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A STUDY OF THE SHIFTS IN BEGINNING NURSING STUDENTS'
AWARENESS OF VALUES IN THE PRESENCE OF VERBAL
AND WRITTEN CLARIFYING RESPONSES

by

Lynn Gail Field

B.Sc.N., University of British Columbia, 1973

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTERS OF ARTS (EDUCATION)

in the Faculty

of

Education

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the shift in beginning nursing students' awareness of values following participation in a value clarifying program which used verbal and written clarifying responses suggested in Raths' Value Theory.

Fourteen beginning nursing students volunteered to participate in the study. They met with the investigator in Professional Behaviour seminars for ten, 50 minute sessions over sixteen weeks. During this time, the investigator responded to student statements with verbal clarifying responses. The students also submitted weekly value journals in which they described a value related situation and answered value related questions in relation to it. The investigator wrote clarifying responses in these value journals each week and returned them to the students.

The student value journals formed the body of qualitative data which was assessed to identify shifts in awareness of values. Raths' Value Theory, self-disclosure, self-analysis, self-responsibility, time to record, and date codes were assigned to the value journal entries by two coders. Discrepancies between code assignments were discussed by the coders until joint decisions were reached. Instruments adopted from McAllister were used to assess the investigator's use of verbal and written clarifying responses. Randomly selected five minute intervals of each

Professional Behaviour seminar provided the data for the assessment of the investigator's use of verbal clarifying responses. A randomly selected value journal entry from each student provided the data for the assessment of the investigator's use of written clarifying responses.

The finding of the study show that there was no increase in awareness of values in the beginning nursing students studied. Since only six students submitted value journals into the second half of the study, only that data was available to identify shifts in value awareness over the course of the study. Students took less time to record entries and expressed more self-analysis, less self-disclosure, and less self-responsibility for behaviour. Also, consequences identified for actions and alternatives became more reasonable.

The results, discussion, and conclusions of the study suggested the following implications: (1) clinical nursing experiences may generate feelings in beginning nursing students that interfere with their emotional security, (2) emotional security may be a necessary condition for engaging in a valuing process, (3) value clarifying programs which do not incorporate strategies to build emotional security may not successfully engage these students in a valuing process, (4) value clarifying programs which incorporate strategies to deal with protective behaviour may facilitate levels of self-understanding, (5) the elapse time between student

statement and teacher response may affect the effectiveness of clarifying responses, (6) verbal clarifying responses may contribute more to the valuing process than do written clarifying responses, and (7) structured questions in value journals may facilitate engagement of these students in a valuing process.

Research suggestions derived from this study included: (1) further examination of the effects of teachers trained to use verbal and written clarifying responses and who demonstrate application of these responses with beginning nursing students, (2) tests of the reliability and validity of the value journal questions used in the study, (3) investigations of the impact of emotional security on beginning nursing students' "readiness" for value clarifying programs, (4) investigations of the effect of value clarifying programs for beginning nursing students which incorporate procedures to build emotional security and valuing, (5) investigation of the presence of a developmental process for personal change, and (6) replications of this study incorporating random assignment of beginning nursing students to treatment and control groups.

To my husband Alfred and my son Andrew

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The Need for the Study

Sidney Jourard (1971) argued that the relationship between the nurse and the patient are factors in the patient's illness and recovery. The relationship allows the patient to disclose pertinent information to assist in the assessment and treatment of his or her physical and psychological ills.

In this helping relationship, the nurse or helper must have some prerequisite traits because without them "it is doubtful that any amount of training will enable one to be truly effective in a helping relationship" (Gazda, Asbury, Balzer, Childers and Walters, 1984, p.7). These prerequisite personal characteristics are awareness of "own values, motives, strengths, weakness, feelings, purpose in life, and current level of functioning" (Gazda et al., 1984, p.7). Nursing students with these prerequisites are better able to use specific communication skills training in effective helping relationships (Carkhuff, 1969, Vol. 2; Gazda et al., 1984). Gazda et al. (1984) see awareness of personal values as the key to being nonjudgmental and therefore to being able to value the patient who has

differing values. This suspension of judgement and valuing of the patient is necessary if a helping relationship is to be established.

Gazda et al. (1984) also relate two other prerequisite characteristics, motives and feelings, to awareness of values. The helpers' motives in the helping relationship reflect their values. Feelings towards patients may interfere with the helping relationship. Therefore, developing awareness of personal values in beginning nursing students can be seen as a necessary first step in developing important helping relationships with patients.

Several nursing fundamentals textbooks include a chapter on values in nursing (Kozier & Erb, 1987; Potter & Perry, 1985). They stress the relationship between awareness of own values and helping relationships.

Also, several authors (Burton, 1981; Rath et al., 1978; Ross, 1981; Steele & Harmon, 1979; Uustal, 1984) see a relationship between awareness of values and decision making. Decision making should be a rational process in which nurses identify and choose among options. Personal values and professional values have an impact on choices made. When nurses encounter patients whose values differ from their own or situations in which they must choose from among ethically 'correct' options, personal values may conflict with professional values. Decision making becomes even more difficult if personal values are not consciously

known. Decisions may then be made based on precedence, feelings, expedience, or peer pressure, in fact, "without thinking".

When nurses know what their personal values are, they should be able to identify conflicts with professional values. They should be able to choose and implement options after thoughtful consideration of the consequences. Values' awareness could be a significant first step in the development of decision making skills for student nurses.

Nursing has an ethical standard of caring for patients (Canadian Nurses Association, 1980; Fry, 1988). Despite this ethic, nurses have demonstrated uncaring behaviours towards patients (Jourard, 1971; Kelly, 1988; Rieman, 1986). Several factors affect the process of caring. They include "culture, values, maturational and stress levels, and time" (Bevis, 1981, p. 50). As nursing shortages escalate, the pressure to remove caring from nursing will increase (Fry, 1988). Unless nurses are aware of their personal values with respect to caring, they may be unable to resist this pressure.

Some authors (Moorhouse, 1981; Pinch, 1979; Steele & Harmon, 1979; Uustal, 1984) have identified that the Value Theory of Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, 1978) is useful in nursing education. The theory states that apathetic, flighty, overconforming or dissenting behaviour which accompanies unclear values can evolve into more zestful,

purposeful, committed, consistent, critically thinking behaviour when values are clarified. Rathes et al. (1966, 1978) also predict that people will have more values, be more aware of the values they hold, have values which are more consistent with one another, be able to use the valuing process as they grow and become more self directed when values are clarified.

Rathes et al. (1966, 1978) believe that values often grow from our goals or purposes, aspirations, attitudes, feelings, interests, beliefs and convictions, activities and worries. They call these value indicators. Value indicators may approach values but they may not necessarily be values. Value indicators "are often revealed in the classroom" (Rathes et al., 1978, p. 31). It is important for teachers to set up opportunities for clarifying value indicators, and discussing the valuing process in relation to them (Rathes et al., 1978).

Value indicators are similar to the list of prerequisite traits Gazda et al. (1984) think enable people to be effective helpers. By focusing on value indicators, students can be more aware of the prerequisite traits important in helpers.

Value clarification strategies have been used successfully to increase awareness of personal values. Hopp (1974) used value clarification strategies with sixth graders and found that students with unclear values

demonstrated the greatest change in value clarity following the treatment. Sklare, Markham, and Sklare (1977) noted that high school juniors and seniors who had participated in a ten week value clarification program found it significantly easier to choose between different values. Ohlde and Vinitzky (1980) found that undergraduate participants in a value clarification workshop became more aware of their personal values.

Hopp (1974), Pozdol and Pasch (1976), Purinton (1975), and Rosner (1975) taught value clarification strategies to teachers or counsellors. They found that there was agreement among the trainees that the use of value clarification in the classroom had a strong effect on the teacher's relationship with students, that value clarification experiences were meaningful and growth producing for students and counsellors, and that teachers were enthusiastic about the use of value clarification strategies. It would seem that value clarification strategies are appreciated by the teachers and counsellors who use them.

Kozier & Erb (1987), Potter & Perry (1985), and Steele & Harmon (1979) suggest the use of value clarification strategies to assist nurses and nursing students to clarify their values. One value clarification strategy is the clarifying response (Raths et al, 1978). Clarifying responses can be used orally with individuals or groups and

they can be used when responding in writing to students' written work (Raths et al., 1978). Because clarifying responses attend directly to what the individual is saying and either reflect the message back to the student or ask the student questions which encourage critical examination or extension of thought, they will help students clarify their values (Raths et al., 1978).

The theoretical importance of values awareness as a prerequisite for helping relationships, decision making, and caring in nursing and the positive outcomes predicted by Raths' Value Theory are the reasons why this study is needed.

Statement of the Problem

The problems addressed in this study were: (1) Does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing students' awareness of the values they hold? and (2) How does the awareness of personal values shift as a value clarifying program progresses?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to develop materials which help beginning nursing students become more aware of their values, to implement the clarifying program, and to analyze the shift in the awareness of personal values over the course of the study.

Fourteen student volunteers enrolled in the first term of a British Columbia post-secondary institution general nursing program received verbal clarifying responses in their ten, 50 minute Professional Behaviour seminars over 16 weeks. They completed a two hour independent study module on values and participated in a one hour seminar using the Value Theory and strategies articulated by Raths et al. (1966, 1978). Also, students recorded value indicators and aspects of the valuing process in value journals each week. Written clarifying responses were made by the investigator in these value journals before they were returned to students.

The level of investigator functioning with clarifying responses was analyzed using randomly selected value journals and audiotapes of the Professional Behaviour seminars.

The change in awareness of personal values was identified by analyzing all students' value journal entries. To facilitate analysis of this qualitative data, it was coded. The date of the journal entry, the time taken to write the entry, the seven characteristics of the valuing process, the presence of value indicators, the level of student self analysis, the level of student self disclosure, and the level of student responsibility for behaviour were the code categories used. Once these codes were assigned, the information was examined using "reflection-in-action"

(Schon, 1983, p. 49). Schon (1983) suggests that when a situation is puzzling, the practitioner makes sense of it by reflecting "on the understandings which have been implicit in the action, understandings which he or she surfaces, criticizes, restructures and embodies in further action" (p. 50).

Assumptions

A basic assumption of this study is that awareness of personal values is a prerequisite to the formation of helping relationships (Gazda et al., 1984), decision making (Uustal, 1984), and caring (Bevis, 1981).

A second assumption is that Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966, 1978) is useful in assisting students to define what they value (Uustal, 1980). Raths' valuing process (Raths et al., 1966, 1978) will help students become more aware of their personal values (Moorhouse, 1981; Uustal, 1984).

A third assumption is that professional reflection "on the understandings which have been implicit in the action, understandings which ... (the professional) surfaces, criticizes, restructures, and embodies in further action" (Schon, 1983, p.50) is a useful way of gaining insight into the changes in awareness of personal values recorded in the value journals. Schon's (1983) recommendation to reflect-in-action on the problem, suspending preconceptions,

listening carefully, and testing explanations as they occur to impose an order on or give meaning to the journals has been used.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they are used in this study.

Valuing - Valuing is a process of choosing freely from among alternatives after thoughtful consideration of the consequences, prizing and cherishing the choice, affirming it to others, and acting on the choice repeatedly (Raths et al., 1966, 1978).

Value - The "results of this valuing process are called values" (Raths et al., 1978, p. 28).

Value indicator - A value indicator is a goal or purpose, an aspiration, a feeling, an interest, a belief or a conviction, an attitude, an activity, and a worry (Raths et al., 1966, 1978).

Value clarification strategies - Value clarification strategies are used with groups of students. They apply all four of the following activities in every interaction with students:

1. Clarifying students' statements about current life experiences and issues.
2. Accepting all student responses nonjudgmentally.
3. Inviting comprehensive reflection on the experiences

and issues.

4. Nourishing personal power. (Raths, 1978)

Clarifying response - The clarifying response is a verbal or written response to student statements of value indicators or aspects of the valuing process (Raths et al., 1966)

Clarifying responses demonstrate the teacher's nonjudgmental acceptance of student responses by attending directly to what the individual is saying and inviting comprehensive analysis of the thought by reflecting the message back to the student or by questioning to encourage critical examination or extension of the message.

Independent study module - An independent study module is a "learning packet developed to direct and facilitate ... learning of a specific topic" (Greenlaw, 1984, p. 3). Students are expected to complete the module before the seminar for the specific topic.

Professional Behaviour seminars - Professional Behaviour seminars are one of the components of a general nursing course. Groups of sixteen to twenty students and one teacher meet for one hour per week to discuss the professional issues of policies, rights, values, caring, history, roles, individual learning, professions, ethics, legal issues, recording and reporting, and delivery of care.

Value Journals - Value journals are the booklets containing the written responses students make to specific questions about their experiences.

Value clarifying program - The value clarifying program referred to in this study involved the use of verbal clarifying responses in the weekly Professional Behaviour seminars and written clarifying responses in the value journals submitted by students.

Reflection-in-action - Reflection-in-action is the process described by Schon (1983) in which the professional reflects on the problem by suspending preconceptions, listening carefully, and testing explanations as they occur to impose an order on or give meaning to the situation which likens it to a known concept or problem. Similarities are identified without denying the differences between the likened concept or problem. Solutions are worked out recognizing their implications, further information is accepted and the problem and solutions are reshaped as appropriate.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to fourteen students from the total number who were admitted to first term of the nursing program. The fourteen students volunteered to participate in the study and could withdraw at any time. There was no control group.

The treatment for the group of volunteers was in large group sessions and one-on-one encounters with the investigator. The Professional Behaviour seminars and the values independent study module were an integral part of

the nursing course. The value journals were extra work for study participants only.

The investigator implementing the study had participated in a graduate education course in which Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966) was learned and clarifying responses were practiced. Expertise in using clarifying responses was developed in the course.

The coding of the qualitative data from the value journals, although done by two coders, required at least some inference. One of the coders was the investigator so the possibility of observer ~~bias~~ does exist.

The coding of the investigator verbal and written interactions also required some degree of inference. This coding was done by the investigator alone so the possibility of observer bias exists here too.

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has described the problems being investigated, the need for the study, and the outline of the investigation. Chapter II describes some of the background information pertinent to the investigation and reviews the relevant educational research. Chapter III describes the methodology of the investigation: the study sample, the value clarifying program, the value journals, the data collection process and the data analysis process. Chapter IV outlines the findings of the investigation and Chapter V

discusses the results, identifies the conclusions, and presents some implications of the investigation.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature review in this study focused on five main areas: (1) definitions of awareness and self-awareness; (2) approaches to self-awareness development; (3) approaches to values education; (4) the placement of Raths' (Raths et al., 1966, 1978) Value Theory in the context of self-awareness development and values education; and (5) clarifying responses. This background leads to (6), a review of the pertinent research.

Definitions of Awareness and Self-awareness

Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary defines the adjective aware as "having or showing realization, perception or knowledge" (1983, p. 120). This dictionary notes that aware "implies vigilance in observing or alertness in drawing inferences from what one experiences" (1983, p. 120). Awareness then is the state of perceiving, knowing, or inferring from experience.

The Oxford English Dictionary (1933) and the Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary (1974) use the words informed, cognizant, conscious, and sensible to define aware. The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, 2nd ed. adds the words alert and sophisticated in their definition. Oblivious is the antonym of aware. These dictionaries

define the noun awareness as the quality or state of being aware, cognizant, conscious, sensible, knowledgeable, alert, perceptive and/or sophisticated.

In psychology, the noun awareness means:

being conscious of something; the act of 'taking account' of an object or state of affairs. The term implies neither attention nor an assessment of the qualities or nature of the object; there can be simple awareness without specific discrimination or recognition of objective characteristics, even though these characteristics must be deemed to have an effect. (English & English, 1958, p.58)

This psychological definition is quite different from the definition used in everyday language. It is the everyday language definition of awareness that is used in this study.

The Webster Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary defines self-awareness as "an awareness of one's own personality or individuality" (1983, p. 1065). The psychological usage of self-awareness is similar to its general usage. English & English (1958) define it as "knowledge of one's own traits or qualities; insight into, understanding of, one's own behaviour and motives" (p. 486). Self-awareness is defined as knowledge of one's traits or qualities in this study.

Approaches to Self-awareness Development

In this section of the literature review, the current status of approaches to facilitate self-awareness, self-understanding or insight are discussed. Then the application of these approaches to education are made.

A number of traditional psychological approaches to

therapy or counselling aim to improve client functioning. One way they seek to achieve this is through client self-exploration, self-awareness, or insight. The psychoanalytic approach of Freud, the non-directive or client-centered approach of Carl Rogers (1961, 1968, 1969, 1977), and the existential approach (Colm, 1966) all rely upon the active involvement of the individual in exploring feelings and experiences to gain self-awareness.

However, average counseling and psychotherapy using traditional methods does not result in average client improvement greater than that observed in clients who had no special treatment (Barron & Leary, 1955; Cartwright & Vogel, 1960; Esyencck, 1952; Levitt, 1957; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). However, the treatment groups had more variable outcomes than the control groups (Barron & Leary, 1955; Cartwright & Vogel, 1960) suggesting that some therapists using traditional methods are helpful and some are harmful (Truax & Carkhuff 1967).

What is it that makes some therapists effective? When comparing the traditional approaches to counseling and psychotherapy, Truax and Carkhuff (1967) found that there were similarities between what each approach considered effective therapist behaviour. They all identified therapist warmth toward or regard for the client; the therapist's ability to grasp the meanings of what the client is saying; the therapist's understanding of the client; and

therapist nondefensiveness (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) .

Carl Rogers (1961, 1968, 1969) insisted these three therapist conditions were necessary and sufficient in therapist-client relationships to achieve client improvement. He described them as therapist "realness" or congruence while interacting with clients, unconditional positive regard toward clients and empathic understanding of clients.

Genuineness, realness, or congruence is the ability of counselors to be themselves in interactions with clients. The counselor "is openly being the feelings and attitudes that are flowing within at the moment" (Rogers, 1977, p. 9). The counsellor is transparent. Therefore, there is a close match or congruence between what is being experienced by the counsellor, what the counsellor is aware of, and what is expressed to the client.

Unconditional positive regard means that the counselor accepts clients as they are including their feelings and behaviour at the moment (Rogers, 1961, 1977). It is not always possible to feel this unconditional regard all the time. A counselor who is genuine will feel very different feelings towards some clients. The counselor should not try to feel something s/he cannot. But the more this prizing attitude is demonstrated by the counselor, the greater the likelihood that counseling will be a success.

Empathic understanding means that the counselor

understands the feelings and thoughts experienced by the client and then communicates this understanding to the client (Rogers, 1961, 1977). Hopefully, the counselor is in the private world of the client to such an extent that s/he can clarify both the obvious meanings as well as those that the client is not quite aware of. The client's response may be tentative acceptance at first, then after careful consideration, whole hearted acceptance and use of the new insight (Rogers, 1961).

As clients experience the counselor listening to and accepting their feelings, they become able to listen more carefully to themselves and accept the feelings they experience. As clients experience the counselor valuing and prizing them, even the deep negative facets, they become more able to prize and value themselves. As clients experience a real counselor, they are more able to discard their own facades and be more aware of their experiences. (Rogers, 1977)

The three conditions were modified slightly from Rogers' (1961) initial conceptualization (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). Unconditional regard became nonpossessive warmth towards clients. The emphasis on genuineness as congruence between therapist thoughts, feelings, and the resulting behaviour shifted to an emphasis on genuineness as authenticity and not being phony. The emphasis on empathy as the clients's ability to use the insight shifted to the

emphasis on empathy as the accurate grasp and communication of client meaning.

Truax & Wargo (1966); Truax, Wargo, Frank, Imber, Battle, Hoehn-Saric, Nash, & Stone (1966a); Truax, Wargo, & Silber (1966); Truax & Carkhuff (1967) investigated the importance of the three conditions in achieving client improvement. They noted that use of high levels of nonpossessive warmth, nonphoney authentic genuineness, and accurate empathy by therapists led to constructive personality change in clients. Low levels of these three therapist conditions led to deterioration in clients. This was true for various types of clients, group and individual counseling, and various therapeutic approaches. Banks, Berenson, & Carkhuff (1966) and Truax, Wargo, Frank et al (1966b) noted that it was the ability of the therapist to use the three conditions, not the characteristics of the patient which affected the amount of the three conditions displayed.

Successful clients in these counseling relationships differed from unsuccessful clients in the extent of their participation in self-exploration (Peres, 1947; Duval & Wicklund, 1972; Tomlinson & Hart, 1962; Truax & Wargo, 1966). Also, the level of therapist use of the three conditions significantly related to the degree of self-exploration of the client (Truax & Carkhuff, 1964, 1965).

Robert Carkhuff (1969) expanded on these works and

added to the three conditions of genuineness, warmth or respect, and empathy that were important in achieving growth. He identified that the conditions of concreteness, self disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy (Carkhuff, 1969) were also important conditions of therapists or helpers.

Carkhuff (1969) describes these seven conditions in the following way. The empathic helper operates from the client's or helpees experiences. However, unlike Rogers (1961), Carkhuff's goal is to add significantly to the feeling and meaning of helpee expressions; to get below what the helpee is able to express so that the helpee can add to his or her exploration and understanding. He uses respect to mean a deep acknowledgement of personal worth and potential. When people are treated with respect, they learn to respect their own and other's worlds. Genuineness means being authentic in response to people's experiences. Concreteness is the ability to directly and specifically discuss feelings and experiences so that people will be more able to specifically describe their own experiences. Self disclosure is the ability to freely and spontaneously disclose significant personal information when appropriate so that people learn to disclose personal information in a constructive manner. Confrontation is the ability to confront discrepancies between what people want and what they experience, between what people say they do and what

they actually do, and between how people are experienced and how they experience themselves to help people confront themselves and others constructively. Immediacy is the ability to immediately act and direct action so that people learn to act with immediacy and then direct the actions of others.

After factor analysis of the seven conditions, Carkhuff (1969) found that there were essentially two factors which contributed substantially to the helping process: therapist responsiveness characterised by empathy and respect; and therapist initiative characterised by confrontation and immediacy. Genuineness and concreteness affected both responsiveness and initiative (Carkhuff, 1969). Therefore, there were two types of skills required by helpers, responding skills and initiative skills.

Finally, Carkhuff (1969, 1972) noted that these helper conditions required preliminary or transitional skills. Attending skills were required before responding skills, and personalizing skills eased the transition to initiating skills. Thus helper attention involved the helpee in the helping process, helper responses facilitated helpee exploration, helper personalization of helpee exploration facilitated helpee understanding, and helper initiative facilitated helpee action behaviour (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976).

Attending is being attentive to the helpee (Carkhuff &

Berenson, 1977; Carkhuff, Pierce & Cannon, 1980). It is made up of attending physically, observing and listening (Carkhuff, 1969; Genter & Moughan, 1977; Mehrabian, 1972; Smith-Hanen, 1977). Attending physically includes informing the helpee of your availability and readiness to help and telling the helpee what you have to offer so that s/he becomes motivated to get involved in the helping process. It means facing helpees without physical barriers in between, being at eye level, and being in an organized and comfortable environment. Physical attending also involves facing helpees squarely, leaning towards them, seeking eye contact, and being intent yet relaxed. Observing means looking for behavioral cues to the helpee's feelings, level of energy and degree of congruence between behaviour and expressions. Listening means listening for cues to the helpee's feelings, level of energy and congruency between behaviour and words. This involves suspending judgment at the time of the interview, resisting distractions, identifying themes in conversation, and reflecting on content.

Personalizing means adding to helpee expressions and understandings of the problem, identifying the impact of expression and problems on helpee feelings, and helping the helpee understand where s/he is in relation to the goal so that helpee self-understanding is achieved (Anthony, 1971; Carkhuff & Anthony, 1977; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977;

Carkhuff et al., 1980). Personalizing helpee expressions is done by identifying the significance of helpee experiences, the meaning of helpee experiences, and the themes in helpee conversation. Adding to helpee understanding of the problem is done by identifying how the helpee is contributing to the problem and what the helpee lacks in the situation.

Personalizing the impact of expressions and problems is done by reflecting how the personal deficit makes the helpee feel. Personalizing the goal is reflecting where the helpee wants to be and how the problems and feelings have an impact on that. Personalizing puts experiences into perspective in a way that the helpee is unable to do. The key to personalizing is discipline in using interchangeable responses to search out common or dominant themes (Carkhuff et al., 1980). When helpees understand themselves at personalized levels, they are ready for the initiating skills of helping.

Since the programs used by helpers affected the performance of helpees (Michelson & Stevic, 1971; Vitalo, 1970) program development skills were added to the list of skills required by helpers (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976). Program development skills are the cognitive skills of problem solving, decision-making, program development, and program implementation. These skills direct the helpee to take action.

Another important ingredient in helping is the energy

level of the helper (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976). This means that helpers must have physical fitness skills to achieve positive outcomes with clients.

Manipulation of helper skills has an effect on the helping process (Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976). High levels of responding skills (genuineness, respect and empathy) leads to high levels of helpee self-exploration by:

1. stimulating a depth of self-exploration necessary for growth.
2. helping to lower defenses so that more meaningful material is shared.
3. enabling helpers to understand the helpee and the helpee to experience the feeling of being understood
4. eliciting positive feelings from the helpee toward himself and others. This positive feeling in turn increases the probability that the helpee will receive expressions of positive feelings from others.

Carkhuff (1969, Vol. 2) has identified several guidelines for the helper when using the responding skills to facilitate helpee self-exploration:

1. Establish helpee self-exploration as the immediate goal of the relationship.
2. Initially, attempt to understand the helpees as they present themselves.
3. Initially, emphasize the "interchangeable understanding" level of empathy and "functional" (p.41)

respect.

4. Move from attending to responding to personalizing as the helpee's level of self-exploration indicates.

5. Move from content area to content area as helpee self-exploration indicates.

Carkhuff (1969, Vol.2) has identified several additional guidelines for the helper to facilitate helpee self-understanding:

1. Focus attention initially on the helpee's highest area of functioning.

2. Use the helpee's level of self-understanding as a cue for increasing the level of responding and personalizing skills.

3. Use the helpee's self-sustaining level of understanding as a cue to progress to use the initiating skills.

4. Use self-disclosure in response to high levels of helpee initiated helping skills.

For growth to occur, helpees must be involved in the helping process (Carkhuff, 1969). High levels of helper attending skills increase helpee involvement in the helping process (Mehrabian, 1972) so that physical, emotional and or intellectual growth can be achieved. Also, helpees must be able to look at and clearly see their world with a minimum of distortion (Carkhuff, 1969). Helper responding and personalizing skills help place helpees' experiences in

perspective by facilitating self-exploration and understanding (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976). In order to act on their world, helpees must begin by acting in small ways both in and out of the helping relationship (Carkhuff, 1969). Initiating skills of the helper facilitate helpees' actions.

Several authors (Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976; Gazda et al, 1984; Jourard, 1971; Rogers, 1968, 1969) believe that parent-child and teacher-student relationships are helping relationships. Because of this, the attending, responding, personalizing and initiating skills of the helping process are critical to growth in these relationships as well. Students of teachers who offers high levels of the responding and initiating skills are healthier physically, emotionally, and intellectually than students of those teachers who offer low levels of these skills (Aspy, 1969; Kratochvil, Carkhuff, & Berenson, 1969; Hefele, 1971).

The teaching process should start with the helping process (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976). Teachers should have physical fitness skills so that physical energy levels are high. They should have interpersonal skills emphasizing the responding and initiating skills described earlier. They should have the cognitive decision-making skills which emphasize problem definition, goal definition, and value development necessary for selecting preferred action for and with students. They also should have the program

development skills necessary to implement preferred student actions.

Learning is facilitated when teachers view teaching as both helping and teaching (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976).

Also, to facilitate learning, the teacher must:

1. enter the frame of reference of the helpee.
2. enter the environment of the helpee, be it home, classroom, or clinical experience.
3. relate the helpee's frame of reference to goals in his environment.
4. relate the environment's goals to the helpee's functioning within the environment.
5. make homework assignments for helpees to work on.
6. teach helpee's environment to support the helpee.
7. follow-up the teaching activities to help students apply learning to their lives. (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976)

To summarize, it has been documented that certain conditions of helpers and teachers facilitate helpee self-exploration and therefore self-understanding. These conditions are empathy, respect, genuineness, concreteness, self-disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy. These conditions are part of the responding and initiating skills discussed in this section. Two intermediary skills are also required to facilitate helpee self-exploration and understanding; attending and personalizing. Also, helpers

must have high energy levels to be effective helpers, and they must have assessment and problem solving skills to implement self-exploration and self-understanding programs with students. Because self-awareness means both self-exploring and self-understanding, the value clarifying program which aims to facilitate value awareness in beginning nursing students should include these skills.

Approaches to Values Education

One of the goals of general education is the transmission of values to students (Brummer, 1984; McGough & Clark, 1977; Purpei & Ryan, 1965; Ryan & Thompson, 1965). The same is true for the education of nurses. In fact, one component of the nursing course in one post-secondary general nursing program is titled Professional Behaviour (General Nursing Department, 1987).

Several authors (Bandura, 1962; Fraenkel, 1977; McPhail, Ungood-Thomas, & Chapman, 1972; Newmann, 1975; Rogers, 1969; Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971; Rokeach, 1975) have devised theories of values education that can be categorized into four main groups on the basis of their main focus: (1) facilitation of caring; (2) facilitation of judging; (3) facilitation of action; or (4) facilitation of personal value awareness. Each grouping will be discussed here. Some of the models or theories refer to moral rather than values education, but both 'moral' and 'value' theories are

discussed in moral and values education.

Facilitation of caring

Caring means considering the interests of others and feeling compelled to do something about them (Hersh, Miller & Fielding, 1980). McPhail et al. (1972) created a consideration model which stresses the importance of caring. The focus is on learning to understand others' needs rather than resolving conflicts although decision making and action are aspects of the program.

The task of moral education is to build on the core of consideration all people possess and demonstrate that the differences among people are superficial (McPhail et al., 1972). The assumption is that moral behaviour is self-reinforcing. By learning to care for others, we care for ourselves. So, opportunities to express caring are crucial in this consideration model.

This approach (McPhail et al., 1972) places great emphasis on social learning theory and the modeling of caring behaviour by teachers. Teacher genuineness, insight and creativity are important. Increasingly complex social situations are presented in which students are encouraged to observe and understand verbal and nonverbal behavioral cues to others' needs. Role playing, sociodrama and creative writing are ways of developing moral behaviour in this model.

Facilitating judging

Judging involves reasoning or thinking through a value or moral dilemma. It requires decision making among various options using principles which remain constant from dilemma to dilemma. Value analysis (Fraenkel, 1977) and cognitive moral development (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971) are two theories which focus on judging. Other theorists (Evans & Applegate, 1976; Metcalf, 1971; Steiner & Hitchcock, 1980; Tymchuk, 1982) appear in the literature, but they do not offer ideas substantially different from Fraenkel or Kohlberg & Turiel.

Jack Fraenkel (1977) has developed a values analysis approach to values education which encourages logical analysis of value conflict situations along with systematic assessment of alternatives. He suggests that values activities should provide opportunities for students to suggest various ways to feel and act in situations, alternative courses of action, and consequences of actions for self and others. Values activities should encourage student evaluation of the alternatives from several points of view and assessment of predicted consequences re: likelihood and desirability of occurrence over the short and long term. Some examples of criteria for assessing consequences include moral, legal, aesthetic, ecological, economic, health, and safety criteria.

Using his model, students learn a very systematic

process for making decisions about values. The model includes precise methods for making distinctions between various facts, evidence, value criteria and value principles.

Fraenkel (1980) notes that the evidence to date on the effects of values analysis treatments is mixed (Ehman, 1977; Tucker, 1977) and therefore too limited to justify generalizations.

Lawrence Kohlberg & Elliot Turiel (1971) describe a developmental approach to values education in which students' personal rights and freedoms are respected and students are encouraged to use their highest level of moral reasoning to solve values dilemmas. They (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971; Turiel, 1966; Rest, Turiel, & Kohlberg, 1969) have identified the following six stages of moral development through which people typically move:

1. The premoral stage. In this stage, people neither understand rules nor do they judge good and bad in terms of rules and authority. Good is what is pleasant and bad is what is painful or fearful.

2. The preconventional level. In this stage, people respond to rules and labels of good/bad or right/wrong, but think only of the pleasant or painful consequences of them. There are two stages in this level:

- a. Stage 1; the punishment/obedience orientation.

Physical consequences determine the goodness or

badness of actions despite the meaning or value of the consequence. Avoidance of punishment and unquestioned obedience to power are valued.

b. Stage 2; the instrumental relativist orientation. Right behaviour is that which satisfies own needs. The attitude of "I'll help you if you help me" is paramount, not loyalty, gratitude or justice.

3. The conventional level. At this level, maintaining individual, group or national expectations is important regardless of consequences. The attitude is one of conformity to, loyalty to, active support for and justification of social standards. There are two stages in this level:

a. Stage 3. The acceptance of good boy/nice girl orientation. Good behaviour is that which helps and pleases others. Approval is earned by being nice. "He means well" becomes important for the first time.

b. Stage 4. The law and order orientation. The orientation is towards authority, fixed rules, and social order. Right behaviour includes doing one's duty, respecting authority, and maintaining the social order.

4. The post-conventional, autonomous or principled level. At this level, efforts are made to define moral

values and principles which are valid apart from authority and group standards. This level has two stages:

- a. Stage 5. The social-contract legalistic orientation. Right behaviour is defined in terms of general human rights and standards critically examined and agreed upon by society. Personal values are relative. Apart from the constitutionally and democratically agreed upon rights, rights are personal and open to opinion.
- b. Stage 6. The universal ethical principle orientation. Right is defined by decisions of conscience according to self-chosen ethical principles which appeal to logic, universality and consistency. These principles are abstract and ethical, not concrete and moral. The highest moral value is justice and the value of human life.

If moral development does pass through these seven stages, then moral education should stimulate development of the next highest stage (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971). This involves identifying the students' current level of moral development, exposing students to the next highest level of moral thought, presenting moral conflict experiences, and then applying the students' level of moral thought to the conflict experience (Beyer, 1976; Rest, Turiel, & Kohlberg,

1969; Turiel & Kohlberg, 1969; Turiel, 1969).

Moral reasoning cannot be taught directly (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971) so it is inappropriate to give Stage 6 explanations to all students. Changes in moral reasoning occur when students reorganize their thinking in response to dilemmas. Therefore, teachers have several roles in moral development (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971). They should help students attend to personal moral dilemmas, think about the reasoning used to solve the conflicts, identify inconsistencies and inadequacies in thinking, and seek ways of resolving the inconsistencies and inadequacies (Turiel, 1969). The emphasis is on listening carefully to what students say about moral dilemmas and taking a neutral position on it. Teachers should distinguish the arbitrary classroom management rules which facilitate school functioning from the personal moral dilemmas that students should consider. Kohlberg & Turiel (1971) emphasize the judging aspect of moral education, but they also say that teachers should encourage action consistent with the moral judgments of students so that a foundation for further moral action is built.

Facilitating action

As Kohlberg & Turiel (1971) note, action on moral judgments forms the foundation for other moral action. Modeling (Bandura, 1962), indoctrination (Superka, Ahrens, &

Hedstrom, 1976) and social action (Newmann, 1975) are theories which focus on facilitating moral or value related action.

Rokeach (1975) has identified the broad educational values of "a sense of accomplishment, self-respect, wisdom, freedom, equality, inner harmony, and family security" (p. 120). The instrumental educational values or ideal ways of behaving include "being responsible, capable, broadminded, intellectual, honest, courageous, imaginative, independent, logical and helpful" (p. 120). Traditionally, these educational values were transmitted by modeling (Bandura, 1962) and indoctrination (Superka et al., 1976).

Modeling is the process in which one person performs 'ideal' behaviour as an example for others to imitate (Johnson, 1972). In values modeling, students are expected to identify with the standard of behaviour of their teachers and then to emulate it. However, as the members in society become increasingly diverse, so too do the values they espouse. It becomes harder and harder for teachers to identify the appropriate value to espouse let alone incorporate it into behaviour. Because of this, students see a great diversity of role models to imitate. Which one should they choose?

Moralizing or indoctrination is the direct method of inculcating values (Superka et al., 1976). People are told what is right and what to do. However, these deliberate

methods of teaching values through lecturing seem to have no effect on behaviour (Festinger, 1964) especially as people age (Hemmer, 1976).

"The fundamental defect of focusing directly upon 'good behaviour' is that the definition of such a notion may be relative only to the standards and biases of the teacher or judge" (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971, p. 461). The alternative is identification of personal values inherent in moral or value dilemmas.

Newmann's social action theory (1975) deals with social dilemmas much like the caring and judging models mentioned earlier. The social action model aims to increase student ability to identify, research, and resolve problems, but the focus is the action resulting from decisions. Students are taught how to act on moral decisions by exerting influence in public affairs. They formulate policy objectives based on moral deliberation and social policy research. Once objectives are formulated, knowledge of political process, advocacy skills, group-process skills and management skills are used to gather support to implement the objective. Often when people become involved in social action, they identify dilemmas which must be addressed. For example: commitment to the cause versus openness to criticism about it; consideration of individuals versus devotion to the cause; individual value integrity versus compromising for the cause; the use of power; and personal motives versus social

justifications. So, resolution of these personal conflicts is part of the program. The program is necessarily long term and interdisciplinary and integrates course work and community involvement.

The teacher has four different roles in this social action model. The first role is as a general resource for fact gathering and strategies. The second is as a counselor trying to meet individual student needs as dilemmas arise. The third is as an expert resource in a specific content area. The fourth is as an activist who influences public policy when involved with student projects.

Facilitation of personal value awareness

Personal value awareness is knowledge of one's values. Carl Rogers' (1969) theory is primarily aimed at achieving increased awareness of personal values.

Rogers (1969) describes the modern adult as having:

a basic distrust for his own experiencing as a guide to his behaviour. He learns from others a large number of (symbolic) values, and adopts them as his own, even though they may be widely discrepant from what he is experiencing. Because these concepts are not based on his own valuing, they tend to be fixed and rigid, rather than fluid and changing. (p. 245)

His approach to values education is to facilitate the students' awareness of experiences, and restore the students' trust in their experiences as a basis for guiding thoughts and behaviour. Rogers would do this using the

three conditions of empathy, congruent genuineness, and unconditional positive regard described earlier in this literature review.

Other authors advocate increased values awareness using approaches similar to Rogers (1969). Brown (1971) integrates thoughts and feelings in a confluent education approach. Kehayan (1983) integrates feeling, understanding, and communication. Hawley (1974) shares Rogers' (1969) humanist philosophy, but achieves values awareness through role playing.

Allen (1975) has articulated a model of values education that incorporates all four types of models mentioned above. He thinks that caring, judging, action, and self-awareness are complementary ways of promoting value development and should be incorporated into all values education programs.

Raths' Value Theory

To understand Raths' Value Theory, it is important to understand the placement of this theory within the framework of his two other theories about educating children. Therefore, the initial part of this section of the literature review deals with the interrelationship of the three theories. Next, the Value Theory itself is discussed and then the placement of it with the other values theories.

Raths' three theories

Louis Raths developed three theories about educating children. He encouraged his associates to carry out research testing hypotheses that the theories generated. Merrill Harmin and Sidney Simon, investigated the Value Theory as it relates to teaching children (Raths et al., 1966). Selma Wassermann, Arthur Jonas, and Arnold Rothstein investigated the theory of thinking and teaching (Raths et al., 1967). Raths noted that behaviours associated with lack of values and thinking were difficult to change if the child had distinct unmet emotional needs. The theory of emotional needs and teaching deals with that aspect (Raths, 1972). Together they make up an integrated approach to the teaching of children.

Raths (1972) places the highest priority on the physical health of children. Clearly, children who are ill, hungry or physically hurt will be unable to focus on learning tasks. The priority on physical health stems from this. The second priority should be a careful nurturing of their emotional security. The next emphasis should be on thinking skills and then on personal values.

Raths' (1972) emotional needs theory links the behaviours of persistent hostile aggression, self-isolation, regression to earlier stages of development, extreme submissiveness, and medically diagnosed psychosomatic illnesses to unmet emotional needs. These unmet needs

interfere with learning so it is important to implement strategies to help meet these needs. The strategies outlined (Raths, 1972) are meant to be included in a systematic program of interpersonal interactions with students that demonstrate caring, concern, genuineness, and respect. Attention is paid to the specific experiences of children starting from their frame of reference. This theory combines easily with the counseling approaches described in earlier sections of this literature review. Both emphasize attending and responding.

Louis Raths' thinking theory (Raths et al., 1966) states that children who have inadequate experiences with thinking are impulsive, overly dependent on the teacher, unable to concentrate, usually missing the meaning of conversation, dogmatically assertive, rigidly inflexible, extremely lacking in confidence in their own thinking, and unwilling to think for themselves. The goal of the thinking theory is to get away from the emphasis on recall of facts and include several thinking experiences each morning and afternoon for an extended period of time. The thinking experiences are observing, comparing, classifying, collecting and organizing data based on own curiosity, summarizing, looking for assumptions, hypothesizing or proposing solutions to problems, applying facts and principles in new situations, criticizing (analyzing or evaluating according to a standard), decision making,

imagining, and designing projects or investigations. With repeated experiences with these activities, the behaviours related to lack of thinking will decrease.

The role of the teacher is to create an environment for learning in which students have the confidence to be creative and sometimes 'wrong'. This is achieved by building success with thinking, by respecting students, by listening carefully to students, and by using interpersonal communication which conveys these things to students. Again, some of the teacher skills are similar to those identified by Carkhuff & Berenson (1976); attending and responding.

Raths' Value Theory

Louis Raths' (Raths et al, 1966, 1978) Value Theory is based on the assumption that values and valuing are uniquely personal. They develop out of personal experiences and guide behaviour. Since values operate in very complex situations simple dichotomies of right and wrong are not effective standards for judgment. Values situations generally involve "conflicting demands, a weighing and a balancing, and finally an action that reflects a multitude of forces" (Raths et al., 1966, p. 51).

The theory is related to Carl Rogers (1969, 1977) philosophy of thrust in the human capacity for growth (Volkmar, Pasanella, & Raths, 1977). If freedom is

provided, people will grow spontaneously. The theory is also based on the assumption that experiential learning is the only meaningful type of values learning (Raths et al., 1966). Experiential learning is defined by Rogers (1969) as that which: has a quality of personal involvement; is self-initiated; is pervasive, ie. it makes a difference in behaviour, attitudes, and/or personality; is evaluated by the learner; and is meaningful to the learner.

As stated in Chapter 1, the Value Theory offered by Raths et al. (1966, 1978) links apathetic, flighty, overconforming or dissenting behaviour with unclear values. When values are clarified, behaviour becomes zestful, purposeful, committed, consistent, and critically thoughtful. This change is achieved by helping students think critically about the value indicators of goals, purposes, aspirations, feelings, interests, beliefs and convictions, attitudes, activities, and worries in an environment of nonjudgmental acceptance and respect. The emphasis is on students' personal power to identify thoughts, choose from alternatives, examine consequences, and choose actions. This personal power fosters personal commitment to decisions and leads to a more integrated life.

Raths et al. (1966, 1978) articulate a Value Theory which focuses on the process of valuing. They define valuing as having seven characteristics:

1. choosing freely.
2. choosing from many alternatives
3. choosing after thoughtful consideration of consequences.
4. prizing the choice.
5. affirming the choice to others.
6. acting on the choice by incorporating aspects into behaviour.
7. acting on the choice repeatedly.

When all of the above characteristics apply, a value results.

Raths et al. (1966, 1978) suggest that teachers who want to help students develop values should encourage them to examine and evaluate their experiences; help them discover and thoughtfully weigh alternatives; give them the freedom to choose from among the alternatives; assist them with critical thinking and thoughtful decision making; encourage them to prize the choice; give them chances to affirm their choices; encourage them to behave according to their choices; and help them become aware of patterns of behaviour in their lives. In other words, they should help students think critically about their experiences using the valuing process as a guide.

When discussing alternatives, it is important that the list of alternatives include those that students would really prefer. Also, alternatives and consequences

identified must have meaning for students. Choosing without understanding the meaning of the alternative or its consequences, means that the choice is unlikely to be integrated into behaviour. As Carkhuff (1969, 1971) emphasizes, teachers must operate from the student's frame of reference. Then too, the alternative must be freely available for choosing. If the choice is illegal or harmful to others, then it should not be included in the list of alternatives (Raths et al, 1978). There must not be an illusion of choice when it does not exist.

The preceding limits on alternatives are not meant to negate the criteria of free choice or free thought, but to limit behaviour that necessarily follow from choices made. Some behaviour is inappropriate and should not be allowed (Raths et al., 1978).

Raths et al. go on to suggest that one of the sources of content "especially suited for clarifying thought....are those aspects of a person's life....called 'values indicators'" (1978, p. 39). They do not meet the requirements of the seven valuing characteristics, but they indicate a potential for value development and may be raised to that level once the valuing process is achieved. Raths et al., (1966) lists examples of student comments which may be viewed as specific value indicators. For example:

1. statements for or against something that indicate attitudes, beliefs, and convictions. E.g. "I don't

think old people should be hospitalized just because they are old."

2. statements of long range plans or goals that indicate aspirations. E.g. "Someday I'm going to earn lots of money."

3. statements of short range goals or hopes that indicate purposes. E.g. "I'll make some cookies when I finish my homework."

4. statements about what students like to do in their spare time that indicate interests. E.g. "I've read everything I can lay my hands on about dog training."

5. statements which reveal how students use their time that indicate activities. E.g. "I practiced the violin all yesterday evening."

The role of the teacher is one of facilitating exploration of students' ideas, not dispensing facts, or beliefs. This role is achieved by creating an environment in which students have the freedom to think. This environment is based on teacher respect for the uniqueness of the individual students and their personal experiences, prizing of students and nonjudgmental acceptance,

Raths et al. describe nonjudgmental acceptance as:

...a stance of respect for students. The teacher cares for students and shows it. She listens carefully and patiently. She smiles with their joys and suffers with their troubles. The teacher invites but does not require self-disclosure and clarifying thought. She is gentle and, when naturally moved to do so, speaks openly about personal continued searchings for clearer values. In so doing, the teacher creates a mood that

encourages students to take an accepting posture with each other when engaging in clarifying thought. (1978, p. 40)

Discussion of the valuing process without this acceptance of students is ineffective in producing behaviour change.

Again the crucial facilitative conditions of respect and genuineness described by Carkhuff (1969, 1971) are important in this theory. Therefore, two of the three responding skills necessary for self-exploration are present in Rath's Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966, 1978) .

Rath's Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966, 1978) states that specific behaviour which accompanies unclear values change when values are clarified. They also predict that people will have more values, be more aware of the values they hold, have values which are more consistent with one another, be able to use the valuing process as they grow and become more self directed when values are clarified.

To summarize, Rath's three theories all state that specific behaviours of children are related to a deficiency of either emotional security, thinking or valuing. They all state that regular experiences with specific thinking, valuing or security activities over extended periods of time will reduce these behaviours. They all emphasize teacher attending and responding skills to demonstrate respect for and prizing of students, genuineness, and nonjudgmental acceptance of student responses.

The placement of Rath's value theory

Rath's values theory (Rath et al., 1966) was among the first of the modern values theories. It emphasized the human element and experiential learning in teaching which were quite different from traditional teaching practices. When combined with the thinking and needs theory, a comprehensive, holistic approach to children results.

Rath's Value Theory (Rath et al., 1966) belongs with those theories which focus mainly on awareness of personal values. The emphasis on experiential learning, nonjudgmental acceptance, and respect make it fit closely with Carl Rogers' (1969) approach to values, his education approach (1968, 1969) and his method of psychotherapy (1961). The emphasis on personal reflection to promote thoughtful consideration of experiences, alternatives, and choices places it somewhat with those theories that facilitate judging (Evans & Applegate, 1976; Fraenkel, 1977; Metcalf, 1971). While there is an action component in Rath's Value Theory, there is no systematic teaching or practice for this component as there is in Newmann's social action theory (1975).

Many of the values theories do not espouse set institutional or instrumental values like those identified by Rokeach (1975) and Superka et al. (1976). Like Rath's Value Theory (Rath et al., 1966), they are concerned with the personal conflicts and decisions of students (Fraenkel,

1977; Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971; McPhail et al., 1975; Newmann, 1975; Tymchuk, 1982). However, some of the theories use a particular standard for evaluating decisions (Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971; Rokeach, 1975; Rucker et al, 1969) unlike Raths' theory.

Clarifying Responses

The clarifying response is the foundation of the value clarifying strategies suggested by Raths et al. (1966). It is appropriate for individual or group conversations, as well as for written or oral communication (Raths, 1962). Clarifying responses encourage students to consider what they have chosen, what they prize, and what they are doing. They "stimulate him to clarify his thinking and behaviour and thus clarify his values" (Raths et al., 1966, p. 51).

Effective clarifying responses have the following ten characteristics (Raths et al., 1966). They:

1. avoid judgments or evaluation.
2. give students responsibility for their thoughts and behaviour.
3. allow the student to examine further or not as the student chooses.
4. are meant to be taken as a whole. One small comment is not meant to be earth shattering.
5. are not meant to gather information, but to stimulate thought.

6. are short to allow the student time to think and "he usually does that best alone" (p. 53).
7. are meant for individuals. They may be used in group discussions if the topic interests large groups, but the reflection is done by the individual.
8. are not meant as responses for everything that students say. Teachers have other things to do in the classroom.
9. are used in situations in which there is no 'right' answer.
10. do not follow a formula. They are meant to be creative. "When a response helps a student to clarify his thinking or behaviour, it is considered effective." (p. 54)

Raths et al. (1966, pp. 55-62) describe 30 clarifying responses which promote general reflection or direct the student to consider one aspect of the valuing process. Generally, they are open-ended questions. Raths et al. (1966) also list some specific clarifying responses for each aspect of the valuing process (pp. 63-65). The following example of a conversation with a student illustrates a few clarifying responses.

Student: I felt really uncomfortable with Miss. C.
 Teacher: What was it about the situation that made you uncomfortable?
 Student: Miss C. kept criticizing me. Nothing I did was good enough.
 Teacher: What would have made you feel comfortable with her?
 Student: ...Well...ah....I'd have felt OK if she had

thanked me.....or even if she had smiled a little.
Teacher: Consider....What does this tell you about your expectations of Miss C.? We can talk again later if you wish.

The purpose is to promote reflection, to help the student ponder, and perhaps discover the relationships between value indicators.

In their discussion of clarifying responses, Raths et al. (1966) list some things that clarifying responses are not. They are not therapy so they are not meant to be used with students with serious emotional problems. Also, they are not meant to be one time techniques. They should be part of an ongoing value clarifying program applied over a period of time. The time period necessary to achieve minimal changes is one semester (16 weeks) or more (Raths et al., 1967). Clarifying responses do not inculcate, nor are they part of data collection in an interview. Also, they are not to replace the teachers other education tasks.

Wassermann (1985) has incorporated aspects of empathic understanding advocated by Carkhuff (1969) in her definition of clarifying responses. She includes statements that reflect or mirror the students' ideas or meanings from their frame of reference as clarifying responses. These reflective clarifying responses demonstrate thoughtful attention to the student, neutral acceptance of the students' statements and nonjudgmental encouragement of students to 'own' the statements as they wish. She sees the question: "How well does the response

attend to what the student is saying?" as the critical one when using clarifying responses. The focus should be less on open ended questions and more on thoughtful reflection of the message. An example of clarifying responses using reflective statements is given below.

Student: I felt really uncomfortable with Miss. C.
Teacher: Miss C. makes you uncomfortable.
Student: Yah....she keeps criticizing me. Nothing I do is good enough for her.
Teacher: She doesn't appreciate what you do for her.
Student: ..yah.....I'd feel better if she thanked me for all my hard work... or even smiled a little.
Teacher: You want her to show that she appreciates what you do for her. What does this tell you about your definition of a good patient?

Wassermann (1985) has gone on to categorize clarifying responses according to their purpose. She identifies clarifying responses which reflect students' meanings as described above. Another category includes responses which ask students to analyze their ideas. These responses ask for examples, definitions, assumptions, and inconsistencies so that thoughts are examined more deeply. In the third category are responses which ask students to extend their ideas. These responses ask for identification of consequences, alternatives, and ways of acting on ideas so that students thoughts are extended to actual life situations. Appendix A contains a Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses and lists responses which fit into each category.

Clarifying responses as Wassermann (1985) uses them

have some of the aspects of personalizing and initiating skills advocated by Carkhuff & Berenson (1976) that achieve self-understanding and action. Clarifying responses are meant to analyze and extend thoughts. Therefore, the personalizing skills of identifying the significance of experiences, the meaning of experiences, and the themes in conversation could be clarifying responses. The initiating skill of confrontation could be an appropriate response for clarifying inconsistencies in thoughts. Therefore, the self-understanding and action facilitated by these aspects of the counselling theory should help self-awareness development in beginning nursing students.

Others have noted the similarities between Raths' Value Theory and counseling (Glasser & Kirschenbaum, 1980; Havens & Morrison, 1982, Lockwood, 1980). Several authors (Hopp, 1975; Morrison & Havens, 1979; Thompson & Hudson, 1982) have used Raths' Value Theory in counseling because many problems in living stem, in part, from not having adequately worked through various issues related to personal meanings and experiences. Raths' Value Theory is consistent with counseling strategies in that they both encourage thoughtful reflection on life choices, consideration of alternatives and consequences, action consistent with choices made, and awareness of own feelings and behaviour. They also insist on teacher or counsellor nonjudgmental acceptance of students or clients.

To summarize then, clarifying responses as defined by Wassermann (1985) demonstrate the teacher's nonjudgmental acceptance of student responses by attending directly to what the student is saying and inviting comprehensive analysis of the thought by reflecting the message back to the student and/or by questioning to encourage critical examination or extension of the thought. The teacher must have high levels of genuineness and respect if the responses are to achieve student self-exploration. The teacher must also use some of the other aspects of the attending, responding, personalizing and initiating skills identified by Carkhuff & Berenson (1976) to achieve the level of thoughtful consideration and self-understanding required in this approach to values education.

A Review of Research Using Raths' Value Theory

This section of the literature review focuses on the educational research pertaining to Raths's Value Theory. The first section deals with research related to the theory. The next section deals with research using the Value Theory to facilitate awareness of personal values.

Research related to the theory

The original articulation of the Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966) included 19 other structured values clarification strategies for use with groups of students.

Since then, books about the value clarification strategies have proliferated (Casteel & Stahl, 1975; Curwin & Curwin, 1974; Hall, 1973; Kirschenbaum, 1977; Simon, Howe, & Kirschenbaum, 1972). Despite the fact that the clarifying response was seen as the foundation of Raths' values theory most of the recent reported educational research has used these value clarification strategies (Berger, Hopp, & Raettig, 1975; Governali & Sechrist, 1980; Logan, Jepsen, & Eldridge, 1977; Osman, 1974; Sklare, Markham, & Sklare, 1977; Silberman, Cohen, & Runyon, 1979; Vance, 1974; Weber, 1978).

An extensive research of the educational literature was carried out by McAllister (1986). He noted that the initial research of the values theory differed from the more recent research in several important respects. The initial investigations were usually carried out using only those children who exhibited value-related behaviour (behaviours associated with lack of valuing). Also, the teacher or investigator used verbal clarifying responses to student expressions of value indicators and measured the incidence of the value-related behaviour before and after a program of interactions with the students. In contrast, the more recent investigations implement a program of value clarification strategies, usually without verbal clarifying responses, with large groups of students rather than only those exhibiting extremes of value-related behaviour. These

studies investigate a range of dependent variables rather than the behavioral variables arising directly from Raths' Value Theory.

The results of this research were mixed. The initial research using clarifying responses with individuals "yielded some promising results, but experimental procedures were often too flawed to permit sound conclusions" (McAllister, 1986, p. 71). The more recent research using value clarification strategies with groups also has flaws. However, "there is some indication that the programs can affect patterns of classroom behaviours for any students..." (McAllister, 1986, p. 71).

McAllister (1986) went on to investigate the behavioral effect of using verbal clarifying responses with small groups (groups of six) of grade six students (aged 11 & 12) for twenty-six 35 minute sessions over 13 successive weeks. He initiated verbal clarifying responses with two of the groups, using one group as a control. Group I students chose personal project topics and worked on them or discussed them with the group during the sessions. Group II chose discussion topics and shared personal events or concerns. Choice, prizing and acting opportunities were built into each session with groups I and II. Group III was the control group. McAllister counted the incidence of value related behaviour using scales modified from Raths et al. (1966) during 50 minute sessions over at least four

weeks pre and post treatment.

McAllister (1986) found that there was a significant reduction from pre to post test in the frequency of value-related behaviour for group I students beyond the 0.05 level using the Sign test. He also noted that there was a significant difference between changes in the frequency of value-related behaviour in group I compared with the control group beyond the 0.05 level using non-parametric one-way analysis of variance. Analysis of the clarifying program implemented showed that verbal clarifying responses were used, but since the investigator collected the pre- and post-test data, bias could have affected results. The fact that no significant change was noted between group II pre and post treatment and between group II and the control group indicates that the Hawthorne effect does not in and of itself account for the results.

In discussing the results of the study, McAllister (1986) notes that the students in group II may have been too threatened by the program and lack of structure so that the environment of acceptance and respect may not have been established. He wonders about the impact of this environment on the use of clarifying experiences by the children. "The opportunity for children to express personal and authentic value indicators in the domains of choice, affirmation, and action may be a necessary condition for engaging children in a valuing process that leads to

behaviour change." (p. 142)

McAllister's (1986) results are supported by Lockwood (1978) and Leming (1981). Both authors reviewed the more recent group of Rath's Value Theory researches using doctoral dissertations or their abstracts and found that values clarification has an impact on classroom behaviour consistent with the Value Theory. Leming notes that the evidence is not as strong at the secondary level as at the primary level. Lockwood has reservations about all other treatment effects, including increased value clarity documented by Sklare et al. (1977) because of the threats to internal validity present, inappropriate statistical analyses performed, and/or lack of practical significance found despite statistically significant results. However, Gage (1978) notes that "the invulnerable piece of research in any field of the behavioral sciences is nonexistent" (p. 233).

Research using Rath's Value Theory to facilitate awareness of personal values

The definition section of this literature review describes awareness as the state of perceiving, knowing or inferring from experiences. Research using Rath's Value Theory to facilitate awareness of personal values builds knowledge or understanding of the seven characteristics of the valuing process. The following studies build knowledge

or understanding of one or more of these characteristics.

There is some experimental research evidence that value clarification strategies increase awareness of values. Logan, Jepsen, & Eldridge (1977) found that students moved toward a significantly stronger belief in internal control over personal decisions and satisfactions on the Rotter Internal/External Scale using one factor analysis of covariance ($p < 0.02$). There were no changes between treatment and control groups ($N=28$ in each group) in self-concept using the Adjective Checklist or self-esteem using the Self Esteem Scale for Adolescents.

In this study (Logan et al., 1977), an elective social studies class open to grade eleven and twelve students was co-led by the social studies teacher and the school counselor twice a week for one semester. The rules of the course were reviewed thoroughly in the first few sessions: full participation was encouraged; students were able to pass as they chose; no praise or blame statements were allowed; and strategies focused on the positive aspects of experiences as much as possible. The early classes used structured human relations activities to facilitate comfort with the class and build trust. Then structured value clarification strategies were introduced based on the recurrent behavioral themes from students' everyday lives. Then expressions of personal feelings and concerns were added. The design was not random because of the limits of

scheduling at the school.

Although structured value clarification strategies were used rather than clarifying responses, the research seems to have incorporated some of the crucial elements of nonjudgmental acceptance and prizing of students. Time was allowed for trust to develop before the more challenging aspects of self-disclosure and confrontation were initiated.

Sklare, Markham, & Sklare (1977) compared a value program using structured value clarification strategies with grade ten and eleven students one session a day for ten days with the same program offered one day a week for ten weeks. The sessions were 45 minutes long. Two control groups of students took the same course without the structured value clarification strategies.

The authors (Sklare et al., 1977) used the Prince Differential Values Inventory to determine student's values along a "traditional-emergent" continuum.

The individual must choose one member of the pair and the higher the score on the inventory the more traditional the values set. The traditional values are categorized by Prince as Puritan Morality, Individualism, Work-Success Ethic, and Future-Time Orientation. Emergent values are Sociability, Conformity, Relativism and Present-Time Orientation. (p. 247)

The following are examples of pairs from the inventory:

I ought to:

- 1) A) Work harder than most of those in my class.
B) Work at least as hard as most of those in my class.
- 2) A) Enjoy myself doing many things with others.
B) Enjoy myself doing many things alone. (p. 247)

The inventory assesses the ease or difficulty in selecting by asking the subject to rate it after each choice. This is a five point Likert-like scale.

Sklare et al. (1977) found that the ten week treatment group found it significantly easier to choose between differential values than did the control students ($p < 0.05$). "In fact, the ten week control group found it more difficult to choose on the post-test than they did on the pretest indicating they had more difficulty in conceptualizing their values ten weeks later" (p. 247). There was no difference between the ten day treatment group and the ten day control students before or after training.

There is some qualitative research evidence that value clarification strategies increase awareness of values. The exploratory studies using value clarification strategies showed a change in values (Cauley, & Groves, 1975) or a greater awareness of values (Osman, 1974; Vance, 1974). None of the studies used control groups and the measures used to collect data were self developed, self administered, and untested.

Cauley & Groves (1975) report a case study in which value clarification strategies were used to develop personal awareness of and responsibility toward natural resources. At the end of the semester course, there was a 25% difference between pre and post test scores. The authors inferred that students were more aware of their values re:

natural resources.

Osman (1974) used value clarification strategies in a ten week health education course for 88 future teachers. Using a course valuing scale he developed, Osman found that almost 50 percent of the students rated themselves as having become more involved in the valuing process, 80 percent expressed greater awareness of their values, and 50 percent stated that their speech had become more consistent with their actions as a result of the course.

Vance (1974) describes an exploratory study in which value clarification strategies were used in a high school modern literature class for six weeks to promote personal recognition and growth toward a more unified valuing process. Pre and post tests using the Value Survey and Measures of Self-Consistency were given. Also, written and oral field notes were made. Vance found that value clarification strategies assisted students to become more aware of their value priorities, more sensitive to gaps between their words or ideals and their actions in specific situations, more able to see interrelationships among their diverse traits, more self-aware and able to acknowledge intrinsic feelings and attitudes among students.

The qualitative studies using combinations of clarifying responses and values clarification strategies were somewhat successful in increasing awareness of some personal values (Berger, Hopp., & Raettig, 1975; Silberman,

Cohen, & Runyon, 1979), but again there were no controls and measures were self developed. Both were exploratory studies in health education, the first with patients and the second with dental students.

Berger, Hopp, & Raettig (1975) used a value clarification program as a supplementary education method to assist cardiac patients examine their lifestyle, establish priorities and implement changes. Verbal clarifying responses and value clarification strategies were used in "several" sessions with each patient over a two month period in hospital and home environments. All patients 51-60 years old were able to re-evaluate their lifestyle and priorities, set goals and act on them. Eighty percent of the patients less than 50 years and 37 percent of those over 61 years were unable to do so. Berger et al. think that denial of their level of health seemed to affect the patients ability to set goals and then act on them. Explaining this phenomenon according to Raths Value Theory, those patients who did not perceive the issue as personally relevant, were unable to use the clarifying program. The short treatment period may also have affected the outcomes. There was no control group, so it is unclear how the patients behaviour would have changed without the treatment. Also, it is unclear how much of the sessions focused on value clarification strategies versus clarifying responses.

Silberman, Cohen, & Runyon (1979) organized four - two

hour sessions with senior dental students to explore their personal assumptions and values in relation to their relationships with patients, especially the use of empathy, respect, compassion, sharing, and interdependence. The first session used a case study with small groups of students to help them identify treatment decisions. These decisions were presented to the large group to identify variations within the group and to extrapolate the variations to the general population. The second and third sessions were open-ended discussions of humanistic dimensions of practice and students were encouraged to explore and challenge each others' assumptions. During the fourth session, each student constructed a values grid (a structured value clarification strategy) for some issues to summarize their position. Small groups discussed the positions and identified how they met the seven valuing criteria. Again, it is unclear how much of each session focused on clarifying responses and who used them.

Students (Silberman et al., 1979) commented that the program was moderately successful. Sixty percent ranked the course as three or better (on a five point Likert-like scale) in overall evaluation, session material, and session value. Some students seemed more willing than others to re-examine their former assumptions about the dentist-patient relationship. The post-test questionnaire "demonstrated significant movement in student's responses...indicative of

a least an intellectual reassessment of their prior assumptions ($T=5$; $N=18$; $p < 0.01$)" (Silberman et al., 1979. p.229).

To summarize, there is some evidence to suggest that structured value clarification strategies facilitate knowledge of personal values. The evidence relating clarifying responses to increased personal knowledge is much more unclear. While the relationship is not made clear in the researches, the implication that a relationship exists is clear from the discussion of Carkhuff & Berenson's counselling theory and Raths' Value Theory.

This chapter has described the skills required to facilitate self-exploration and self-understanding, both aspects of self-awareness. The various approaches to values education have been discussed with the most emphasis on Raths' Value Theory. Raths' Value Theory was compared with the skills required to facilitate self-exploration and self-understanding and the other approaches to values education. Two methods of applying the Value Theory were discussed with the clarifying response being highlighted.

A review of Value Theory research identified two separate bodies of research. The initial emphasis on clarifying responses has been replaced by research into structured value clarification strategies.

The present study focuses on two aspects of the value awareness research that merit more consideration; the use of

clarifying responses and their application to groups of students. The next chapter describes the methods and procedures this investigator used to identify the effects of a value clarifying program that incorporates verbal and written clarifying responses on awareness of values in beginning nursing students.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This chapter describes the study design, outlining the methodology and procedures used in the study. The following topics are discussed: (1) the study sample; (2) treatment interventions; (3) instrumentation; (4) the data collection process; and (5) data analysis.

The purpose of this study was to implement a value clarifying program and analyze shifts in the awareness of personal values of beginning nursing students over the course of the program. The study investigated the following two problems:

1. Does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing students' awareness of the values they hold?
2. How does the awareness of personal values shift as the value clarifying program progresses?

The Study Sample

The sample in this study consisted of fourteen volunteer beginning General Nursing students enrolled in a British Columbia post secondary institution. For the Professional Behaviour seminars, they were grouped with four students who elected not to participate in the study. Appendix B contains a sample consent for participation in

the study.

Nursing Programs in British Columbia have various entrance requirements. Some Nursing Programs do not require Grade 12 graduation, health related volunteer experience, or faculty interviews. Some Nursing programs require specific course prerequisites similar to those listed below, others require additional courses, ie. English 100.

The beginning nursing students in this nursing program met the following entrance requirements. First, they underwent a fairly rigorous selection procedure. Students completed grade 12, with at least a C grade in Algebra 11, and with at least C+ grades in Chemistry 11, Chemistry 12 or Biology 12, and English 12. Second, they completed an immunization program and had a satisfactory physical examination by the doctor of their choice. Third, they had a faculty interview which demonstrated satisfactory knowledge of nursing, financial preparation for school, communication skills, and experience in the health care field as a volunteer or employee. Competition for admission was great; approximately 200 students applied for the available 56 seats.

The students in the study sample had a number of other characteristics. Their ages ranged from 17 to 33 years with the median age being 21.5 years. Most of the students were female with three of the fourteen being male (21%). Eleven of the students were single, three were married (21%) and

three had children (21%). Half of the students came from the lower mainland, 42 percent came from Vancouver Island, and 8 percent came from the Okanagan Valley. Half of the students worked full time before coming into the program and all but two worked at least part time or temporarily during the summer. None of the students worked during the term. Nine of the students (64%) had some other post secondary education and one student had a university degree before coming into the program. Five students (36%) had credit for one or more of the Basic Health Science courses taken during the term.

Treatment Interventions

The treatment or value clarifying program consisted of two parts: use of verbal clarifying responses, and use of written clarifying responses. Each is described separately here.

The Professional Behaviour seminars were discussions about professional issues in nursing and took place after students had completed an independent study module which described the knowledge required to understand the topic being discussed. The issues were, student policies, student rights, writing objectives, personal values, professional caring, professional reporting and recording, ethical issues, legal issues, history of nursing, nursing roles, the nursing profession, and delivery of nursing care. All

eighteen students joined with the investigator in the seminar room for the Professional Behaviour component of the nursing course. The verbal clarifying treatment consisted of the investigator using verbal clarifying responses to student expressions during ten 50 minute sessions with the study group over sixteen weeks. This treatment encouraged students to voice value indicators and aspects of choosing, prizing and acting within an environment of acceptance, respect, genuineness, and empathy.

A variety of teaching methods was used in the seminars. The caring and legal/ethical seminars started with thirty minute student group presentations of issues relating to professional caring or legal/ethical issues. The remainder of the two hours allotted to each of these topics was large group discussion of the presentation and/or individual statements or beliefs. The nursing roles session started with a video tape showing current and future roles which the whole group then discussed. Small group (4 students) discussions were used when students were writing objectives and personal values. Whole group discussions formed the major portion of the remainder of the seminars.

The Professional Behaviour seminars included a fifty minute seminar about personal values. The independent study module associated with this topic identified some ways of learning about values and highlighted Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966) as a way of identifying personal values

that guide behaviour. Two value clarification strategies were used in the values independent study module: incomplete value sentences and value ranking. With "incomplete sentences" students were asked to complete sentences like "the biggest decision I ever made was....." (Edwards and Mazzocatto, 1988, p. 42). With "value ranking", students ranked options from most to least important. For example:

Which of these would be most difficult for you to accept?

_____ Death of a parent.
 _____ Death of your spouse or boyfriend.
 _____ Your own death. (Edwards & Mazzocatto, 1988, p. 44)

The value independent study module was followed in the Professional Behaviour seminar by small group discussion of the choices made. The discussion usually emphasized affirming the choice or identifying alternatives and consequences.

The Professional Behaviour topics discussed did not originate with the students. They were identified and ordered by the nursing program's curriculum. However, all discussions focused on student thoughts and feelings about experiences, choices, alternatives, consequences, and actions, some of the seven characteristics of valuing described in Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966, p. 30). Some affirming and prizing was done (more characteristics of Raths' Value Theory), but the action component was limited to verbal expressions of intent.

There were some choices available with this treatment. Students could choose to attend or not, where to sit if they did attend, and to participate in the discussion or not. The opportunities for affirming, prizing, and action varied with the student. The responses were made to student expressions. No attempt was made to force interaction on students. Those who chose to do so had opportunities to affirm and prize choices and to identify potential actions.

The written clarifying response treatment consisted of the investigator writing clarifying responses to students' "value journal" entries. Value journals were the booklets containing the written responses students make to specific questions about their experiences. These journals are described in detail in the next section of this chapter. The fourteen students were asked to make entries in their value journals each week that included actions, thoughts, and feelings related to experiences, as well as considering alternatives and consequences. From this, students were asked to identify the beliefs they had. Therefore, all seven characteristics of the valuing process, choosing freely from alternatives with knowledge of consequences, prizing and cherishing, affirming, and acting would be achieved with this second treatment.

The important aspect of choice would be maintained with this treatment. Students could choose to write or not, which experience to write about, how much or how little to

write, and how much or how little to use the clarifying responses to reflect on their experiences.

Instrumentation

The value journals were used to assess both the increase in values awareness and the shifts in values as the value clarifying program progressed. The students were asked to answer specific questions that asked them to comment on their experiences and discuss the valuing process in relation to them. The questions were initially identified with the assistance of S. Wassermann who conducted a graduate education course at Simon Fraser University in which clarifying responses and Raths' Value Theory were a component (Note 1). The questions were modified based on feedback from a pilot test conducted with a small group of beginning nursing students. The following questions were included in the value journals:

1. Briefly describe a value-related incident which occurred in the clinical area this week.
2. What were your thoughts about the incident (when it occurred)?
3. How did you behave?
4. What factors influenced your thoughts and actions in this incident?
5. What alternative actions might you have chosen?
6. What consequences does each action have?

7. How might you change your behaviour if the incident happened again?
8. What do your thoughts and actions tell you about the beliefs you hold?
9. How much time did it take you to write this journal today?

Initially, students were asked to choose value-related situations from their clinical experiences. However, students wanted to use other experiences as well, so this limit was removed. Also, students were not asked to respond to or comment on the clarifying responses written in the value journals, but some did so.

The investigator met with the students at the beginning of the term to describe the study and the procedure for writing value journals. It was strongly suggested that students answer all the questions, but some found a more unstructured format easier. It was also stressed that students include some of the critical dimensions of valuing, choosing, alternatives, consequences, affirming, prizing, and actions in their value journals and they did so. A copy of the value journal instructions is found in Appendix C.

Data Collection

The students were asked to submit value journals every Friday. The value journals were left for the students to pick up the following Monday morning after clarifying

responses were written in them. For example a student would write about the experience of looking after a dying patient for the clinical day. He or she would describe the situation, the thoughts and feelings that arose from it, the actions taken, the alternative actions, the consequences, and the beliefs highlighted by the situation. The investigator would paraphrase what the student wrote and ask questions to extend or challenge the thoughts. The students' writing in the value journals formed the qualitative data for the study.

Only nine of the fourteen students submitted value journals and no student participated to the full extent in writing value journals every week. Students commented that the pressure of other commitments, usually family or studies, interfered with their ability to write weekly. Students also commented that sometimes they did not experience a value related situation during the week. While this reduced the amount of data available for analysis, the investigator chose to allow students these options rather than making the value journals mandatory so that the students were in control of their participation in the study.

Data Analysis

To facilitate the analysis of the qualitative data, the value journals were coded using codes derived from Raths'

Value Theory and the research problems. The codes derived from Raths Value Theory were based on the seven characteristics of the valuing process and the eight value indicators. The codes derived from the research problems were based on the week the journal was written, the time it took to write the journal, the level of student self-disclosure, the level of student self-analysis, and the level of student acceptance of responsibility for own actions. The specific codes are listed below. The codes with definitions are listed in Appendix D.

Raths Value Theory codes:

Valuing process - free choice, many alternatives, thoughtful consequence, affirmation, prizing, action, and repeated action.

Value indicator - purpose, aspiration, attitude/belief/conviction, interest, feeling, activity, and worry. (Attitudes, beliefs, and convictions were collapsed from two codes to one because the original definitions were so close.)

Research problem codes:

Week the value journal was written - 1 to 17.

Time to write the value journal - less than 15 minutes, 15 to 30 minutes, and greater than 30 minutes.

Level of student self-disclosure - does not volunteer additional or personally relevant information; reveals personal ideas, feelings, and experiences in a general way; and volunteers specific, personally relevant information.

Level of student self-analysis - answers questions briefly but makes no extension or analysis of the thought; extends or critically analyses some aspects of the written thoughts; and challenges own written thoughts.

Responsibility codes - external environment responsible for actions; other people responsible for actions; and own self responsible for actions.

Units of Analysis were derived from segments of sentences, complete sentences, or several sentences in the value journal in which there was a major thought or feeling related directly to the data codes. The units of analysis were first assessed for applicability of Raths' Value Theory codes, the week codes and the time codes. Once this was done, the student self-disclosure, self-awareness, and responsibility codes were assigned to several units of analysis.

The value journals were coded by the researcher and another coder. Both coders had taken a graduate education course using Raths' Value Theory as the foundation of values related communication with students. The researcher identified the units of analysis, then she and the second coder assigned codes to them using the definitions provided. No additional coaching was given to the second coder so that the clarity of the code definitions could be identified. When all the journals were coded, discrepancies between the two coders were examined to identify the source of the discrepancy and decisions made about the code to apply.

The coding procedure required at least some degree of inference to be drawn from the student's value journals. Those value journals which followed the value journal questions exactly required less inference for the

application of Raths' Value Theory codes, but the student self-disclosure, self-analysis, and self-responsibility codes required a high degree of inference. Those value journals which did not follow the value journal questions exactly required a high degree of inference for all code applications. This subjectivity was required in order to relate the students' thoughts as recorded in the value journals to Raths' Value Theory.

The inter-coder reliability for all journals averaged 82 percent and the median was 85 percent. (The inter-coder reliability was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the total number of agreements and disagreements. Miles & Huberman, 1984.) The mean inter-coder reliability was lowered by the inter-coder reliability of the first two value journals coded. In these value journals, the choice code and the student self-analysis codes were used with personal definitions by the second coder. Once the third value journal was coded, the inter-coder reliability was 80 percent or higher.

Most of the discrepancies between the codes assigned by the two coders was due to use of personal definitions for codes instead of the definitions provided. Also, some difficulties arose because some value journals dealt primarily with student feelings, not value related thoughts. In this case, some of Raths' Value Theory codes were difficult to apply.

The investigator recoded a randomly chosen value journal entry two weeks after the initial coding. The intra-coder reliability was 87 percent.

The first research question, "does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing students' awareness of the values they hold?" was assessed using a matrix which identified the incidence of the seven valuing characteristics each week for each student. The matrix is shown in Figure 3-1.

Figure 3-1. SAMPLE MATRIX FOR DATA ANALYSIS

<u>JOURNAL #1</u>	<u>Week</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>17</u>
<u>FCHO</u>																		
<u>TCON</u>																		
<u>MALT</u>																		
<u>PRI</u>																		
<u>AFF</u>																		
<u>ACT</u>																		
<u>RACT</u>																		

With this method it was easy to identify values as defined by Raths' Value Theory and to identify the incidence of these values over time. Because of the non-random nature of student selection, the lack of a control group, the limited number of students participating in the

study (only six submitted value journals until the end of the term; the other three stopped at midterm) and the irregular submission of the value journals, it was decided not to use statistical procedures to analyze the frequencies identified.

The second research question, "how does the awareness of personal values shift as the value clarifying program progresses?" was assessed using matrices similar to the one shown in Figure 3-1. The time taken to record the value journal each week was compared with the week it was written and the presence of a "value" in the journal. Also, the level of student self-analysis, self-disclosure, and responsibility were compared with the week the value journal was written. The question was also assessed by reviewing the journals themselves for obvious trends and characteristics which might be relevant to the study.

This chapter has described the study sample, the treatment interventions, the instrumentation, the data collection process and the data analysis. The outcomes of the analysis are described in Chapter IV, Findings.

CHAPTER IV

Findings

The purpose of this study was to analyze beginning nursing students' shifts in awareness of personal values following participation in a value clarifying program that used investigator verbal and written clarifying responses. The qualitative data in the student kept value journals was assessed to investigate the two research problems:

1. Does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing student's awareness of the values they hold?
2. How does the awareness of personal values shift as the value clarifying program progresses?

The results of the assessments related to these two questions are presented in the first section. The second section includes an analysis of the investigator's verbal interactions in the value clarifying program. A discussion of the findings appears in Chapter V, Discussion, Conclusions, and Implications.

Results

The value journals provided a lot of qualitative data related to the two research questions. The situations students chose to record were a rich source of value indicators. Student attitudes, beliefs, or convictions,

feelings, activities, and worries accounted for about 90 percent of the recorded value indicators while purposes, aspirations and interests accounted for the remainder. Also, students did record all seven of the valuing characteristics in the value journals.

Problem #1 - Does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing students' awareness of the values they hold?

Using the matrix shown in Figure 3-1, it was identified that no student recorded a value as defined by Raths' Value Theory (Raths et al., 1966, p. 30). That is, no student described all seven characteristics of the valuing process in relation to a value: freely choosing from many alternatives after thoughtful considerations of consequences, prizing and affirming the choice to others, and acting repeatedly on the choice. Therefore the investigator was unable to assess shifts in values as defined by Raths' Value Theory.

All students failed to record at least one of the seven valuing characteristics for each value. The most frequently missed characteristic was repeated action. The other two most frequently missed were affirming the choice and identifying thoughtful consequences of the choice or alternatives. Those students who answered the questions as stated in the instructions for the value journals tended to

include more of the valuing characteristics than those students who wrote in a less structured format. In fact, those students using an unstructured format often focused on the feelings provoked by the situation rather than reflecting on their thoughts. Table 4-1 shows the data related to format and focus.

Table 4-1 JOURNAL FOCUS RELATED TO JOURNAL FORMAT

FORMAT	FOCUS		
	Feelings	Thoughts	Thoughts & Feelings
Structured	N = 1/9 11%		N = 3/9 33%
Unstructured	N = 4/9 44%		N = 1/9 11%

Problem #2 - How does the awareness of personal values shift as the value clarifying program progresses?

To identify shifts over time, value journal entries were divided into those written in weeks one to eight and those written in weeks nine to seventeen. Three students stopped submitting value journals by week eight, so data from their value journals was not included in the analysis. The remaining six value journals were analyzed using the codes described in Chapter III.

1. Valuing characteristics

During several weeks, four of the six students

submitted value journals that included all but the action or repeated action characteristic of valuing. One student (journal #3) submitted one in the first eight weeks. Two of the students (journal #1 & #2) submitted one in the first eight weeks, and one in the last nine weeks. One student (journal #4) submitted one in the first eight weeks and two in the last nine weeks. Figure 4-1 shows when these journal entries occurred.

Figure 4-1. DISTRIBUTION OF JOURNAL ENTRIES THAT INCLUDED FIVE VALUING CHARACTERISTICS

	WEEKS																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
5 VALUING CHARACTERISTICS TO AFFIRMING	1*			2										1				2
					3									4				4

* numbers refer to value journal numbers

Four journal entries in weeks 1-8 noted the valuing characteristics to affirming ($4/32 = 13\%$ of journal entries) and four journal entries in weeks 9-17 noted the valuing characteristics to affirming ($4/29 = 14\%$ of journal entries). There doesn't seem to be a change in this aspect of valuing over the course of the value clarifying program.

The students would have had more value journals that included all but the action and/or repeated action characteristic of valuing if they had indicated a clear

choice of the alternatives discussed. This was especially problematic for four of the six students during weeks one to eight. Until that time, the situations they described generated feelings that seemed to be unresolved and the beliefs identified did not relate directly to the activities and alternatives mentioned in relation to the situation. During the last nine weeks, a clear choice was made with one exception and the beliefs identified did relate directly to the activities and alternatives mentioned in relation to the situation. Feelings continued to be a focus for two of the students during the last nine weeks, but this was not the only theme of the value journal entry.

The format used by the students who continued to record journals in weeks nine to seventeen did not relate to the incidence of the five valuing characteristics. Two of the students answered the questions as outlined in the value journal instructions and two students used an unstructured diary type format.

2. Time to record the value journal

The time it took to record the value journal each week was not noted consistently by the students. Some started out noting the time and then stopped, while others did not note it at all. For the four students who noted the time to record value journals each week, it tended to take less time to record value journals in the second nine weeks than the

first eight weeks. Table 4-2 shows the changes between the two periods.

Table 4-2. CHANGES IN TIME TO RECORD OVER THE COURSE OF THE VALUE CLARIFYING PROGRAM

	WEEKS	
	1 - 8	9 - 17
NUMBER OF ENTRIES	17	14
TIME TO RECORD	m = 50 min. x = 55 min. r = 20-120	m = 30 min. x = 37 min. r = 15-60

It is interesting to note that the three students who stopped recording journals by week eight took less time to write the journals than those who carried on into weeks nine to seventeen. The number of entries was 11, the median was 30 minutes, the average was 31 minutes, and the range was 10-60 minutes.

Because there were so few instances in which value journals included all valuing characteristics except action or repeated action and not all of these noted time to record, it is not possible to note potential relationships between them. The data are displayed in Table 4-3.

3. Level of Student Self-Disclosure

There was a slight reduction in the level of student self-disclosure over the course of the value clarifying program. There was a slight increase in the incidence of

Table 4-3. JOURNALS THAT INCLUDED FIVE VALUING CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO TIME TO RECORD

TIME TO RECORD	WEEKS	
	1 - 8	9 - 12
JOURNAL # 1	none given	none given
JOURNAL # 2	90 min.	none given
JOURNAL # 3	45 min.	
JOURNAL # 4	60 min.	60 min. & 30 min.

"no self-disclosure" from 28 percent of entries to 31 percent of entries, a slight increase in "general self-disclosure" from 50 percent to 55 percent of entries, and a large reduction in "specific self-disclosure" from 22 percent to 14 percent of entries. Even when the codes "general" and "specific self-disclosure" are combined, there is a slight reduction from 71 percent to 69 percent of entries. Table 4-4 shows the data on student self-disclosure.

Table 4-4. CHANGE IN THE LEVEL OF STUDENT SELF-DISCLOSURE OVER THE COURSE OF THE VALUE CLARIFYING PROGRAM

	WEEKS	
	1 - 8	9 - 17
NO SELF-DISCLOSURE	N = 9/32 28%	N = 9/29 31%
GENERAL SELF-DISCLOSURE	N = 16/32 50%	N = 16/29 55%
SPECIFIC SELF-DISCLOSURE	N = 7/32 22%	N = 4/29 14%

4. Level of Student Self-Analysis

There was quite a considerable increase in student self-analysis over the course of the value clarifying program. The incidence of "no self-analysis" reduced from 41 percent of journal entries in weeks 1-8 to 24 percent of the journal entries in weeks 9-17. The incidence of "extends or critically analyzes own thoughts" increased from 47 percent to 72 percent of journal entries and the incidence of "challenges own thoughts" reduced from 13 percent to 3 percent of journal entries. When "extends or critically analyses own thoughts" was added to "challenges own thoughts" the frequency increased from 57 percent of journal entries in weeks 1-8 to 76 percent of journal entries in weeks 9-17. The data on student self-analyses are shown in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5. CHANGE IN THE LEVEL OF STUDENT SELF-ANALYSIS OVER THE COURSE OF THE VALUE CLARIFYING PROGRAM


	WEEKS	
	1 - 8	9 - 17
NO SELF - ANALYSIS	N = 13/32 41%	N = 7/29 24%
CRITICALLY ANALYSES OWN THOUGHTS	N = 15/32 47%	N = 21/29 72%
CHALLENGES OWN THOUGHTS	N = 4/32 13%	N = 1/29 3%

5. Level of Student Responsibility for Own Behaviour

There was movement away from responsibility for own behaviour over the course of the value clarifying program. The incidence of "external environment responsible" for student behaviour remained the same at 3 percent of journal entries in weeks 1-8 and 9-17. The incidence of "other people responsible" for student behaviour increased from 22 percent to 45 percent of journal entries and the incidence of "own self responsible" for behaviour declined from 31 percent to 10 percent of journal entries. Some journal entries noted a shift from "other people responsible" to "own self responsible" over the course of the same journal entry. The incidence of this phenomenon showed a slight decrease from 44 percent to 41 percent of journal entries. Table 4-6 shows the data for student responsibility.


Table 4-6. CHANGE IN THE LEVEL OF STUDENT RESPONSIBILITY OVER THE COURSE OF THE VALUE CLARIFYING PROGRAM

	WEEKS	
	1 - 8	9 - 17
ENVIRONMENT RESPONSIBLE	N = 1/32 3%	N = 1/29 3%
OTHER PEOPLE RESPONSIBLE	N = 7/32 22%	N = 13/29 45%
MOVEMENT FROM OTHER PEOPLE TO OWN SELF RESPONSIBLE	N = 14/32 44%	N = 12/29 41%
OWN SELF RESPONSIBLE	N = 10/32 31%	N = 3/29 10%



When the student self-disclosure, self-analysis, and responsibility data were added to the matrix showing the distribution of value journal entries that included five of the valuing characteristics (to affirming) some interesting data became evident. Two journal entries had "no self-analysis" and three journal entries had "no self-disclosure". Clearly, it was possible for students to identify value characteristics by just answering the value journal questions. No additional self-disclosure or self-analysis was required (All the journal entries with "no self-disclosure" were from one student). All these journal entries either moved from "other people responsible" to "own self responsible" or were completely "own self responsible". This contrasts with the data from all journal entries. The data on student self-disclosure, self-analysis, and responsibility in the journal entries that included five valuing characteristics are shown in Table 4-7.

4. Other qualitative findings



In several value journal entries, some of the consequences expected by the student were not reasonable or a reasonably expected consequence of an alternative was not mentioned. An example of an unreasonable consequence would be "everyone will hate me if I say what I think". An example of a reasonably expected consequence would be that the patient would be upset if left for a long time without

Table 4-7. LEVEL OF STUDENT SELF-DISCLOSURE, SELF-ANALYSIS & RESPONSIBILITY COMPARED WITH JOURNAL ENTRIES THAT INCLUDED FIVE VALUING CHARACTERISTICS

	WEEKS			
	1 - 8		9 - 17	
<u>JOURNAL #1</u>	GSD NSA OPR -- OSR		GSD CA OPR -- OSR	
<u>JOURNAL #2</u>	SSD COT OPR -- OSR		GSD CA OSR	
<u>JOURNAL #3</u>	SSD CA OSR			
<u>JOURNAL #4</u>	NSD CA OPR -- OSR		NSD CA OPR -- OSR	NSD NSA OSR

NSD - no self-disclosure NSA - no self-analysis
 GSD - general self-disclosure CA - critical analysis
 SSD - specific self-disclosure COT - challenges own thoughts
 OPR - other people responsible
 OSR - own self responsible

care. However, this consequence was not mentioned. This phenomenon occurred most frequently during Weeks 1-8 (9/32 = 28%). During weeks 9-17 it occurred only twice (2/29 = 7%).

One student thanked the investigator for helping to explore feelings.

Investigator Verbal Interactions

Data regarding the investigator's verbal interactions with students during the Professional Behaviour seminars was collected to verify that verbal clarifying responses were

used during that part of the value clarifying program.

From audiotape records of every session, a randomly selected five minute interval was selected for coding analysis. When the audiotapes were being coded, one had no sound recorded. This tape was not included in the data assessed.

The coding was done by the investigator who had taken a course in Raths' Value Theory and verbal clarifying responses (Note 1). She assessed the audiotapes using coding guidelines and recording sheets from McAllister (1986). Appendix E contains the coding guidelines and recording sheets. The guidelines were adapted from Raths et al. (1966) and Wassermann (McAllister, 1986, p.101). McAllister developed the system for recording the responses.

There was a degree of subjectivity in the coding application. This subjectivity was required to assess the fit between investigator responses and the code definitions. However, it was important to identify the use of clarifying responses in value clarifying programs so that inferences about the effectiveness of the program could be made.

There were some difficulties in analyzing the audiotapes. One of the randomly selected five minute intervals selected for coding was of a student-led discussion so no investigator responses occurred during that interval. Another interval was independent student case work. During both of these intervals, students questioned

and challenged each other and the investigator was silent. These two intervals, combined with the one audiotape that was completely blank meant that only seven of the randomly selected five minute intervals contained investigator responses.

Analysis of the portions of the audiotapes produced data on three types of investigator verbal interactions in the value clarifying program: verbal clarifying responses, directive responses, and management responses. The coding procedure yielded data on: the incidence of each type of response, the median duration of each type of response, and the median elapse time between responses of the same type. The data are summarized in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8 shows that the investigator talked 30 percent of the seminar time; that she usually began a verbal interaction every ten seconds; and that the usual duration of a response was five seconds. Most of the interactions occurred while all seminar members were attending to the investigator. A few interactions occurred when talking privately with a student.

Verbal Clarifying Responses

Verbal clarifying responses are investigator responses which attend directly to the student's idea, attend and ask the student to examine critically an aspect of the statement, or challenge the student's thinking about the

Table 4-8. INVESTIGATOR VERBAL INTERACTIONS - SUMMARY DATA

<u>Interaction Type</u>	<u>Interaction Variable</u>	
	% Investigator Talk	30
	Total Time (sec.)	2700
ALL RESPONSES	Number of Responses	94
	Median Length of Responses (sec.)	5
	Range in Length of Responses	2.5-55
	Median Elapse Time Between All Responses (sec.)	10

VERBAL CLARIFYING RESPONSES	Number of Responses	53
	Median Length of Responses (sec.)	5
	Range in Length of Responses	2.5-15
	Median Elapse Time Between Responses (sec.)	14

DIRECTIVE RESPONSES	Number of Responses	24
	Median Length of Responses (sec.)	11
	Range on Length of Responses	2.5-55
	Median Elapse Time Between Responses (sec.)	15

MANAGEMENT RESPONSES	Number of Responses	17
	Median Length of Responses (sec.)	5
	Range in Length of Responses	2.5-30
	Median Elapse Time Between Responses (sec.)	23

idea. They may paraphrase the students' responses or take the form of a clarifying question.

During the Professional Behaviour seminar portion of the Value Clarifying Program, clarifying responses accounted for 56 percent of the investigator responses. There were more verbal clarifying responses than the other two types of responses combined. The investigator used verbal clarifying responses frequently, approximately every 15 seconds. These responses usually lasted five seconds and ranged from 2.5-15 seconds. The verbal clarifying responses were consistently short and frequent.

Directive Responses

Directive responses are investigator responses which react to students' statements by agreeing or disagreeing, leading or manipulating, giving an opinion or idea, praising, or providing an answer.

During the Professional Behaviour seminar portion of the value clarifying program, directive responses accounted for 27 percent of investigator responses. These responses usually lasted 11 seconds and occurred every 15 seconds. However, the 2.5-55 seconds range in length of response was considerably greater than for verbal clarifying responses so that the percentage of investigator response time for directive responses was 44 percent. Table 4-9 compares the percent of time occupied by the three responses.

Table 4-9. COMPARISON OF TIME FOR INVESTIGATOR RESPONSES

	<u>TIME TAKEN</u>	<u>NUMBER OF RESPONSES</u>
VERBAL CLARIFYING RESPONSES	35%	56%
DIRECTIVE RESPONSES	45%	27%
MANAGEMENT RESPONSES	20%	18%

Management Responses

Management responses are investigator responses which are used to manage or promote students' participation in the seminar, manage student behaviour, or share experiences or feelings unrelated to the topic.

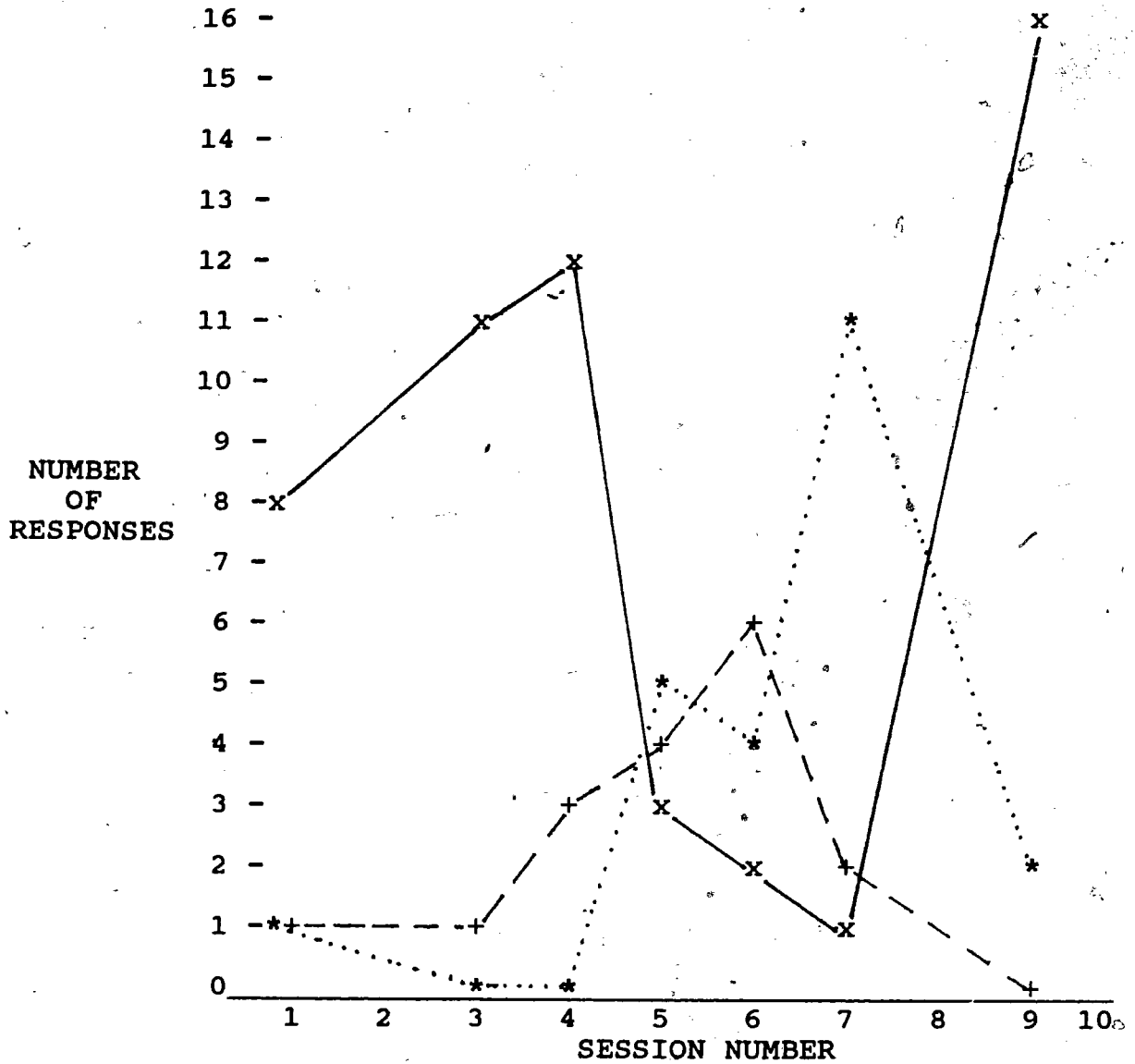
During the Professional Behaviour seminar portion of the value clarifying program, management responses accounted for 18 percent of investigator responses. These responses usually occurred approximately every 23 seconds and lasted five seconds. The range in the length of management responses was 2.5-30 seconds.

Response frequency

The frequency of each type of investigator response during each session was examined to identify their use throughout this portion of the value clarifying program. The graph showing the frequency of responses in each session is illustrated in Figure 4-2.

Figure 4-2 illustrates the incidence of each type of response in a session and compares it to the incidence of

Figure 4-2. INCIDENCE OF RESPONSES IN EACH SESSION



x = verbal clarifying response x x
 * = directive responses *.....*.....*.....*.....*.....
 + = management responses + + +

Note: Session 2, 8, & 10 contained no investigator responses.

the other types of responses. For example, during session three, there were 11 clarifying responses, no directive responses, and one management response.

Of the seven intervals in which the investigator spoke, four intervals contained predominantly verbal clarifying responses. These intervals contained 87 percent of the investigator verbal clarifying responses counted for all the intervals. The topics of the seminars from which these intervals were taken were Caring Part I, Caring Part II, Nursing History and Profession, and Student Policies and Rights.

Of the seven intervals in which the investigator spoke, two intervals contained predominantly directive responses. These intervals contained 70 percent of the investigator's directive responses for all the intervals. The topics of the seminars from which these two intervals were taken were Legal and Ethical Issues Part I and Charting Part I.

Management responses were more evenly distributed among the seven intervals. All but two of the intervals contained investigator management responses. Of the seven intervals in which the investigator spoke, one interval contained predominately management responses. This interval contained 35 percent of the investigator management responses counted for all the intervals. The topic of the seminar from which this interval was taken was Charting Part II.

Investigator Written Responses

Data regarding the investigator's written responses in student value journals were collected to verify that written clarifying responses were used during that part of the value clarifying program.

An entry from each value journal was randomly selected for coding analysis. The coding was done by the investigator who had taken a course in Rath's Value Theory and written clarifying responses (Note 1). She assessed the journal entry using the coding guidelines from McAllister (1986). These guidelines were adapted from Rath et al. (1966) and Wassermann (McAllister, 1986, p.101). Appendix E contains the coding guidelines.

There was a degree of subjectivity in the coding application. This subjectivity was required to assess the fit between investigator responses and the code definitions. However, it was important to identify the use of clarifying responses in value clarifying programs so that inferences about the effectiveness of the program could be made.

Analysis of the value journal entries produced data on three types of investigator written responses in the value clarifying program: clarifying responses, directive responses, and management responses. The coding procedure yielded data on: the incidence of response, the median length of responses, and the median number of student words between responses. These data are summarized in Table 4-10.

Table 4-10. INVESTIGATOR WRITTEN RESPONSES - SUMMARY DATA

<u>Interaction Type</u>	<u>Interaction Variable</u>	
	% Investigator words	34
	Total words	4065
ALL RESPONSES	Number of Responses	93
	Median Length of Responses (words)	15
	Range in Length of Responses	5-45
	Median Number of Words Between Responses	25
	Range in Number of Words Between Responses	0-130

WRITTEN CLARIFYING RESPONSES	Number of Responses	93
	Median Length of Responses (words)	15
	Range in Length of Responses	5-45
	Median Number of Words Between Responses	25

DIRECTIVE RESPONSES	Number of Responses	0

MANAGEMENT RESPONSES	Number of Responses	0

Table 4-10 shows that the investigator used only clarifying responses when writing in the value journals, that she usually made a response after the student wrote 25 words, and that the usual duration of the response was 15 words.

However, the directions for writing the value journals were given before the initial journal was submitted, and the value journal instructions were stapled onto the front cover of each journal. Therefore, for those students who chose to follow the instructions, there were written management responses for every value journal entry.

Summary of Findings

Qualitative data has been presented that relate to the two research problems and the investigator's verbal interactions. Since no student recorded all seven valuing characteristics, the increase in values over the course of the value clarifying program could not be assessed.

Several changes occurred over the course of the value clarifying program. The six students who submitted value journals throughout the 17 weeks tended to take less time to record their value journal entries and expressed more self-analysis over the course of the value clarifying program. Unreasonable or not considered consequences decreased. These students tended to use slightly less self-disclosure and moved away from self-responsibility for behaviour over

the course of the value clarifying program. Also, for four of the six students there was increased ability to make clear choices, focus on thoughts as well as feelings, and relate stated beliefs to activities and alternatives described.

Four value journals which included five of the valuing characteristics (to affirming) were submitted in weeks 1-8 and 9-17. These entries showed movement towards self-responsibility for behaviour. They also showed that it was possible to record five of the valuing characteristics without additional self-disclosure or self-analysis.

There were differences in the investigator's pattern of interaction throughout the value clarifying program. For the verbal interactions, the majority of sessions contained predominantly verbal clarifying responses and the majority of responses were verbal clarifying responses. However, directive responses accounted for more investigator interaction time than either clarifying or management responses and most sessions contained some management responses. All the written responses were clarifying responses. They were used frequently and were usually short.

The next chapter of this thesis discusses these findings, suggests interpretations of these findings and examines some implications.

CHAPTER V

Discussion, Conclusions, and Implications

This chapter discusses the results of the study in relation to the two research problems:

- (1) Does the use of clarifying responses increase beginning nursing student's awareness of the values they hold? and
- (2) How does the awareness of personal values shift as the value clarifying program progresses?

It also includes the analysis of the investigator's verbal interactions and written responses as a means of determining the extent to which clarifying responses were, in fact, used in response to students' statements. Conclusions are drawn based on the results. Implications of the study and implications for further research are also presented.

Discussion of Results

For the purposes of this study, the term value indicator was used to refer to goals or purposes, aspirations, feelings, interests, beliefs or convictions, attitudes, activities, and worries that students express. The term clarifying response was used to describe a verbal or written response to those statements that demonstrates nonjudgmental acceptance of the statements and/or invites analysis of the thought. The term value clarifying program

was used to refer to conditions that encourage students' expressions of value indicators, involve students in the process of choosing, affirming, and acting, and include a teacher's use of verbal and written clarifying responses to these expressions.

The value clarifying program was structured to encourage students' expression of value indicators and elements of the valuing process. It included:

- (a) opportunities for students to choose group presentation topics and/or value journal experiences of personal interest;
- (b) opportunities for students to discuss ideas that arose spontaneously during Professional Behaviour seminars or when writing value journals;
- (c) opportunities for students to consider consequences and alternatives to activities described in seminars and value journals;
- (d) opportunities for students to affirm and prize the choice of group presentation topic, the completed group presentation, and/or the beliefs and actions described in value journals;
- (e) opportunities for students to affirm personal beliefs, preferences, or ideas during group discussion in the seminars;
- (f) opportunities for students to act on the chosen group presentation topic and/or value journal

beliefs systematically;

- (g) opportunities for students to consider past or possible future action related to beliefs, preferences, or ideas discussed in the seminars and the value journals.

In Chapter II, Raths' Value Theory was compared to Carkhuff and Berenson's (1976) counselling theory which aims to facilitate self-exploration and self-understanding, both aspects of self-awareness. Teacher nonjudgmental acceptance, genuineness and respect, and student personal reflection advocated in Raths' Value Theory are important conditions that facilitate self-exploration in the counselling theory. Wassermann's (1985) addition of paraphrasing to the list of clarifying responses means that one aspect of empathy, the crucial verbal response in self-exploration, is included in the Value Theory also. Clarifying responses also include aspects of personalizing that facilitate self-understanding in the counselling theory.

The relationship between Raths' three theories of teaching children was also presented in Chapter III. Regular experiences with specific thinking, valuing or security activities over extended periods of time will reduce behaviours related to deficiencies in either emotional security, thinking or valuing.

In Chapter II, a summary of the literature review done

by McAllister (1986) noted that clarifying programs which incorporate one-on-one teacher-student interaction with verbal clarifying responses may positively effect student value-related behaviour. Positive value-related behaviour is that which is more purposeful, zestful, committed, consistent, and critically thoughtful. A later group of investigations which used the structured value clarification strategies with groups of students (Leming, 1981; Lockwood, 1978; McAllister, 1986) had similar results. Despite flaws in both groups of investigations; there was some indication that value clarifying programs affect student behaviour (McAllister, 1986).

Chapter II also reviewed McAllister's (1986) investigation into the use of verbal clarifying responses with groups of six students in grade six. There was a significant reduction in the frequency of value-related behaviour for one group of students. He wonders if the lack of structure and unfamiliarity with the value clarifying program may have threatened students in the second group so that the important environment of acceptance and respect was not established. This environment may be crucial in facilitating or hindering the use of clarifying experiences by the students (McAllister, 1986).

Other experimental and qualitative studies which included structured value clarification strategies in the value clarifying program showed some evidence that some

kinds of awareness increased after the treatment. Variables of internal control over personal decisions (Logan et al, 1977), ease in choosing differential values (Sklare et al, 1977), change in values (Cauley & Groves, 1975), and awareness of values (Osman, 1974; Vance, 1974) were investigated, but the research methodology was suspect. Some qualitative studies which included clarifying responses and structured value clarification strategies were somewhat successful in increasing awareness of personal values (Berger et al, 1975; Silberman et al, 1979), but again the research methodology was flawed.

This study focused on aspects of the research that merited more consideration: the inclusion of verbal and written clarifying responses in the value clarifying program, their application to groups of students, and the changes in awareness of personal values using the seven characteristics of valuing described in Raths Value Theory as the variable under investigation.

This study analyzed the effect of participation in a value clarifying program on awareness of personal values in a group of beginning nursing students. The students volunteered to participate in a regularly scheduled seminar and to submit value journals which were extra work. Students were allowed to withdraw as they chose. In the end, only nine students submitted value journals and only six of those students submitted value journals into the

second half of the value clarifying program.

Awareness of personal values

The qualitative data presented in Chapter IV indicates that no student recorded a value as defined by Raths et al. (1966, 1978). Also, there were no changes in the incidence of value journals which included five of the valuing characteristics from the first to the second half of the study (Figure 4-1) so there was no shift in the awareness of values.

Several shifts did occur over the course of the value clarifying program. The students tended to take less time to record their value journal entries (Table 4-2) and expressed more self-analysis (Table 4-5). Unreasonable or unconsidered consequences decreased. These students tended to use slightly less self-disclosure (Table 4-4) and moved away from self-responsibility for behaviour (Table 4-6). Also, there was increased ability to record clear choices, focus on thoughts as well as feelings, and relate stated beliefs to activities and alternatives for some students.

In the value journals which included five of the valuing characteristics (choice, alternatives, consequences, prizing and affirming), there was movement toward self-responsibility for behaviour (Table 4-7). These value journal entries demonstrated that students could record the valuing characteristics by answering the questions outlined

in the value journal instructions. Appendix D contains these instructions.

A difficulty exists concerning the reliability of the qualitative data. Inter-coder discussion of code definitions did not take place until after all the value journals were coded so that the use of personal definitions for codes was not identified until discrepancies were noted. The mean inter-coder reliability of 82 percent is low compared to the recommended 90 percent (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Also, the discussion of discrepant codes made it possible for a dominant personality to sway the decision on the final code application.

Another difficulty exists in the validity of the qualitative data. The number of students who participated into the second half of the investigation period was only six of the fourteen students who volunteered initially. Also, no student participated to the fullest extent in submitting value journals every week. Data on the reason for withdrawal and inconsistent participation was not systematically collected. Also, there was no control group with which to compare data so that changes in all students over time could not be identified. These problems of small sample size, non-random assignment, and lack of a control group are common to previous studies of value awareness (Leming, 1981; Lockwood, 1978). They are also common to studies that are done in real life situations, where

conditions continually shift (Schon, 1983).

However, the value journals were found to contain expression of all value indicators except interests. Also, students recorded all of the seven valuing characteristics at some time in their value journals. Certainly the qualitative data has face validity in that it relates directly to Raths' Value Theory, and in that way addresses one of the difficulties in past value awareness studies.

Discussion and Interpretation

The qualitative data generated by the value journals, though unreliable in allowing generalizable findings, may never the less give some insights into the process of valuing for the beginning nursing students.

1. Student Self-disclosure

Clearly, the majority of the beginning nursing students (eight of nine) had a need to deal with the feelings generated by the experiences (mainly related to clinical nursing) described in the value journals (Figure 4-1). However, clarifying responses reflect and/or stimulate thoughts. They do not deal with feelings directly. It is not surprising then that student self-disclosure decreased over the course of the Value Clarifying Program.

Despite this reduction in student self-disclosure, feelings continued to be a value journal theme for students.

For some students (four of nine), feelings were the only theme of their value journal entries (Figure 4-1). So, in spite of repeated responses which did not deal with their feelings directly, students continued to focus on them. One student thanked the investigator for helping to explore feelings! Perhaps the nonjudgmental acceptance, genuineness, and respect coupled with paraphrasing was enough to maintain the focus on feelings, but not enough to stimulate the exploration of feelings. This lack of self-exploration would be predicted by the counselling theory (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976) because the essential empathic response was not included in its entirety.

Raths' (1972) hierarchy of student achievement: (1st) physical health, (2nd) emotional security, (3rd) thinking skills, and then (4th) personal values may also help to place this phenomenon in perspective. He suggests that students meet their need for emotional security before dealing with their need for clear personal values "although with many children we would meet needs and clarify values together" (Raths et al., 1966, p.200). Perhaps the beginning nursing students' focus on feelings was an indication of their unmet emotional needs. The Value Clarifying Program did not include a strategy to deal with unmet emotional needs simultaneously with value clarification. This may account for the absence of finding all seven valuing characteristics present in student

discussions of a situation and the lack of change in the number of value journal entries which included five of the valuing characteristics (to affirming).

2. Student Self-analysis

Clarifying responses aim to facilitate thoughtful consideration of the valuing characteristics so it is not surprising that the incidence of unreasonable or unconsidered outcomes decreased or that the ability to record clear choices, focus on thoughts as well as feelings, and relate stated beliefs to activities and alternatives increased.

The ability of clarifying responses to reflect and/or stimulate thought may also account for the increased student self-analysis over the course of the Value Clarifying Program. This occurred in spite of the fact that no self-analysis was required of students. They could just answer the value journal questions. Because of this, the increase in student self-analysis is likely not only due to an increased familiarity with writing journals.

Carkhuff and Berenson (1976) relate personalizing skills to increased self-understanding in their counselling theory. The personalizing skills of adding to helpee expressions, identifying the meaning of expressions and identifying themes in statements are similar to the types of clarifying responses listed in Group A on the Coding

Sheet for Clarifying Responses found in Appendix A. Perhaps these few personalizing skills were sufficient to stimulate self-analysis, but not sufficient to achieve self-understanding. The data do not adequately inform these findings.

However, the increased self-analysis may be due to other experiences in the nursing program. Perhaps the nursing program incorporates regular, repeated use of thinking exercises so that students become more thoughtful, independent, flexible and confident as advocated in Raths' Thinking Theory (Raths et al., 1966). These experiences may encourage beginning nursing students to be thoughtful about their experiences thereby increasing the incidence of self-analysis recorded in the value journals.

3. Time to Record

The reduction in time taken to record is difficult to interpret because students recorded it inconsistently. The tendency to take less time may be due to familiarity with writing journals or it could be due to clearer thinking and/or valuing. It could also be attributed to factors that lie outside the scope of this study. The data do not adequately inform understanding on this issue.

4. Student Responsibility for Behaviour

The change in the level of student responsibility may

be due to the change in the focus on feelings over the course of the Value Clarifying Program. Perhaps when personal feelings are discussed, it is difficult to avoid ownership of them. As thought becomes a focus, it may be easier to blame someone else for the situation. However, while there was movement away from student responsibility for behaviour in value journal entries generally, those value journal entries which included five of the valuing characteristics showed movement toward student responsibility for behaviour (Table 4-7). Also, five of the eight value journals which included five valuing characteristics focused on thoughts as well as feelings. This relationship between thoughts and self-responsibility in the value journals which included five of the valuing characteristics tends to negate the relationship between thought and blaming.

Carkhuff and Berenson's counselling theory (1976) may account for this trend away from self-responsibility for behaviour. There are many more personalizing skills than the three mentioned earlier. Without them, self-understanding is incomplete. People who understand themselves own their behaviour. As self-exploration decreases due to lack of empathy and self-understanding is not achieved because of insufficient personalizing skills, there may be a tendency to avoid ownership of behaviour.

Another phenomenon may also account for this finding.

When people experience changes in their functioning such as the increase in self-analysis and/or the presence of emotionally threatening clinical experiences, they may use protective mechanisms to deal with the threat. Perhaps the reduction in self-responsibility (the increase in blaming) found in this study is a protective mechanism that students used to deal with the changes they were experiencing. The reduction in self-responsibility may be an indicator of a developmental process that occurs during personal change.

On the other hand, the Value Clarifying Program may have nothing to do with the general movement away from self-responsibility. Other experiences in the nursing program may encourage students to avoid responsibility for behaviour so responsibility for behaviour would decrease in the value journals as well.

Investigator Interactions

The results of a systematic analysis of the investigator's verbal and written interactions produced data on clarifying, directive, and management responses. The median incidence, duration, and elapse time between responses for each type of response was calculated. The frequency of each type of response was compared for each Professional Behaviour seminar.

The analysis confirmed that clarifying responses were present in both the verbal (Table 4-8) and written (Table 4-

10) part of the Value Clarifying Program. There were differences in the investigator's pattern of interaction throughout the program. All the written responses were clarifying responses. They were used frequently and were usually short. The majority of verbal interactions were short clarifying responses and the majority of them occurred in four of the Professional Behaviour seminars. Directive responses were not as frequent as clarifying responses, but they were longer so that they accounted for the majority of interaction time (Table 4-9). The majority of directive responses were used in two of the Professional Behaviour seminars (Figure 4-2). Management responses were scattered throughout the seminars (Figure 4-2).

The reliability of the interaction data is under question. Since the investigator analyzed the data independently, there was no inter-coder reliability score to check the reliability of the data.

Discussion and Interpretation

The discussion and interpretation of investigator interactions is organized by two of the three responses types: clarifying responses and directive responses. Then the relationship between the two responses is discussed.

1. Clarifying Responses

A number of factors may have affected the

investigator's ability to write clarifying responses consistently. Clarifying responses require understanding of the students' message and formulation of responses which facilitate thinking. There was a two day gap between submission of value journals and their return, so the investigator had time to analyze student statements and formulate responses. Therefore, when there is sufficient time to formulate responses, it is possible to write clarifying responses consistently. Also, for those students who followed the value journal instructions, it was easier to analyze the statements and formulate clarifying responses since the investigator knew to what the students were referring.

A reduction in the frequency of verbal clarifying responses occurred in the middle third of the Value Clarifying Program (Figure 4-2.). During this time, no value journals were submitted which included five valuing characteristics to affirming (Figure 4-1.). This lack was not due to a reduction in the number of value journals submitted during that period. The same number of value journals were submitted in the middle third of the program as in the final third. Perhaps the predominance of directive verbal responses in this part of the program interfered with the value clarifying process for students. As mentioned earlier, McAllister suggests that "there may be a definable "readiness" factor regarding a child's openness

or resistance to verbal clarifying responses" (1986, p 143). He suggests that lack of structure for group tasks and unfamiliarity with the value clarifying program may threaten eleven year old children so that the environment of acceptance and respect cannot be established. The largely directive and/or management responses in the middle third of the Value Clarifying Program may also have interfered with the establishment of an environment of acceptance and respect.

Also, verbal clarifying responses may be more powerful facilitators of thought than written responses because they attend to the student and/or stimulate thought immediately. The time lag between student-teacher responses in the value journals may have weakened the effect of the written clarifying response.

The lack of value journal entries which included five valuing characteristics in the middle third of the Value Clarifying Program may also be due to variables outside of the value clarifying program. This is the time in which the majority of student assignments, a large number of self-study modules, and the midterm exam are due or written. These time pressures tend to increase the level of student stress (O'Neill & Stevens, 1987, p. 98). During this time, the stress level of students may have been too high to allow thoughtful consideration of the valuing process, especially when it was an optional part of the work-load.

Also, high stress levels may have affected the condition of students' emotional security. Lack of emotional security is thought to interfere with the valuing process (Raths, 1972). When lack of emotional security is combined with the absence of verbal clarifying responses, beginning nursing students may feel unsafe about engaging in the valuing process.

2. Directive Responses

The use of mainly directive responses in two of the Professional Behaviour seminars may be related to the topic being discussed. In both the legal/ethical issues and charting seminars, the students' level of knowledge was poor, confused, or incomplete. Clarification and examples were useful in building an adequate level of knowledge. Also, both topics were of personal importance to the investigator so challenging statements by students may have resulted in leading, biased, opinionated or advising responses, all of which are directive responses.

3. Inter-relationship of Responses

There was an apparent relationship between the types of verbal responses used. As the frequency of clarifying responses increased, directive and/or management responses decreased. Conversely, when the frequency of clarifying responses decreased, directive and/or management responses

increased. It would seem that factors affecting clarifying responses affect directive and/or management responses inversely. Again, the topic under discussion may account for the differences. In all four Professional Behaviour seminars in which verbal clarifying responses predominated, the students' level of knowledge was good and the investigators' level of personal concern was low. Therefore, perhaps as the students' level of knowledge increases and the investigators level of personal concern decreases, verbal clarifying responses may be easier to use and/or directive responses easier to avoid. This interpretation supports Raths et al (1966, p. 79) suggestion that clarifying responses are easier for students to use and teachers to make when they are made in circumstances of which the teacher approves or has no preference.

Summary

This discussion has interpreted the findings of the study that showed that there was no increase in student recording of values, and more student self-analysis, less student self-disclosure, and less student responsibility for behaviour over the course of the Value Clarifying Program.

The interpretation has suggested several factors which may account for these findings: the hierarchy of student achievement theorized by Raths (1972), the differences between the Value Clarifying Program and counselling theory,

the presence of a developmental process for personal change, the pattern of verbal and written clarifying responses, and the presence of variables external to the Value Clarifying Program. Rath (1972) suggests that students meet their need for emotional security before meeting their need for clear personal values and the clarifying program did not incorporate strategies to build students' emotional security. While Rath's Value Theory includes aspects of the counselling theory (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976) which aims to facilitate self-exploration and self-understanding, several aspects of responding and personalizing skills are not included. Personal changes may be threatening to students so that protective mechanisms are used. The personal change process may be a developmental one. The verbal clarifying responses were infrequent during the middle third of the value clarifying program and the written clarifying responses were delayed. High stress levels in students and other factors external to the study may have influenced the findings.

A possible explanation for the findings is that lack of emotional security and verbal clarifying responses separately or in combination are powerful inhibitors of the valuing process. Another possible explanation is that the elements of the counselling theory (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976) missing from the Value Clarifying Program may be essential for the level of self-exploration and self-

understanding required to achieve awareness of values. Strategies to help students deal with their protective behaviour during periods of personal change may also facilitate their level of self-understanding.

When the investigators' interactions were considered, possible factors which affected written clarifying responses and verbal clarifying and directive responses were considered. Written clarifying responses may have been affected by the extended time allowed for responding and the structure of the value journal itself. The verbal responses may have been affected by the students' knowledge level and/or the investigator's level of personal concern for the Professional Behaviour topic.

This discussion of findings has examined the qualitative data concerning the two research problems and the investigator's interactions. It points to conclusions regarding the Value Clarifying Program.

Conclusions

The findings have determined that the value clarifying program outlined in this study included student written and verbal statements of value indicators, student participation in the valuing process of choice, affirmation and action, and investigator verbal and written clarifying responses to student value statements. The following conclusions were drawn regarding the purpose of the study:

1. The value clarifying program did not increase beginning nursing students' awareness of values as defined in Raths' Value Theory, and recorded in students' value journals.

2. Shifts seen in beginning nursing students' value journal writing over the course of the value clarifying program included:
 - (a) decreased incidence of unreasonable or unconsidered consequences,
 - (b) decreased level of student self-disclosure,
 - (c) decreased level of student responsibility for behaviour,
 - (d) addition of a thought focus to the feeling focus of value journals,
 - (e) increased level of student self-analysis,
 - (f) increased recording of clear choices, and
 - (g) increased ability to relate stated beliefs to activities and alternatives.

Two limitations of these conclusions must be discussed here. The shifts identified were minor and not dramatic. They were indicative of shifts rather than clear changes. Also, the method of data collection, due to circumstances beyond the investigator's control, did not allow for the kind of reliability that allow the conclusions to be generalized to other populations of students.

Implication of the Study

The results, discussion, and conclusions of this study suggest the following implications:

1. Clinical nursing experiences may generate feelings in beginning nursing students that interfere with their emotional security.
2. Emotional security may be a necessary condition for engaging beginning nursing students in a valuing process.
3. Value Clarifying Programs that do not incorporate strategies to build emotional security may not successfully engage beginning nursing students in a valuing process.
4. Value Clarifying Programs that incorporate the responding and personalizing skills of counselling may facilitate the level of self-exploration and self-understanding necessary to develop awareness of personal values.
5. Strategies to help students accept and/or change their protective behaviour during periods of personal change may facilitate the level of self-

responsibility necessary to achieve self-understanding.

6. The elapse time between student statement and teacher response may affect the effectiveness of clarifying responses.
7. Verbal clarifying responses may contribute more to the valuing process than do written clarifying responses.
8. Structured questions in value journals may facilitate engagement of beginning nursing students in a valuing process.
9. Unstructured diary type value journals may not be effective in engaging beginning nursing students in a valuing process.

Implications for Further Research

The findings, discussion, interpretation, conclusions and implications of this study suggest further research that:

1. Examines the effects of teachers who:
 - (a) have been trained to use verbal and written

clarifying responses accurately, and
(b) demonstrate application of these accurate clarifying responses with beginning nursing students.

2. Tests the reliability and validity of the value journal questions used in this study and/or develops new ones.
3. Investigates the impact of emotional security on beginning nursing students' "readiness" for value clarifying programs.
4. Investigates the impact of responses that use the counselling skills of responding and personalizing on the ability of beginning nursing students to engage in a valuing process.
5. Investigates the effect of value clarifying programs for beginning nursing students which incorporate procedures to build emotional security and valuing.
6. Examines the developmental process that occurs during periods of personal change.

7. Investigates the effect of strategies that help beginning nursing students deal with the protective mechanisms that may occur during personal change.

8. Replicates this study incorporating random assignment of beginning nursing students to treatment and control groups in the design of the research.

APPENDIX A

Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses

Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses

I Clarifying Responses

A. Responses which attend directly to the student's idea:

Repeating the statement _____
 Paraphrasing the statement _____
 Reading into, or interpreting the statement _____
 Communicating to the student that you have heard
 and understood what is being said _____

B. Responses which both attend and which ask the student to examine critically an aspect of his/her statement:

Asking for an example/a definition _____
 Asking for a summary _____
 Asking for additional explanation _____
 Asking that assumptions be identified _____
 Asking about inconsistencies _____
 Asking where the idea came from _____
 Asking how much thought is behind the belief _____
 Asking to what extent the student cares about this

 Other responses which attend and require
 examination of the belief _____

C. Responses which challenge the students' thinking about the idea:

Asking how this affects the student's life _____
 Asking what some consequences might be _____
 Asking why this idea has value _____
 Asking to what extent the belief is seen in
 behaviour _____
 Asking to what extent the student believes this _____
 Asking about the implications of these ideas _____
 Asking what alternatives have been considered _____
 Asking what would happen if everybody believed
 this _____
 Other challenging responses _____

II. Responses Which Do Not Clarify:

Agreeing/disagreeing with the student _____
 Non-verbal signs of agreement/disagreement _____
 Leading/manipulating student to a particular
 response _____

Injecting voice inflection which reveals bias _____
Offering a personal opinion/presenting personal
ideas _____
Giving advice _____
Other non-clarifying responses _____

(S. Wassermann, 1985, p. 28)

APPENDIX B
Sample Student Consent
&
Information Given to Volunteers

INFORMED CONSENT BY SUBJECTS TO PARTICIPATE IN A
RESEARCH PROJECT

NOTE: The University and those conducting this project subscribe to the ethical conduct of research and to the protection at all times of the interests, comfort and safety of subjects. This form and the information it contains are given to you for your own protection and full understanding of the procedures, risks and benefits involved. Your signature on this form will signify that you have received the document described below regarding this project, that you have received adequate opportunity to consider the information in the document, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in the project.

Having been asked by LYNN FIELD, graduate student of the Education Department of Simon Fraser University to participate in an experiment or research project, I have read the procedures specified in the document entitled: Increasing Awareness of Values in Term I Nursing Students.

I understand the procedures to be used in this project and the personal risks to me in taking part.

I understand that I may withdraw my participation in this experiment at any time.

I also understand that I may register any complaint I might have about the experiment with the chief researcher named above or with R.W. Marx, Director of Graduate Programs, Education Department, Simon Fraser University.

I may obtain a copy of the results of this study, upon its completion, by contacting L. Field.

I agree to participate by attending the scheduled Professional Behaviour seminars, completing the value journals, and reading investigator comments on the value journal entries weekly as described in the document stipulated above, during the period the 2nd day of January, 1986 to the 2nd day of May, 1986.

DATE _____ NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

SIGNATURE _____

SIGNATURE OF WITNESS _____

INCREASING AWARENESS OF VALUES
IN BEGINNING NURSING STUDENTS

Research Design

For this study, 16 beginning nursing students will be randomly selected from those who volunteer. Students will indicate their willingness to participate in the study by signing a consent form after the research has been described by letter and questions answered by phone.

These 16 student will be assigned to a specific Professional Behaviour seminar which they will attend each week. Specific types of feedback, called clarifying responses, will be used as the students discuss aspects of the course. Examples of clarifying responses are shown on page 4. (See Appendix A for the Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses)

Also, students will record their comments about their clinical experiences in journals weekly. They will be asked to answer questions about these experiences to increase their awareness of values. The journal format is shown below. (See Appendix C for Value Journal Instructions)

Clarifying responses will be made on these journals; then they will be returned to the students each week. The students will read the responses and reflect on the questions and comments.

Students' journals will be kept confidential. They will place their code number on the journal, not their name. For example, the code number could be based on their

mother's birthday, eg. 180119. The researchers will be the only people to see the actual journal entries.

Students may withdraw from the research at any time without penalty and a meeting will be scheduled to discuss the results of the research with participants.

Significance

The crucial relationship in nursing is that which exists between the nurse and the client. In this helping relationship, the nurse or helper must have some prerequisite traits because without them "it is doubtful that any amount of training will enable one to be truly effective in a helping relationship" (Gazda, Asbury, Balzer, Childers, and Walters, 1984, p. 7). These prerequisite personal characteristics are awareness of "own values, motives, strengths, weaknesses, feelings, purpose in life, and current level of functioning" (Gazda et al., 1984, p. 7). Gazda et al. (1984) see awareness of personal values as the key to being nonjudgmental and therefore to being able to value the client who has differing values. They also relate two other prerequisite characteristics, motives and feelings, to awareness of values. Therefore, developing awareness of personal values in beginning nursing students can be seen as a necessary first step in developing the crucial helping relationship with clients.

- 3 -

Also, several authors (Burton, 1981; Ross, 1981) have suggested that there is a relationship between awareness of values and decision-making. Rational decision-making should become easier when values are clear because making decisions involves identifying and choosing options. When you know what your values are, it should be easier to choose options which are congruent with them. Decision-making in nursing is an important aspect of nursing care. If values awareness does help in this area, then it is a significant first step in developing decision-making skills.

In summary, awareness of values can be considered to be the foundation upon which therapeutic relationships and decision-making skills are built. It is important then to provide experiences which will facilitate awareness of values.

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APPENDIX C

Instructions for Value Journals

Increasing Awareness of Values

Establishing relationships with clients and making decisions about their care are difficult processes. As we try to say the "right" thing and make the "right" choices we come up against our thoughts, feelings, motives, and values. Some of these are quite unconscious.

What do we mean by "nursing" or "health care"? How do we feel about "old people", "death", "disability", or "aggressive people"? What are our motives for "caring" or "becoming a nurse"? What do we cherish and prize? Talking about, writing about, and reflecting on our experiences should bring about a more clear awareness of the values that underlie our thoughts, feelings and motives.

Journal writing is one task that will help bring about a clearer awareness. The attached outline is a suggested format - to give direction to the entries and to highlight the valuing process. While it is not required that you answer all the questions each week, it is important that you do deal with some of the more critical dimensions of the process of valuing.

Acknowledgements: Wassermann, S. Keeping Journals.

Value Journals - Suggested Format

1. Briefly describe a value-related incident which occurred in the clinical area this week.
2. What were your thoughts about the incident (when it occurred)?
3. How did you behave?
4. What factors influenced your thoughts and actions in this incident?
5. What alternative actions might you have chosen?
6. What consequence does each action have?
7. How might you change your behaviour if the incident happened again?
8. What do your thoughts and actions tell you about the beliefs you hold?
9. How much time did it take you to write this journal today?

APPENDIX D

Code Definitions for Value Journal Analysis

Data analysis code definitionsDate codes

Jan. 7 - Week 1 - WK1	Mar. 4 - Week 9 - WK9
Jan. 14 - Week 2 - WK2	Mar. 11 - Week 10 - WK10
Jan. 21 - Week 3 - WK3	Mar. 18 - Week 11 - WK11
Jan. 28 - Week 4 - WK4	Mar. 25 - Week 12 - WK12
Feb. 4 - Week 5 - WK5	Apr. 1 - Week 13 - WK13
Feb. 11 - Week 6 - WK6	Apr. 8 - Week 14 - WK14
Feb. 18 - Week 7 - WK7	Apr. 15 - Week 15 - WK15
Feb. 25 - Week 8 - WK8	Apr. 22 - Week 16 - WK16
	Apr. 29 - Week 17 - WK17

Time codes

I - less than 15 minutes to write
 II - 15 minutes to 30 minutes to write
 III - more than 30 minutes to write

Self-disclosure codes

NSD - No Self Disclosure - Does not volunteer additional or personally relevant material in the statement, the question is answered briefly. Personally relevant information is that which is significant to the self or is emotion tinged (definition from Truax & Carkhuff, 1967).
 GSD - General Self Disclosure - The statement reveals personally relevant material in a general way (modified from Gazda et al., 1984).
 SSD - Specific Self Disclosure - The statement reveals specific, personally relevant material (modified from Gazda et al., 1984).

Self-analysis codes

(From Wassermann, 1985, Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses)

NSA - No Self Analysis - Answers value journal questions, no extension or analysis of thought in statement.
 CA - Critical Analysis - Extends or critically analyze some aspects of thought in the statement, ie. gives example or definition, summary, additional explanation, assumptions, inconsistencies, source of idea, amount of thought behind belief, and extent of concern for the belief.
 COT - Challenges Own Thoughts - Challenges own thoughts in the statement, ie. gives the effects on own life, consequences, why idea has value, extent belief is seen in behaviour, implications of beliefs, alternatives considered, result if

everyone believed, and extent the idea is believed by the student.

Responsibility codes

- EER - External Environment Responsible - Statement indicates that the student thinks the external environment is responsible for student actions.
- OPR - Other People Responsible - Statement indicates that the student thinks other people are responsible for student actions.
- OSR - Own Self Responsible - Statement indicates that the student thinks own self is responsible for own actions.

Valuing process codes

(General English definitions from Flexner, 1987. The qualifiers are from Raths' Value Theory.)

- CHO - Choice - The statement indicates that the student has made a choice. For the purposes of this study, feelings were not considered choices.
- FCHO - Free Choice - The statement indicates that the student made a decision between more than two possibilities without coercion, force, or pressure.
- ALT - Alternative - The statement indicates that the student considered another possibility when making the choice.
- MALT - Many Alternatives - The statement indicates that the student considered more than two possibilities when making the choice.
- ONC - Outcome Not Considered - The statement indicates that the student did not consider an outcome when making the choice or the alternative or the outcome described is not reasonable.
- TCON - Thoughtful Consequences - The statement indicates that a reasonable expected outcome of the choice or alternative has been considered by the student.
- AFF - Affirmation - A positive assertion of the choice has been made by the student in the statement.
- PRI - Prizing - The statement indicates that the choice is cherished by the student.
- ACT - Action - The statement indicates that the student did something because of the choice.
- RACT - Repeated Action - The statement indicates that the student repeated performing an action taken because of the choice.

Value indicator codes

- PUR - Purpose - A statement of the student's short range

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- goals or hopes.
- ASP - Aspiration - A statement of the student's long range plans.
- ABC - Attitude, Belief, Conviction - A statement indication the student is for or against something.
- INT - Interest - A statement about the student's spare time behaviour.
- FEL - Feeling - A statement indicating the student's emotions.
- ACTIV - Activity - A statement which reveals how time is used by the student.
- WOR - Worry - A statement about the student's personal problems or obstacles to goals.

APPENDIX E

Investigator Verbal and Written Interactions
Coding Guidelines and Recording Sheet

A. COING GRID: TEACHER VERBAL RESPONSES

Seconds	MINUTE 1					MINUTE 2					MINUTE 3					MINUTE 4					MINUTE 5									
	RESPONSE TYPE					RESPONSE TYPE					RESPONSE TYPE					RESPONSE TYPE					RESPONSE TYPE									
	IA	IB	IC	4	5	IA	IB	IC	4	5	IA	IB	IC	4	5	IA	IB	IC	4	5	IA	IB	IC	4	5	IA	IB	IC	4	5
0																														
10																														
20																														
30																														
40																														
50																														
60																														

Adapted from: McAllister, 1986, p. 153.

B. Instruction Sheet: Coding Teacher Verbal Responses

1. To indicate commencement of a response, start drawing a vertical line in the appropriate column.
2. To indicate type of response, draw a vertical line down the column which matches the appropriate response, for the duration of the response. This vertical line indicates the length of time of the response. (Refer to Sheet C for response descriptors.)
3. If there is a perceptible pause in the investigator response, simply lift the pencil and continue drawing the vertical line when the response continues.
4. Each column is one minute of time. When a full minute elapses, move to the top (0) of the adjacent column to the right.
5. When the five minute grid is complete, select another tape for coding.

Adapted from McAllister, 1986, p.154.

C. DESCRIPTORS FOR TYPES OF RESPONSES

Adapted from: Clarifying Responses: Louis E. Raths /
Coding Sheet for Clarifying Responses:
Selma Wassermann

- 1A. Responses which attend directly to the student's idea.

Repeating the idea.
Paraphrasing the idea.
Reading into the idea.
Interpreting the idea.
Communicating that you have heard and understood.

- 1B. Responses which both attend, and which ask the student to examine a part of the statement.*

Asking for an example.
Asking that a term be defined.
Asking for a summary of what the student said.
Asking about inconsistencies.
Asking if something is being assumed.
Asking for the identification of assumptions.
Asking to what extent this idea has been thought about.
Asking why this is important to the student.
Asking where the idea came from.

- 1C. Responses which challenge the student's thinking about the issue.*

Asking why this idea has value.
Asking to what extent this belief is seen in the student's day-to-day behaviour.
Asking to what extent the student believes this.
Asking about the implications of these ideas.
Asking about some consequences of these ideas.
Asking what alternatives have been considered.
Asking how this might affect the student's life.

- * One of these concepts must be embedded in the teacher's response, but the response need not be in the form of a question.

4. **Directive responses:** Responses which do not clarify, but which react to the content of the student's statement.

Agree/disagreeing with the student.

Leading/manipulating the student to a particular response.

Injecting voice inflection which reveals bias.

Offering a personal opinion or point of view.

Arguing.

Providing an answer.

Praising.

5. **Management responses.**

Accepts the student's idea.

"Manages" the session.

Invites responses from other students.

Interacts to manage student behaviour.

Other unrelated responses.

Adapted from McAllister, 1986, pp. 155 & 156.

REFERENCE NOTES

1. Simon Fraser University graduate course in Education, Studies in student-teacher interactions. taught by S. Wassermann, spring 1985.

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