of the program. This is a problem most urban projects involving members of poor economic groups have to wrestle with. It was felt, in this case, that people involved in community groups would have some commitment to their neighborhood and its problems and would be willing to invest the time required to complete such a course. They would be more likely to consistently participate than individuals randomly selected.

The first step was to contact an assistant for youth activities in the office of the Mayor of Syracuse. Six groups were suggested (Spanish Action League, Onondaga Hill Neighborhood Association, Burnet Park Neighborhood Association, P.E.A.C.E., Inc., Model Cities, and S.E.E.K.). They proved to be the primary source of participants for the two semesters.

Additional class members were recruited by private contact of the Center staff and Professor Coplin.

Finally, arrangements were made to have three policemen in the course each semester with the help of the Police Benevolent Association and individual officers.

Nineteen adults were recruited from the Syracuse community for the first semester of the program. Of this number, fourteen represented the "target population"—lower or lower-middle class individuals, generally from minority groups. The other five included three police officers, one of them Chief Sardino, and two members of the League of Women Voters.

Four out of five of these attended regularly and completed the program.

A slightly different task was tried for the second semester.

It was decided to open the class to a larger number of students, then to divide sessions between two faculty members. This presented the challenge of recruiting more individuals, however. Again, the same channels were used as during the first semester, with similar results. Lower echelon policemen were also asked to join the class because first semester participants asked for them; they said they were more interested in what the "cop on the beat" had to say than officers they felt had little day-to-day contact with the community.

IV

The program began with a two-hour meeting once a week during the Fall and Spring semesters. After orientation and other procedural matters were
out of the way, the pattern was to devote a meeting to one of the public policy issues of the program: education, housing, unemployment, and police-community relations. One or more role-playing exercises or structured simulation exercises were conducted for each. (See examples of these in appendix.)

In these sessions, staff explained the game, then asked class members to take certain roles. Following each exercise, they conducted a full group discussion of the issues presented, pro and con arguments, the quality of role-playing, problems presented and how close the "playing-acting" seemed to the actual situations. In some cases, role-playing was video-taped and played back to the class for critique and analysis.

Staff members felt that this follow-up was very important to the understanding of what participants learned during the game sessions.

During the sequence of sessions on each topic, there was usually some time devoted to a presentation by a local authority related to the topic. For example, a school official, public housing authority, labor union leader, or human rights specialist would analyze the local scene and discuss problems in his or her field. This served to strengthen the "reality" feeling of the program.

The program went beyond the classroom, too. At the outset, it was planned to "take the show on the road," so to speak— to present discussions before community groups—on at least eight separate occasions. In all, approximately 35 per cent of the staff and faculty time was consumed generating, developing, and carrying out community presentations. A late start, lack of interest by groups approached and suspicion of the University's involvement cut down the number of groups that actually requested the program. Nine were given, over two semesters.

Presentations were made to a P.T.A., industrial management training class, the Junior League, Syracuse University classes on urban planning and "Racism in America," the Optimist Club, the Council of Independent Parents Organizations, and two church groups.

The following is a brief description by the staff of how one of the sessions was conducted. The group involved is a suburban Syracuse P.T.A.

"P.T.A. members were divided into three groups of approximately twenty members each, along with five to six members of the Joint Community-University course. Since the topic of the evening was problems in urban education, each of the groups was given three role-playing exercises to act out and discuss. These included a racial disturbance in a school, an incident of two students fighting in a classroom, one white, one black, and the resulting discussion with the assistant principal, and a black student's dissatisfaction with the required curriculum in a school.

"The nature of the actual discussion varied between the three groups. One group got into a long and heated debate concerning the efficacy of busing to achieve integration. Another group discussed student rights and curriculum reform. The third group, less intense than the other two, stayed closely to the discussion format afforded by the role-playing exercises."
"Though we were originally allotted an hour and a half for our presentation, discussion continued for over two hours, and finally had to be terminated by the program staff because of the hour. Still, informal discussion between class members and the P.T.A. members continued for over three-quarters of an hour. The consensus of the P.T.A. members was that the evening had been quite instructive and valuable. The only criticisms were that the role-playing exercises were too general and somewhat unrealistic.

"Several criticisms developed from these presentations. The staff felt three were most significant:

1. The simulation exercises were too general and too contrived. More realistic, concrete situations were suggested.
2. Discussions were too broad and should have been more carefully directed.
3. There was not enough time to discuss the various issues as deeply and thoroughly as participants wished.

"One alternative might be to make an arrangement with an organization to meet regularly to discuss urban problems. Another approach involves deciding in advance to focus on a specific topic and developing an exercise with this in mind. Certain members of the class would be picked as leaders and prepared in advance with background information. It might also be useful to arrange for one or two more experts to be brought in for the communities' presentations."

In a pilot program such as this, the follow-up discussion of what happened—where the program succeeded and where it failed—is as important as the program itself.

The staff asked themselves and asked the participants. In addition to formal evaluations, questionnaires were distributed to students and community members.

Reactions covered a wide range.
"I obtained a greater understanding of the areas covered through role-playing," one student reported.
"Not so much an understanding of the various areas as an interaction with community people," another wrote.

A third student praised the opportunity to "break away from the sterile atmosphere of campus life. The presence of community people brought an element of reality to combine with our academic knowledge."

One community participant said the program revealed to him the need to "continue my education. This course made me feel that I have something to give people and people have something to give me."
"The course itself was strong to me," another said. "What I think were the weak points were too many charts and not enough real law enforcement facts."

The staff made the following comments on drop-outs:

"Of the fourteen target population individuals, two did not come after the first session. Both were members of P.E.A.C.E., Inc., a local community action agency, and they told us that they were forced to drop out because of the amount of work at their jobs. All three Puerto Rican students dropped out about half-way through the program. Although they also told us that they did not have enough time to come, we noticed during the semester that they were more conservative than the others in the class and their views were consistently repulsed by the other class members. Their opinions were especially contrary to those of the black members of the class who espoused a more liberal point of view. Our attempts to convince these people to rejoin the class were unsuccessful. The other target population individual who dropped out of the program told us that he did not feel he was making a positive contribution to the class and did not feel he deserved credit. He attended two sessions after he dropped out and then stopped attending altogether."

The following are a few selections from the staff report's overall assessment:

"In conjunction with some of the questions that were raised at the beginning of the report, we will now provide some overall evaluative comments on the course. We will include with these comments some recommendations for altering the structure of the course.

"First, if our general aim was to get community people and University students talking to each other about urban problems, the course was a qualified success. Nothing short of actual participation in the course would provide the vivid picture necessary to adequately describe the quality of interchange that characterized the classroom periods. For those who participated fully, there was an unusual opportunity to learn about the ideas and opinions of others.

"Second, if one takes as our general aim, making a significant impact on the urban community in Syracuse, the course was a qualified failure. Both our community presentations and our ability to hold on to those community people that first attended the course was poor. We ran into obstacles that we could not overcome in both areas. In retrospect, there is some reason to think that we may have underestimated the forces stacked against us. The record throughout the State on getting members of poverty levels of society to stick to college-entry programs ranges between 50 and 75% failure. In those terms we performed about the same as other programs.

"Third, there is a serious difficulty in bringing together students and community people. Students invariably did not want to get into the nitty-gritty of Syracuse and the community people did not want to hear academic theories. The simulation and other analytical exercises were of value in this respect because they combined the concreteness with the abstraction that pleased the
two groups to some extent. Nevertheless, this tension existed throughout the course.

"If we had to do the course all over again, we would suggest a radically different structure. We would attempt to bring the students together with the community people on the turf of the community people. This does not simply mean renting a room in the Model Cities area for the course. (In fact, we tried this, but we could not find a suitable location because of prior commitments and hesitation on letting the University use some of these locations. In addition, the simulation activities created certain constraints, including the need for audio-visual aids and videotaping facilities.)

"What we have in mind is one-credit mini-courses on particular subjects in which the community people participate as an extension of their normal roles. For example, a week-night meeting of a Model Cities group could receive one credit if they were willing to spend some time prior to or following each meeting discussing the problems with the students. This procedure would solve the problem of the time-squeeze most poverty-level people have and at the same time would provide excellent experience for the student. The difficulty with this procedure would be finding groups that would allow such outside intervention. However, the value of the college credit might be significant enough to produce results."
APPENDIX

The role-playing format, hopefully, moves members of the class from passive listeners to active participants. That is why it was used here.

This section includes two examples of exercises employed in the program. These were the more general type of exercises. The games played on more specific problem areas: employment, housing, education, police-community relations—data on these may be obtained from the Continuing Education Center for the Public Service, 110 Roney Lane, Syracuse, New York 13210.

THE PRINCE POLITICAL ACCOUNTING SYSTEM

Summary of Estimates to be Made:

Issue Position. How each actor feels about the issue-outcome under study. It ranges from +10 for strong support, through 0 for neutrality, to -10 for strong opposition.

Power. How much usable capability each actor has to effect the outcome. It ranges from 0 for no power to 10 for maximum power.

Salience. How important is the issue to the actor. How much of the actor's agenda is taken up with this issue. It ranges from 0 for no importance to 10 for maximum importance.

Friendship-Hostility. What is the general feeling which each actor has for each of the others. It ranges from +10 for strong friendship, through 0 for indifference, to -10 for strong hostility.

Dependence (Optional). To what extent does an actor receive money, political assistance, or other rewards from each of the other actors. It ranges from 0 for no dependence to 10 for maximum dependence.

Some Steps to Keep in Mind:

1. Of prime importance, be sure the issue you are dealing with is very specifically defined, and that all members of the group fully understand the definition. Remember that the issue must be defined in terms of an observable outcome which some people will want to have happen and others will want to prevent. It may turn out that in trying to define an issue-outcome you will discover that you are actually talking of several different possible outcomes. If this happens try to get agreement to analyze one of the issues and later cover others if there is time. Members may submit minority PRINCE reports if they wish.
2. After formulating an agreed-upon statement of the issue, engage in general group discussion to develop a preliminary, partial listing of the relevant actors. At this point keep the list of actors brief, probably no more than ten should be included. Make sure that all group members understand clearly who all of the actors are—they should be identified as clearly and specifically as the issues.

3. After the preliminary list of actors has been agreed upon, assign an actor to each member of the group. (Two members can deal with one actor, or one member may deal with two actors, depending upon the group size.) Take a few minutes while each group member works independently to estimate the actor's issue position, power, and salience on the issue, and also to estimate the relative friendship-hostility sent to each of the other actors and received from them. (Estimate dependence scores in the same way, if you deal with them.)

4. After this has been done, have the group member responsible give his estimates for the issue position, power, and salience of the first listed actor. Follow this with general discussion to develop group consensus on the estimates for that actor. Follow the same procedures for each actor.

5. After the issue position, power, and salience have been estimated, follow the same procedure for the hostility-friendship estimates and (if they are employed) the dependence estimates.

6. When the charts have been filled in, complete the issue-outcome calculations. Multiply issue position times power times salience for each actor. Add the resulting numbers, being careful to include the positive and negative numbers correctly.

7. If the resulting number is a large positive number the prediction is that your issue is likely to occur; if the number is a large negative number the issue is very unlikely to occur; if the number is close to zero, the prospect for the issue is fifty-fifty.

8. If you feel that the number you have achieved is unreasonable (either too positive or too negative) go over the charts again to see if you would revise your estimates. You should also consider whether you have left out one or two actors whose scores would make substantial differences in the predicted outcome.

Because the PRINCE Political Accounting System can be applied to any type of political problem, it serves as a basic framework through which students and community people can discuss their perceptions about the political factors surrounding urban problems. It can be learned in about twenty minutes so that the students can introduce it to community groups and still carry on a systematic discussion of the factors involved.

"The Good Society Exercise" described in this report was developed as an integral and vital component in a year-long experimental project entitled "Confrontations: Youth and Authorities—Constructive Solutions in Conflict Situations." The project was designed and administered by the Continuing Education Center for the Public Service, University College of Syracuse University. The Center serves as the major programming agency of Syracuse University in the fields of mid-career education and public service continuing education. This program was made possible by a grant of funds under provisions of Title I, Federal Higher Education Act of 1965.

The program, meeting eight weekends scheduled through the academic year, has been conducted by staff of the University's Institute for Community Psychology. Objectives of the project include:

1. Improve the understanding of specific teachers, policemen, guidance counselors or social workers regarding the bases or sources of conflict situations involving youth.

2. Improve the understanding and skills of this personnel regarding the resolving of specific and realistic conflict situations.

3. Provide actual practice in applying communications skills and the principles of human relations to resolving interpersonal and inter-group problems.

4. Extend the understandings and skills developed in the program to other audiences through the development of materials and methods to be used in police and teacher in-service training programs.
The simulation exercise described herein was designed as an early phase of the Confrontations project and proved most effective as a learning experience in practical politics and as a socializing instrument in this program of such diverse and basically antagonistic groups.

L. L. Smith
Assistant Dean

The purpose of this brief Report is to indicate the general nature and uses of a simulation exercise first developed for a project described on the preceding page and in conjunction with the Institute for Community Psychology of Syracuse University. A Participant's Manual has been enclosed to indicate the basic nature of the exercise.

The Good Society Exercise is designed to illustrate to participants and observers the complex interaction between social and psychological behaviors on the one hand and the problems confronting social organizations as far as questions of equality, justice, order and authority go. It is an extremely simple exercise involving little administrative effort and few extra physical facilities. At best, it requires seven small rooms, a typewriter, a ditto machine and two exercise administrators. Under less than optimal conditions, one or two large rooms could be used and verbal communications could be used in place of the need for a typewriter and ditto machine. A video taping and playback facility could be valuable in helping to achieve educational objectives, but is by no means necessary. Although 23 players is optimal, having six more or less would do no violence to the structure of the exercise.

The simulation exercise has been played by people of ages varying from teenagers to mature adults and educational backgrounds ranging from pre-high school diploma to post-graduate students. It is valuable in representing highly abstract concepts and theories regarding social interaction (communication, bargaining, etc.), political process (conflict between order and justice, freedom and equality, etc.) and interpersonal relations (within and between groups) in a relatively concrete format. It can serve, therefore, as a background setting for discussions of racial problems in urban society just as easily as the political theories of Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Eldridge Cleaver.

Given the broad usage to which the Good Society Exercise can be put, the key to its success rests in the prior specification by its users as to what they hope to achieve by its use and the effective use of the exercise after it has been run by relating it directly to the problems at hand. For social issue groups—whether in the normal classroom situation or in the less conventional discussion groups that might take place in an adult education operation—one would want to emphasize the problems of social communication in ambiguous environments, the underlying questions of conflicts of interest found both in the exercise and in society, and the mechanisms of social change. For con-
conventional groups dealing with various academic subjects, the nature of the
theory—be it organizational, social psychological or political (classical and/or
contemporary)—would define the issues that would emerge from the exercise.

The job of relating the simulation exercise, after it has been played, to the
real world or to the academic literature is by no means easy. Participants tend
to relive the exercise without achieving the analytical aloofness necessary to
make the transference. Others might fail to see the relevance at the con-
scious level although everything they say would indicate extreme relevance.
Given this difficulty, video-taping of some or all of the teams is advised.

In lieu of such equipment, or perhaps in addition to it, the simulation ad-
ministrator might appoint some observers to keep records and to report on
what has happened. Finally, a structured post-hoc discussion is advisable with
some kind of systematic and visual (blackboard) attempt to relate the happen-
ings of the game to the reference material.

In spite of possible difficulties, this exercise can be used with a high degree
of success if proper precautions are taken. The Participant's Manual is fairly
self-explanatory and the exercise can run from one to three or four hours de-
pending upon the Instructor's time constraints. It takes only about 15 min-
utes for the Participants to be briefed on the nature of the exercise (and that
includes reading time). Hence, the instructor need not make high administra-
tive investments. This will allow him the time and energy necessary to relate
the simulation experience to the educational objectives he is seeking, parti-
cularly, in structuring the post-hoc discussion of the game.

THE GOOD SOCIETY EXERCISE:
PARTICIPANT'S MANUAL

William D. Coplin
Steve Apter

CONTINUING EDUCATION CENTER FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE
SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
February 1972

You are about to participate in a society consisting of seven teams. Six of
the teams consist of two to five players each and are called Groups (A, B, C,
D, E, F). The other team consists of four to six players and is called the Cen-
tral Authority. The Groups and the Central Authority behave in the Good So-
ciety according to the following statement of principle:
This Society guarantees equal opportunity and equal rights to every member. It advocates the need for stability, change and justice. Inequality is as enslaving as much as disorder. Order and justice must prevail.

In spite of this statement of principle, however, the "goods" of the Good Society, as measured by Power Units, are not distributed equally. Moreover, the ability to make changes in the Good Society are not shared equally by the groups. The simulation exercise is designed to represent what happens in a society in which order and justice are its guidelines, yet the reality of the society runs counter to those guidelines.

Change in the Good Society

Power Weights (the units used to measure the wealth and influence of each team in the society) and Petition Weights (the weight of each team in the signing of a petition) are distributed in the following manner among the seven teams of the Good Society.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Team</th>
<th>Power Weights</th>
<th>Petition Weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Authority</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group E</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group F</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>206</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

Changes in the distribution of power units as well as any other facet of life in the Good Society can occur in two ways:

1. A Petition can be signed by the teams representing at least six Petition Weights which call for any specific change.

2. A War can be fought between any team in the society in which the more powerful size (the larger number of Power Weights) gets all but one of the losing side's power weights.

While there can be no more than 206 Power Weights for the entire Society, there can be an unlimited number of Petition Weights.

Maintaining Order in the Good Society

The maintenance of order in the Good Society is the responsibility of all of its members, though the Central Authority has a special role, given the large number of Power Units at its disposal. It can engage in war against members
that fail to live up to the principles of the Society and can attempt to get
Petitions signed. At the same time, it is up to the six Groups to make sure that
the Central Authority does not abuse its role. These Groups can sign Petitions
to limit the actions of the Central Authority, even to the point of redistribut-
ing their power.

SPECIFIC RULES AND PROCEDURES

The main ideas of the Exercise are contained above. However, certain pro-
cedures and rules must be followed.

1. Each Team will meet in assigned rooms. For Groups A through E, only
one team player can visit other rooms for purposes of discussion. Four
members of the Central Authority can visit other rooms for purposes of
discussion.

2. All decisions taken by the Groups must be unanimous decisions. All de-
cisions taken by the Central Authority must be supported by a majority
of its members.

3. In addition to personal discussions, communications can be sent through
messages or can be distributed as part of the Newsletter. The Communi-
cation Form should be used for both types of communications. The News-
letter will contain announcements by Groups and the Central Au-
thority as well as editorial statements by reporters. Also, the Newsletter
will officially announce the results of all Wars and Petitions.

4. Simulation control will distribute all communications and will answer
any questions you might have.

5. A Petition Form will be used for purposes of peaceful change. Any
Group of the Central Authority can start the Petition. Once enough sig-
natures of Teams to constitute six Petition Weights has been achieved,
the Petition should be submitted to Control. It goes into effect as soon
as Control officially announces the Petition through the Newsletter and
remains in effect until a different petition is completed to alter the original
one. No Petitions can go into effect between the first declaration of
War and the end of the War ten minutes later.

6. War occurs when one or more teams declares war against one or more
other teams. A War Form is submitted to the Simulation Control, who
will inform the other teams. The attacked team will have ten minutes to
counter-attack. More than one team can attack and more than one can
counter-attack. The side with the largest number of Power Units will
win the war and will get all but one of the other team's Power Units.
If more than two teams attack and win, the power units won will be dis-
tributed in accordance with the relative Power Units of the winning
teams. Any teams submitting a War Form may retrace it before the ten
minute time limit is up.
Familiarize Yourself with the Following Three Forms

Communications Form
Petition Form
War Form

COMMUNICATIONS FORM

Sender: Central Authority: Group A: B: C: D: E: F: (Circle One)
Receiver: Central Authority: Group A: B: C: D: E: F:
Circle everyone to receive the message.
A total Circle Means Publication in the Newsletter

Message:

Signature of Sending Team's Participants

WAR FORM

Attacker: Central Authority: Group A: B: C: D: E: F: (Circle One)
Target: Central Authority: Group A: B: C: D: E: F: Circle Target(s)

Signatures of Attacking Team

20 21
**PETITION FORM**

Originator: Central Authority: Group A: B: C: D: E: F:
(Circle One)

*Petition Statement:*

Signatures of Members of:

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<tr>
<td>Group F (1)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(All three for each group)
LIST OF READING MATERIALS PROVIDED TO PARTICIPANTS

Friedman, Milton. "Other Solutions: A Peek into the Poverty Toolbox."
Gwinn, Ralph W. "Public Housing—Disastrous Here and Abroad," Speech made on the floor of the House of Representatives (June 4, 1948).
Levitan, Sar A. "Conventional Programs to Combat Poverty."
Thurmond, Strom. "In Opposition to Public Housing," Speech made on the floor of the Senate (February 5, 1959).


SUGGESTED FURTHER READING


Urban America Inc., The Ill-Housed, Paperback available at S.U. Bookstore.
