

A STUDY OF THE CHANGES IN STUDENT VALUE-RELATED BEHAVIOUR  
IN THE PRESENCE OF ADULT VERBAL CLARIFYING RESPONSES

by

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate changes in children's Value-Related Behaviour following participation in value-clarifying programs that emphasize adult use of verbal clarifying responses to operationalize L. Raths' value theory.

Eighteen grade six children participated in the study. Two groups of six children, a Projects group and a Discussion group, met with the investigator for twenty-six sessions of thirty-five minutes' duration. The remaining six children constituted a control group. Children in Group I, Projects, selected and completed individual project themes, and the investigator's interactions with individual students included use of verbal clarifying responses. Children in group II, Discussion, identified and discussed together ideas of individual interest or concern, and the investigator's participation included verbal clarifying responses.

Instruments modified from scales developed by Raths were used to assess frequency and acuteness of children's Value-Related Behaviour in the classroom, in twenty pre-treatment and fourteen post-treatment observation periods. Instruments based on definitions developed by Raths and Wassermann were used to examine the investigator's use of verbal clarifying responses. Randomly selected audiotapes of

treatment sessions provided data regarding these interactions.

The Sign Test was used to evaluate changes in frequency and acuteness of children's Value-Related Behaviour from pre- to post-treatment. The Kruskal-Wallis Test compared behaviour changes of students in the treatment groups with those of students in the control.

Findings of the study indicated significant reductions in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour of group I students, from pre- to post-treatment and when compared with behaviour frequency changes of students in the control group.

Implications were drawn regarding the effectiveness of the clarifying programs and verbal clarifying procedures, and regarding the application of Raths' value theory in classrooms.

Research suggestions derived from this study included: investigation of the effects of teachers' accurate use of verbal clarifying procedures on children's classroom behaviour; investigation of the relationships between student self-directed study and classroom behaviour; and validation of methods and instruments that examine Value-Related Behaviour and verbal clarifying responses.

To my mother and father

## QUOTATION

Successful education is that which promotes successful problem solving, sensitive human relations, self-understanding, and the integration of one's total life experience. Successful schooling is schooling that promotes such traits to the utmost.

J. I. Goodlad

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## CHAPTER I

## Introduction

The Need for the Study

This study was undertaken to examine the effects of teacher verbal clarifying responses on those student behaviour patterns which are theorized to indicate values confusion, or inadequate values development. The need for the study derives from the experiences, research, and theory-building of educators who aim to promote values education in the classroom setting, as an integral component of teaching.

In order to promote children's healthy growth, teachers and theorists focus on the desired developmental goals of student autonomy, character, and rational thinking. The anticipated outcome is self reliant adults having the capacity to live examined and reasoned, purposeful and active lives. Toward this end, educational theorist Louis Raths constructed a comprehensive model for children's healthy growth and identity development. It includes an emotional needs theory, a theory of values, and a theory of thinking.

Raths' (Raths, Harmin, & Simon, 1966) value theory is the central concern of this study. It states that a child will grow toward autonomous functioning when provided with opportunities to engage in valuing behaviour and self-evaluative reflection. Significant persons in the child's world, such as parents and teachers, can create these

opportunities through provision of personally relevant experiences of choice and action, through valuing-focused feedback on student writing, and through verbal interactions that respond to the child's valuative considerations and actions.

The verbal clarifying interactions are a specific focus of the study. They enable the child to reflect on and examine the valuing components of behaviour and ideas. When such interactions are used consistently and accurately, the child engages in processes of reflecting, choosing, affirming, and acting. As this examination of personal experience occurs, the child shapes a self-concept or self-identity, and moves toward self-directed functioning that is increasingly personally relevant. In Raths' value theory the verbal clarifying interactions are emphasized as a principal means for promoting valuative reflection and action, thereby enhancing value development and personal autonomy.

On the assumption that patterns in children's behaviour reflect the extent of the children's autonomy and self-reliance, Raths' value theory addresses the following questions:

a) Can certain children's behaviour patterns that are of concern to the parent or teacher, behaviours such as apathy, flightiness, dissension, or role-playing, be supplanted by living and learning that is more positive, proud, and purposeful?

b) Can such shifts in behaviour be produced by specific interactional elements in teachers' or parents' relationships with the

children, when these elements guide the children into examination of the children's own experiencing of their world?

The theory maintains that verbal clarifying interactions, periodically and appropriately initiated, can promote a child's identity development by activating and sustaining a process of examination, reflection, choice, and action. However, such verbal interactions have remained relatively ignored as teaching skills. There are a number of possible reasons for this. First, theories of education and development may not articulate that teacher interactions "make a difference". Second, it may be that these skills are not found among the training components of teacher training programs. A third reason might be that there is a relative absence at teacher training institutions of trainers or educators skilled in the interactions. Fourth, perhaps there is a deficit in the interaction-skills components of teacher in-service training programs. Fifth, it may also be that there exists historically an orientation toward curriculum as factual content rather than as experiences. Sixth, possibly identity-development goals are considered by educators to be family concerns rather than to be the province of education and schooling. Furthermore, it is possible that combinations of these reasons prevail.

Whereas Rath's theorizes a relationship between healthy identity development and the child's ongoing engagement in an experience-based valuing process, the literature shows that values-clarification



educators have concentrated their efforts on formally structured curriculum activities to promote clarification, rather than on the actual use of verbal clarifying interactions. The possible relationship between a child's engagement in a value-clarifying process through the use of appropriate verbal clarifying interactions, and the child's healthy development, has been examined only in a small original body of research into Raths' value theory. This initial research first identified children exhibiting extremes of certain ("value-related") behaviours, then studied the application of clarifying procedures that emphasize use of "clarifying questions". Later research investigating this theory has tended to examine the impact of structured values clarification curriculum activities, or "exercises", on students in classroom groups.

#### Statement of the Problem

The intent of this thesis is to reexamine and expand on the original body of research. The central purpose of the study is to implement clarifying programs that rely on verbal clarifying procedures to operationalize Raths' value theory, and to study changes in children's classroom behaviour following participation in these programs. The programs are applied to small groups of children randomly selected from a single classroom setting, thereby not focusing only on those children who exhibit extremes of certain behaviours.

Does a schedule of small-group meetings with children that incorporates verbal clarifying responses from an adult, correspond to a decrease in the frequency and/or acuteness of observed Value-Related Behaviour in selected groups of grade six children?

### Hypotheses

Raths' theory predicts that as students engage in a value-clarifying process, they will have opportunities to become clearer about their values. As they become clearer about their values children will behave differently: purposeful, positive, proud, and enthusiastic behaviour patterns will replace Value-Related Behaviour patterns.

This prediction leads to the following hypothesis: There is a negative relationship between the use of verbal clarifying responses, and the frequency and acuteness of observed Value-Related Behaviour in the classroom.

The anticipated behaviour change is one of degree: An adult's application of verbal clarifying responses to students' value indicators will lead to a decrease in the frequency and acuteness of student Value-Related Behaviour.

The present research tests the following five null hypotheses:

1. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I (Projects group) following exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
2. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II (Discussion group) following exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
3. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in control Group III following no exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
4. There will be no difference between observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group I to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

5. There will be no difference between observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group II to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

For students in the sample, the observed frequency and acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour is measured using a scale and definitions modified from Rath's Value-Related Behaviour Rating Form and accompanying descriptors. The instrument and definitions are located in the Appendices, as is a sample of the tally sheets used to record observed Value-Related Behaviour episodes.

#### Definitions of Terms

The following definitions of key terms are used in the study:

Value is an element that shows how a person has decided to use his or her life. Strictly, it must satisfy each of seven criteria: it must be chosen freely, from among alternatives, after considering a range of possible consequences to each alternative; it must be prized or cherished, affirmed, acted upon, and acted upon repeatedly in some pattern of life.

The value-clarifying process (often referred to as the valuing process, or clarifying process) is the involvement of the child in realms of choice, affirmation, or action. These realms incorporate one or more of the above seven elements that comprise and define a value.

Value indicators are expressions that reveal components of a possible value. Phenomena such as goals and purposes, aspirations, attitudes, interests, beliefs and convictions, feelings, obstacles, ideas, and activities are valuative expressions, and may have the potential for becoming values through a value-clarifying process.

Value-Related Behaviour constitutes those behaviour patterns theorized to indicate values confusion or inadequate values development. The following categories describe such patterns: apathy, flightiness, uncertainty, inconsistency, drifting, overconformity, nagging dissension, and role-playing.

Valuing behaviour. The following behaviour patterns are valuing behaviours: open examination of alternatives, choices freely made from among examined alternatives, declarations or demonstrations of prizing or pride, deliberative and/or repeated action that exemplifies such choice or prizing. Valuing behaviour is characterized as purposeful, positive, or proud behaviour.

Verbal clarifying responses focus non-judgmentally on the substance of a child's valuations revealed in value indicators. The responses accurately and successfully reflect this content back to the child, promoting reflection and examination. The interactions take place in an atmosphere that is accepting, respectful, and supportive for the child, and encourage or stimulate the value-clarifying process.

#### Limitations of the Study

The following limitations exist because of the nature of the study:

The sample size was restricted to the nineteen grade six children from a grade six-seven split class. This was a "convenience sample" rather than a random sample. It was determined by the availability of a single class of students, and by the willingness of the school principal and classroom teacher to participate in the investigation.

Students in the study were not pre-selected according to indicators of values confusion or inadequate values development. Neither were they evaluated according to indicators of seriously unmet emotional needs, so students with possible emotional difficulties were not excluded from participation.

Exposure of treatment groups to the experimental conditions was limited to thirty-five minutes twice per week for thirteen weeks.

Treatment exposure for the two experimental groups was in a small-group format rather than in private one-to-one encounters with

the researcher.

Observational ratings pre- and post-treatment of students' frequency and acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour were made by the investigator, who also led experimental groups in the treatment conditions. Another trained rater, the classroom teacher, was not able to make systematic observations, so comparison ratings for tests of inter-rater reliability were unavailable. Consequently, there exists a real possibility of post-treatment observer bias.

#### Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has identified the problem being investigated and has outlined the scope of the research. Chapter II provides theoretical foundations to the exploration of the problem, examines historical applications of Raths' value theory, and reviews research pertinent to the identified problem. Chapter III then articulates the methodology of the study. It describes the experimental procedures and instruments, and outlines the clarifying programs. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study, and Chapter V discusses the results, lays out the conclusions, and examines some implications arising from the investigation.

## CHAPTER II

## Selective Review of the Literature

The literature review in this section covers five areas: (1) a justification for values education in schools, (2) and a description of various approaches to values development; (3) an historical placement of Raths' (Raths et al., 1966) value theory within this context, a description of the theory and the evolution of its application in school settings; and (4) clarifying responses. The perspective thus created leads to (5), a review of research pertinent to the identified problem.

Values in Education: A Contemporary Perspective

The perspective that a major component of good teaching is to guide the development of values (Raths, 1964, 1969) gets support from many spheres. Longitudinal investigations of educators' judgments about what constitutes teaching (Aiken, 1942; Hill et al., 1956; Openshaw & Cyphert, 1966; see also Macdonald, 1961) indicate that over seventy-five percent of teachers across North America consider values development a fundamental teacher concern. Recent statistics indicate that seven of eight educators and lay persons hold this view (Nucci, 1981; Rose, 1981).

Social scientists such as Fromm (1947), Maslow (1959), and Lerner (1976) share the belief that schools should be concerned with values



development. Educators affirm that schools are and should be concerned with children's values development (Brown, 1971; Frazier, 1980; Goodlad, 1983; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964; Rokeach, 1973; Sprinthall & Mosher, 1978). Furthermore, publications by educational organizations reflect that values development has continued to be regarded as a central function of schooling (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development: Butts et al., 1977; Brookover, 1980; Combs et al., 1978; National Educational Association: Educational Policies Commission, 1961; National Council for the Social Studies: Fraenkel & Ubbelohde, 1976, Metcalf, 1971; and the Social Sciences Education Consortium: Superka et al., 1976).

In spite of this attention, and broad agreement that it is a concern of schools, the domain of values education has not produced a comprehensive accepted method for promoting values development in schools. Rose (1981) charts the history of major approaches over the past forty years: inculcation, moral development, value analysis, and values clarification. Inculcation presently receives occasional attention (Christenson, 1977), and a methodology called value analysis includes several models which have had impact, such as Hunt and Metcalf's (1968) "reflective value analysis", Oliver and Shaver's (1966) "jurisprudential model", and Banks' (1973) "value inquiry". Moral development has achieved considerable popularity since Kohlberg (1975) articulated his cognitive-developmental model. The most widely disseminated programs of the two decades are those that evolved from

Raths' value theory and have become known as "values clarification" (Hersh, Miller & Fielding, 1980; Leming, 1981).

Educational philosophy attends to the pursuit of moral or values education in schools. Philosophical considerations are illustrated in two definitions of education:

Education is the cultivation of the intellect.  
(Hutchins, 1936, p. 104)

Education means the enterprise of supplying the conditions which ensure growth, or adequacy of life.  
(Dewey, 1916/1944, p. 51)

These definitions incorporate and unify aims of education with aims of values- or moral education. Although Peters (1966b) notes the problems in specifying critical educational aims, there are some general concepts that are commonly stated as aims. A developmental concept is revealed in the goals: "human development" (Kohlberg, 1981); "development of individual potentialities" (Peters, 1966b); "the realization of being human" (Kazepides, 1979).

Another such concept, "character", is used interchangeably as an aim of education or of values- and moral education. Raths (Note 1) is concerned with "the development of character". Scheffler (1966) wants education "to develop character in the broadest sense ... principled thought and action". Peters (1966b) specifies "development of strength of character". Dewey (1964) advocates "the building of a free and powerful character" (p. 207).

A third expressed goal synonymous with education and values- or moral education is the concept of "personal autonomy" (Dearden, 1972). This is seen in Hirst's (1974) "rationally autonomous being"; Raths' (Raths et al., 1966) "independence and self-responsibility"; Cochrane's (Cochrane & Manley-Casimir, 1980) "morally autonomous agent"; and in "the autonomous moral agent" (Hamm, 1977; Kohlberg, 1981).

There is broad agreement concerning one elemental aim of education, and more particularly of values- or moral education. Hirst (1974) describes it as "the development of the central cognitive aspect of moral life". This is called "development of reason" (Dearden, Hirst, & Peters, 1972); "a rational morality" (Taylor, 1975); "knowledge and rationality" (Wilson, 1972); and "better moral judgment" (Cochrane, in Cochrane, Hamm, & Kazepides, 1979). Dewey (1958) describes "the supremacy ... of the moral judgment", while Raths (Raths et al., 1978) refers to "inquiry and decision-making", and Scheffler (1973) to "free inquiry and rationality".

A principal reason for this agreement about rationality is that it is often perceived as the element of human functioning that distinguishes one's unique humanness (Peters, 1966a). The implication for values- education is that the development of reasoning, or judgment, is an essential component of schooling.

Furthermore, rational thinking leads to consideration of "universal moral principles" grounded in respect for persons (justice), and entailing freedom, truth, equality, and consideration

of interests (Cochrane, in Cochrane, Hamm, & Kazepides, 1979). These principles are notably the basic principles of democracy and are often used to provide content in values- or moral education programs.

Different approaches to values- education share the aims of rational judgment, human development, autonomy, and character. Nevertheless, there are distinctive variations in emphasis among different values education programs. Some "philosophical" approaches emphasize training in rational thinking or moral judgment. These approaches distinguish moral education as the proper and legitimate focus of any values education in schools (Hamm & Daniels, 1979). Other, "socio-psychological" approaches stress moral action-taking in the larger community outside the school. "Psychological" approaches emphasize the developmental nature of the individual and focus on the individual's immediate experience (e.g., see Dewey, 1963). Each emphasis will be represented in a discussion of contemporary approaches that focuses on moral reasoning and rational analysis, action learning, and cognitive moral development, followed by a presentation of Raths' value theory.

#### Approaches to Values Education

This section describes some common approaches to values education, in order to provide a perspective on the domain within which Raths' value theory is commonly placed. These approaches tend to emphasize philosophical, socio-psychological, or psychological

considerations for values- development.

Philosophical approaches direct toward development of rational analysis or moral reasoning, and to a framework of basic ("universal") moral values. The methods of Wilson (1972), Shaver (Shaver & Strong, 1982), and Coombs (1971), exemplify aspects of this philosophical emphasis.

Wilson (1972) has developed a design for moral education that he proposes be taught as a separate subject in the timetable. This "direct" method teaches the proper moral reasoning an individual should apply to moral issues. Wilson (1975) considers moral reasoning to be a specific and specialized form of rational scientific inquiry that requires its own curriculum content. He has developed an equation representing the "logical requirements" for "morally educated" behaviour. Its components are concern, and awareness of feeling, plus relevant knowledge, which together rely on decision and disposition (motivation) to bring about moral action. The components of this equation represent the proposed content for a course in moral education.

Shaver and Strong (1982) developed a theoretical rationale for teachers to apply when promoting value education and teaching values-laden issues. This "rationale-building" structures a logic or justification for focusing on and teaching basic moral values while emphasizing pluralism in non-moral values through open expression of views, conflicts, and lifestyles.

In the context of this pluralism, students explore the values they have and the feelings they have about the values, while authentic choice and critical and reasoned judgment are accentuated. Through this process, students can identify the clustering of their values and the connections within and between the clusters. As these connections are made, the teacher helps the student to perceive the value issues in the broader legal-moral framework of democratic society. The focus becomes one of public and personal-social controversies rather than personal value conflicts, and the teacher helps students to relate personal values and feelings to the basic moral values of the democratic culture, those values that generate from the principle of human dignity.

The authors place moral education in a broad social context, and consider both cognitive and affective aspects of moral values education. While demonstrating a rationale for building student emotive commitment to basic democratic values of society, their work does not include a methodology for initiating this perspective in schools.

Many social studies educators advocate "analysis" as a means for promoting values development. Numerous instructional models fit into this category, for example Hunt and Metcalf's (1968) "reflective value analysis"; Oliver and Shaver's (1966) "jurisprudential model"; Banks' (1973) "value inquiry"; and Taba's (1971) "identifying values" model. This general approach emphasizes rationality, and its goals are to

help students use logical thinking and scientific investigation procedures in dealing with value issues. Analysis tends to focus on moral and ethical decision-making concerning social issues rather than on personal moral dilemmas.

### Value analysis

Value analysis (Coombs & Meux, 1971) is a systematic approach that illustrates the "analysis" typology. It aims to promote student competence in making rational value decisions and judgments. Students are guided successfully through an analysis of an issue by following carefully structured procedures. The outcome is a personal value judgment on the part of each student, resulting from participation in the analysis and application of the procedures. Issues such as "Welfare is morally wrong" or "War is mass murder" are examples of social concerns that could be subjected to these procedures.

As students practice the tasks of a value analysis, they develop competence and disposition toward making rational value or moral decisions and judgments on their own initiative. As well, the analysis skills enable student to resolve value conflicts between groups or group members -- a "conflict resolution" application (Meux, 1971).

Briefly, the steps, or component tasks in making a rational moral judgment are:

1. Identify and clarify the value question.
2. Assemble purported facts.
3. Assess the truth of the purported facts.
4. Clarify the relevance of the facts.
5. Arrive at a tentative value decision.
6. Test the value principle implied in the decision.

Coombs has developed four tests of logic, applied to evaluate the validity of the principle underlying the moral decision or judgment. They are called: a) new case test, b) subsumption test, c) role exchange test, and d) universal consequences test (Coombs, 1980). The student acquires skills of rational judgment through repeated application of the analysis steps and logic tests in different value analysis situations.

Following ego-development theory, Coombs and Meux (1971) suggest "personalized" teaching strategies that will respond to each student's capacity for carrying out a value analysis. This means that teachers match complexity of cognitive input to the child's cognitive development level, and attend to the amount and kind of direction or self-direction that suits each child. In the value analysis itself, the teacher's role is that of consultant and advisor rather than information resource or judge. Value analysis aims to foster a student's capability and disposition for "rational evaluation" -- making the most rational decisions and reasoned moral judgments



possible about a considered value issue.

Generally, philosophical approaches emphasize a moral education that develops skills of rational analysis or moral reasoning, together with understanding of universal moral principles.

Educators, particularly in the social studies, have been turning toward a socio-psychological perspective in value education. This view, that values have their source in the interaction between the person and the society (Allport, 1937), theorizes that the process of self-actualization is related to social factors and group pressures. The individual is perceived as "interactive" in the environment rather than active or reactive, and the interplay between choice and action is continuous. Student involvement in relevant community and social issues creates a dynamic interchange between individual and society. Moral judgment and moral principles are best learned in this medium.

### Action learning

Methods included in this perspective are labelled in different ways: citizen or social action (Newmann, 1975), experiential learning (Graham, 1975), and social innovativeness (Frazier, 1980). The methods are typologized by Superka (1976) as "action learning" and represent in part a contemporary formulation of citizenship education.

Action learning seeks to create specific opportunities for learners to act on their values. Superka (1976) notes that action learning is a process in which individuals choose alternatives freely

after consideration, and affirm and act on their choices. The emphasis, however, is placed on action-taking itself, inside and outside the classroom.

Graham (1975) states that growth in values development results from the increased social interaction and authentic "role-taking" opportunities that students experience, so long as the learning experiences match an individual's present level of social and moral development.

Newmann (1975) describes the aim of action learning as "environmental competence", an ability developed through successful experiences of social action that has an impact in the environment or public sphere. His model for social action learning, and the development of competence has three parts. In Part 1, moral deliberation and social policy research are used to formulate policy goals. In Part 2, students develop and apply group process and organization skills, advocacy skills, and knowledge of political and legal processes. In Part 3, students share and deal with personal, interpersonal, and group concerns or conflicts.

An emergent direction in values education at present is one that retains an expanded conception of value, and directs toward full human development. It absorbs concepts and practises for the development of moral reasoning, and acknowledges the values development process as articulated by Raths. Competence and independence are the goals, and the child's interests and concerns interface with "rich" curriculum

opportunities, to generate the learning experiences. The emphasis is on student choice and action, relative to personal and social-societal domains of experience (see Frazier, 1980).

In summary, action learning methods create opportunities for students to become aware of social issues or concerns, to understand and take a personal position, and to choose action and strategies for action, followed by reflection on and revision of action.

Notwithstanding this trend toward a more-comprehensive application and integration of values development into children's schooling experience, Kohlberg's model of moral development, and applications of Raths' value theory, continue to be the most prominent methods for promoting values development in schools (Leming, 1981). Kohlberg presents a psychological theory of the development of moral reasoning, a theory that also has strong philosophical influences.

### Cognitive moral development

Cognitive moral development is the name for a theory developed by Lawrence Kohlberg. He formulated an idea of moral development derived from some psychological premises originally developed by Jean Piaget (1962).

Piaget pioneered a modern study of human development by recognizing that the child was puzzled by basic questions of life: the meaning of space, time, causality, life and death, right and wrong. Piaget (1971) noted major differences in the ways that

children at different ages addressed such problems. He described these as differences in stages, or quality, of thinking (rather than differences in amount of knowledge or accuracy of thinking). Piaget (1962) then began to apply this structural approach to moral development and moral reasoning.

From this basic work of Piaget, Kohlberg (1975) developed a structure that describes general stages of moral thought and that can be defined independently of the specific content of any particular moral decision or action. The model constructed by Kohlberg contains three distinct levels of moral thinking. He calls them the preconventional, the conventional, and the postconventional. Within each distinct level, there are two related stages of moral reasoning development. The levels and stages are:

Preconventional level. At this "egocentric" level, the child responds to rules and labels such as good and bad, right and wrong. The physical power of rule-staters determines interpretations of good (rewarded) and bad (punished).

#### Stage 1. Punishment and Obedience

Action is good or bad as determined by its physical consequences. Behaviourally, the child avoids punishment and defers to power.

## Stage 2. Instrumental Exchange

Fairness and sharing are pragmatic considerations -- they help one to satisfy one's own wants.

Conventional level. At this "external authority" level the expectations of family, group, or nation are valuable in their own right, regardless of consequences. Conformity and loyalty are behavioural norms. The child will maintain, support, and justify the order, and identify with others like himself.

## Stage 3. Interpersonal Conformity

Be a "good boy" or "nice girl" to please others and win approval. Conformity and "normal" behaviour are the standards.

## Stage 4. Law and Order;

### Social System and Conscience Maintenance

Authority, fixed rules, and maintenance of social order are fundamental. Right or good is reflected in duty, respect for authority, and maintenance of the social order for its own sake.

Postconventional level. At this "autonomous authority" level, there is effort to reach a personal definition of moral values. One defines principles and applications apart from authority of persons or groups and apart from one's own identification with these groups.

#### Stage 5. Social Contract and Prior Rights

Right action is based on individual rights, personal values and opinions, and constitutional and democratic consensus. Such action reflects critically examined and consensually agreed-on standards. Freely-made agreements are what constitutes obligation.

#### Stage 6. Universal Ethical-Principles

"Right" equals self-chosen ethical principles, based on logical comprehensiveness, universality, and consistency. There are abstract principles, defined by conscience: universal principles of justice, reciprocity, and equality of human rights, and respect for individual human dignity.

It can be seen that at each stage there are certain rules for the situation, there is some form of concern for others, and there is some concept of justice. These are basic moral values having universal roots common to all humans, natural tendencies that originate within an individual. These values will emerge as an individual processes social experience, and exposure to more mature people helps to stimulate maturity in one's own value process. The two central value tendencies (Kohlberg, 1981) are: (1) a natural empathic response of regard for the lives of others, and (2) a belief in justice (or reciprocity and equality).

Kohlberg regards each level and stage as a separate moral

philosophy, a distinct perspective of the social-moral world. The intended implication of calling them stages is that they represent a fixed invariable developmental sequence; they occur one at a time and in the same order. The stages are invariable and universal because they demand formal concepts and patterns of reasoning that are in a logical order.

The logic of this stage theory parallels Piaget's (1971) view regarding the progressive construction and reconstruction of experience. Each stage of moral development is a more complex cognitive organization than the one before it, resulting in novel distinctions while incorporating everything in the previous stage. Progress through the stages is characterized by increasing differentiation and increasing integration. The re-organization is a more comprehensive or more equilibrated structure.

The hypothesis generated from this theory is that moral development is promoted through the stimulation of a person's reconstruction of the meaning of a situation. To help promote the development of student judgment toward more-comprehensive principles, an educational program stimulates stage growth (Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975) by posing real or hypothetical dilemmas to students in a way that generates disagreement and uncertainty as to what is right. The teacher presents the dilemmas, asks "Socratic questions" that stimulate student reasoning, and focuses students' listening to one another's reasons. The developmental moral discussion thus arouses

"cognitive-moral conflict" and exposes students to reasoning at the next developmental stage above their own.

Crucial for moral development is a social context in which conflicts arise and appropriate individual "role-taking" is possible:

What matters in moral education then, is that in the family, peer group, school, and in the wider society, children and young people are stimulated to participate in activities and thought relevant to their present experience and context, that will induce conflicts resolved by a cognitive shift into a new mode of judgment. It is the pupil's active involvement in these considerations that alone is effective.

(Hirst, 1974, p. 96)

Moral judgment is seen to develop through social environmental factors that may be called "amount of opportunities for role-taking". In order to learn social roles, children must implicitly take the roles of others toward themselves and toward others of the group. These role-taking tendencies form the basis of all social institutions and represent various patternings of shared or complementary expectations. The assumption is that all moral concepts are concepts of social relationships, as manifested in social institutions or interactions.

Kohlberg's model has psychological underpinnings, and a philosophical orientation in its emphasis on the development of moral reasoning. Raths' value theory stresses a rational method of choosing, and has a socio-psychological orientation that emphasizes processes of personal action, but it may fit best into the category of



"psychological" approaches, because it demands a focus on and utilization of each individual's personal frame of reference and experience to generate values development.

### Raths' Value Theory

Louis Raths developed three different educational theories to provide teachers with relevant and useful classroom methodologies for promoting children's healthful development. An emotional needs theory (Raths & Burrell, 1963), a thinking theory (Raths, Wassermann, Jonas, & Rothstein, 1967, 1986), and a value theory (Raths, Harmin, & Simon, 1966) respond to essential educational functions of schools: "schools must be evaluated according to the quality of personal, intellectual, and emotional experiences which they provide for their students" (Raths, 1969, p. 22).

Louis Raths' collaboration with colleagues Merrill Harmin and Sidney Simon produced Values and Teaching (1966), a comprehensive description of Raths' value theory and the teaching strategies that enact the theory. The authors have argued for a new and distinctive approach to values education for children. They contend that traditional approaches -- setting an example, persuading and convincing, limiting choices, inspiring, setting rules, presenting dogma, or appealing to conscience -- do not seem to result in deep commitments, even though in the past they may have controlled behaviour and formed beliefs and attitudes. The authors note that in present times few citizens lead value-directed lives:

The values that are supposedly being promoted by these methods in our society -- honor, courage, devotion, self-control, craftsmanship, thrift, love, and so on -- seem less than ever to be the values that guide the behavior of citizens.

(Raths, et al., 1966, p. 41)

These authors and others (e.g., Toffler, 1974, and Frazier, 1980) acknowledge that this diminished evidence of valuing behaviour is likely to be the result of the phenomenon of rapid change throughout contemporary society. Remarking that the influences of institutions such as family, church, school, neighbourhood, community, and business are no longer stable, or homogeneous, the authors point to the often incompatible effects of the different institutions on people's lives, and to the disabling stresses of drugs, war and armament, unemployment, multiculturalism, family mobility, consumerism, and computers and media. The strains are widespread, and the resulting confusion is evident in children's behaviour. This "decline" in valuing behaviour, and increase in confusion, requires a new approach to values development in schools, because

children have difficulty orienting themselves to the world in which they live ... are sometimes worried about problems ... uncertain about where they stand ... unsure about their beliefs ... lacking knowledge of themselves. (Raths, Note 2)

Raths maintains that it is incumbent on teachers to address these problems, and he suggests this can be accomplished by carrying on what he calls "the clarifying process" (Raths, Note 1).

The authors of Values and Teaching believe that the best response to this "value crisis" and to children's subsequent confusion and strain is to operationalize Raths' educational theory of values in children's educational experience. They wish to provide experiences for children's

development toward integration, consistency, and purposefulness, and toward a condition where they can more readily lead value-directed lives. [The goal is] to assist people in integrating their current lives and in learning skills that will serve them similarly in the future. (Raths et al., 1978, p. 296)

For Raths, careful observation of individual student behaviours provides the data and directions for purposeful teacher interventions. Teachers will observe behaviours that may indicate unmet emotional needs, undeveloped thinking skills, unclear values, or organic deficits. After first eliminating the possibility that physical health problems account for perceived distinctive behaviour patterns, the teacher considers the needs, thinking, or values hypotheses. Emotional disequilibrium will be seen in patterns of aggression, regression, submission, and withdrawal, or psychosomatic disturbances. Thinking-related disturbances are perceived in behaviour patterns such as missing the meaning, means-ends confusion, and dogmatic resistance to new ideas or alternatives. Such patterns indicate the appropriateness of "needs-meeting" or "teaching for thinking" interventions by the teacher.

Adopting an orientation of attending to student behaviours, teachers will see that much of children's behaviour may demonstrate the absence of valuing experiences and integration of values. Values and Teaching (Raths et al., 1966, pp. 175-176) distinguishes eight such "Value-Related Behaviours" that indicate confusion and uncertainty, or inadequate values development.

1. Apathetic, listless, dull children ... are perhaps directionless or indifferent.
2. Extremely flighty children ... have no stable interests or concerns.
3. Extremely uncertain, hesitant, doubting children ... do not perceive clear alternatives or personal meaning in options.
4. Extremely inconsistent children ... indicate little deliberation before choosing, or repetition of action and penetration of views into life.
5. Drifting children ... reflect lack of experience at determining purposes.
6. Extremely overconforming children ... strive to identify and mimic the values of others.
7. "Nagging" dissenters ... reflect lack of valuing "in favour" of anything.
8. Role-playing, posturing, posing children ... show absence of an identified role, or an identified self.

The authors also hypothesize that in addition to these eight Value-Related Behaviours, chronic underachievement may distinguish children with unclear values, though they acknowledge that underachievement can also result from other causes.

These behaviours, particularly when frequent or acute, become a concern for the teacher, and illustrate "what may very well be the natural consequences of a culture that has been and is now in confusion" (Raths, 1961/1971, p. 265).

A behavioural analysis identifies signs of value confusion, or inadequate value development, and demonstrates Raths' view that identifying the "values" of people is perhaps futile (Raths, 1961). Raths proposes a concept of value that will guide educative work with students by moving toward identification of elemental processes in valuing behaviour, or of basic conditions of valuing behaviour. Raths states that he "borrowed heavily from Dewey" (see Dewey, 1939) when generating five requirements of a value (Raths, 1961, p. 262). A refinement of these into seven specific criteria has become the definition of value now used in Raths' value theory.

A value must be (1) freely chosen, (2) from among alternatives, (3) after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative ... these criteria are the broad domain of "Choosing". The value also requires (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice, and (5) being willing to affirm the choice to others ... the domain of "Prizing". Further, for something to be a value requires (6) doing

something with the choice, and (7) repeating the action in some pattern of life .. the domain of "Acting" (Raths et al., 1966).

In Values and Teaching, the authors acknowledge that these value-defining criteria are rigorous, and that people probably have few if any values. What people commonly have, and what are perhaps more commonly associated with values, are phenomena such as goals and purposes, aspirations, attitudes, interests, feelings, beliefs and worries, problems, or obstacles. The authors call these expressions "value indicators" (Raths et al., 1966, pp. 30-32). These indicators may approach values, but do not meet all of the defining criteria. They have a significant relationship to values, and because they can occur in the classroom environment, these "indicators" can provide the substance of teachers' value development work with children:

These eight categories are often revealed in the classroom. We believe it is important that opportunities for revealing these become a vital part of teaching, for the next step (is) to help those children who choose to do so to raise those value "indicators" to the level of values, that is, to the level on which all seven of the valuing processes operate. (Raths et al., 1966, p. 33)

#### Applications of the Value Theory

Historically, initial applications of Raths' theory of values proposed encouragement of and attention to the child's indicators of valuing. Raths emphasized an "indirect method" of initiating the valuing process which focuses on an individual student's immediate

experience, providing the student with opportunities to make personal and individual valuations in the domains of choice, affirmation, and action. This indirect method requires teachers to work with every student in a predominantly interactional mode. Two other techniques for encouraging the valuing process are a writing strategy and a discussion strategy. The teacher non-judgmentally draws the student's attention to valuative expressions in the student's written work, and provides writing tasks such as "value sheets" which invite students to react to values-laden statements or questions. The third method is to generate classroom discussions on values-related issues, or to lead the class in activities that may elicit values. The clarifying responses within teacher-student interactions provide a foundation for the clarifying process, and the other two methods are useful in generating value indicator expressions and in broadening a student's valuative considerations.

When promoting the expression of value indicators the teacher can help the children clarify for themselves what it is that they value. In these situations the teacher encourages the process of valuing or valuation rather than persuading the children to accept some predetermined set of values. The children's expression of such indicators is promoted by design of the classroom environment and through curriculum experiences. Using these vehicles, the teacher will:

1. Encourage children to make more choices, and to make them fully.
2. Help them discover alternatives when faced with choices.
3. Help children weigh alternatives thoughtfully, reflecting on the consequences of each.
4. Encourage children to consider what it is they prize and cherish.
5. Give them opportunities to affirm their choices.
6. Encourage them to act, behave, live in accord with their choices.
7. Help them be aware of repeated behaviors or patterns in their life.

(Raths, et al., 1978)

The value indicators are a primary source of content for the valuing components of curriculum. The child's personal concerns that may complicate living -- issues such as fears and desires, being accepted, friendship, and love -- will provide content for the valuing process. So too will social issues provide content: the individual's relationship to society, development of family or community or school institutions, and rules and norms, can be of concern to the child. Other germane social issues are egalitarianism, law, freedom,



democracy, and peace. Values development occurs in the interaction between (1) one or more of the seven facets of the valuing process, and (2) expressions or indicators of value, or personal or social issues that enter into children's lives.

Two elements are accentuated in the promotion of values development: the factors of choice, and thinking. Choosing is crucial to the process of valuing. A teacher may restrict, deny, or coerce choices, or may not help the child conceptualize alternatives or perceive meaning in the alternatives. If the fullness and freedom of valuable choosing are not present, it is likely that something other than valuing will take place at these times. In order for values to develop, the children must reflect and choose. Moreover, the authors' definition of valuing includes a necessary component of intellectuality. Their approach to values education trains students to think on their own, in processes of inquiry and decision-making. The inquiry is usually toward some purpose, and decision-making involves value judgments. The classroom that promotes maturity and self-reliance will provide "situations rich in opportunities to think and to choose. Under these circumstances, children become more thoughtful, more aware of alternatives, and more aware of their consequences (Raths et al., 1978, p. 201).

Thinking and choosing are intrinsic to the valuing process, and there is an environmental stipulation also. The classroom climate wherein these factors can be realized must be a climate of real

acceptance and respect.

Thus when wanting to promote the valuing process, the teacher is neither preaching, nor passive, but rather strives to promote psychological safety, to provide an atmosphere in which children will be free to express themselves without threat of ridicule, harsh teacher judgment, or rejection of ideas.

(J. Raths, 1964, p. 514)

The development of values is achieved through the activation of "the clarifying process" by teachers (L. Raths, Note 1). The teacher who helps students develop their own values

- creates a situation, or many situations, where students can reveal their interest and concerns, and can choose,
- listens with respect and acceptance when students express their own feelings, their own indicators of value.

Another necessary behaviour is that the teacher "interacts with the students in ways that lead to self-examination and to awareness of what one stands for" (L. Raths, 1969, p. 51). This interaction is what is known "the clarifying response". It is a response to something the student says or does or writes, that encourages the student to look at his or her own life and ideas and to think about them. Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1978) call this verbal clarifying

response "the most flexible of the value-clarifying strategies" (p. 54). The teacher expresses concern and interest for the child's ideas, enough so to listen attentively, to respond acceptingly, and to remember accurately. "It must be clear that teachers who apply the clarification procedure must have a tremendous respect for their students" (J. Raths, 1964, p. 514). Exposure to clarifying, over time, is predicted by the values theory to result in behaviour change. The data-base developed by Aspy and Roebuck (1974) strongly supports the tie between teacher respect and teacher acceptance of student feelings, and desirable student outcomes such as increased self-esteem and increased achievement.

#### Evolution of the Methodology

Raths sees a deficit in values development in members of today's society. In schools, children's behaviour patterns can be seen which signal the need for intervention. Raths' comprehensive teaching theory is designed to promote both clearer values and skills that will lead to children's zestful, purposeful, self-directed living. The approach arising from this value theory identifies the process of valuing as open and continuous, as well as active. Young people will learn to value through an active learning process that includes becoming aware of possible choices, choosing those identified as being the most promising, and then taking action on these choices in a way that tests consequences.

On the premise that values develop through these personal experiences in choosing, prizing, and acting, educators continued to look for and test ways of bringing this process into play in the school setting. New explications of the methodology identified themselves with Raths' theoretical base and became known popularly as value- or values-clarification.

Raths' collaborators, Harmin and Simon, continued with new colleagues to develop values clarification strategies. Harmin, Kirschenbaum, and Simon (1973), and Simon, Hawley, and Britton (1973) designed techniques for including in traditional school courses some opportunities to deal with values-laden material. They espoused the concept of using any existing curriculum subject and incorporating "values-level" instruction, in addition to the teaching of facts and concepts. This "three-level teaching" method was advocated partly because it would be easy for teachers to adopt while adhering to conventional curriculum. The authors judged that teachers could use this approach to enhance student interest by relating the content to students' lives and experiences. They hope to achieve another goal:

If the three-level concept helps to make standard subject matter more interesting and relevant, fine. But, ideally, teachers will refuse to settle for 'standard subject matter'. Hopefully, they will build more of their curricula around skills and subjects which play an integral part in their students' lives. (Harmin, Kirschenbaum, and Simon, 1973, p. 108)

While some teachers may intuitively make students' curriculum experiences more personal and thereby promote the valuing process, the means for achieving the goals embedded in value theory may require special teacher training. The authors previously mentioned have taught their methods through extensive in-service training work with teachers, usually in the form of values clarification workshops. This type of training work was perhaps a major force in the spread of values clarification methodology centred on clarification activities.

Clearly, Raths' educational theory of values stresses an incorporation into curriculum of children's personal experiences, choices, and interests, and encouragement of their expression. Implied as well is a teacher effort to perceive and understand the frames of reference with which the students encounter their worlds. This thrust of value theory, and its implicit prizing of personal and social growth, melds with humanistic approaches to education, and their accentuation of the affective domain in classroom processes.

Hawley (1974) operationalizes affective goals and processes for promoting student growth toward "social self-actualization". His methods include a "value exploration and clarification" that adapts the seven valuing criteria while directly using the clarifying activities found in Raths, et al. (1966). Smith (1977) describes the use of values clarification programs in human relations and group dynamics training models, while Hall (1973) incorporates values clarification as a methodology in confluent education. There is a

notable focus on the affective domain in these applications.

Kirschenbaum (1977) also places values clarification within the humanistic domain of education. His training program for school teachers immerses the teachers in a two-day in-service workshop of values-clarification activities. The program emphasizes teaching teachers to build values components into their subject area (the "three-level teaching") and to use value clarification exercises as whole-class activities. As well, he intentionally encourages student sharing of feelings about social and personal issues.

One theme that persists in these applications is a goal of student growth toward full development. The strategies of the present form of values clarification are embraced by humanistic educators possibly because the theory advocates autonomy and self-reliance. As well, the strategies are person-centered, provide suitable format for discussion groups, and exhibit an apparent value neutrality. Raths himself considered such affective focusing to be "navel-gazing", an overly intense style that could contribute to student morale when carefully executed yet is contrary to the indirect method of values development that he proposed (Raths, Note 3).

A component of Kirschenbaum's (1977) proposals that is popular in schools is the use of values clarification activities as regular or periodic episodes in the timetable. This theme -- using such clarification activities as a distinct method for addressing values development in schools -- has grown and persisted since first

publication of Raths' value theory in Values and Teaching. This text did specify numerous activities that could be used as adjuncts to the core strategy (the clarifying response) to promote the processes of value development. The values-clarification derivations of the value theory articulate these original activities and add many of their own.

The literature contains numerous examples. Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum (1972) compiled "79 specific, practical strategies to help students build the seven valuing processes into their lives". Smith (1977) lists twenty-nine values clarification techniques to be initiated as large or small group experiences in human relations training. Hawley and Hawley (1975) outline twenty-five activities for use with classroom groups. Howe and Howe (1975) also published a compendium of clarification activities, while Hawley (1974) used role-played clarification exercises to focus on values and decision-making skills.

An aspect of this "activities" methodology is that the teacher will determine the timetable by which students examine and reflect on value issues. One assumption is that these structured curriculum experiences are suitable mechanisms to create opportunity for self-examination of personally relevant experience. Another assumption is that engagement in one or more of the seven valuing process skills can promote or habituate a valuing orientation independent of the immediate relevance to the student of the value issue addressed by the activity.

Inclusion of values level considerations into subject matter was perhaps attractive because there need be little disruption of existing curriculum or prescribed content. Using activities as a values clarification methodology became popular possibly because the activities are already clearly spelled out, are easy to apply, can be paced to match the attention span of the students, and because they can be slotted readily into a timetable space or be used during free time. Also, they are designed for use with whole class grouping and do not require individualization of instruction. Each activity has apparent face validity because it includes one or more of the seven valuing process criteria as part of the activity. Therefore it will provide practise at a component valuing-skill in a realm of choosing, prizing, or behaving. However such activities may match only imprecisely the criterion of being related to individual students' interests and experiences at a given moment.

Although the trend in methodology has been toward activities or strategies, this focus on "activities" receives little emphasis in a teacher training model developed by Wassermann (Note 4). She stresses the interaction component in her application of Raths' value theory. Her curriculum for student and practising teachers creates opportunities for individual trainees to examine and reflect on personally-held beliefs about teaching and learning. The training itself accentuates guided practice at the verbal clarifying responses. Students practise this interaction skill in several ways: responding



to other students' own explorations of their beliefs in one-to-one encounters, examining transcripts of their audio or video-taped clarifying interactions, and responding to other students' valuative considerations during seminar.

The instructor facilitates this skill development through: (1) feedback on transcripts and other written practice-work, that includes clarifying responses to values-laden content, (2) using and modeling the clarifying response in individual student conferences and in seminars, (3) curriculum experiences that invite self-directed choosing and acting, and (4) written material that describes and informs about the theory, and the structure of the clarifying response.

Wassermann's model assumes that personally-identified student beliefs and concerns provide the appropriate content for value reflection, that the individual student can control or determine the timing of personal values-reflection work, and that clarifying responses are a potent tool for stimulating student choice, affirmation, and action.

Wassermann's work points toward a focus embedded in the original formulation of Raths' value theory -- the verbal clarifying procedures -- as a central method for stimulating the clarifying process.

### Adult Verbal Interactions

The clarifying response is examined in some detail, in order to inform the reader as to its theoretical underpinnings, its nature, and its application. This section includes: the realm of verbal interactions within which the verbal clarifying response is situated; the place of these interactions in education; a focus on the description and examples of the verbal clarifying response; how it "works", and how it is used in teaching.

Teacher interactions comprise a critical dimension of what is teaching (Raths, 1971), incorporating such teacher acts as explaining and informing, initiating and directing, management tasks of disciplining, praising, and giving security, and questioning and responding to promote thinking and to clarify attitudes.

There have been several appraisals that "indirect" teacher verbal behaviours are efficacious and desirable (Flanders, 1965; Gage, 1971) whereas "direct" strategies of telling, or "furnishing completely explicit rules (are) relatively less effective than guiding students toward understanding of underlying principles" (Ausubel, 1963, p. 171). Historically, the scope for this consideration of direct versus indirect teaching has been provided in an analysis of classroom climate that distinguishes "dominative" and "integrative" teacher contacts with children (Anderson, 1939).

Teacher tendencies toward domination (Anderson & Brewer, 1946) or authoritarian leadership (Lippitt & White, 1943) that are observable

in teacher contacts with pupils will spread so that they are seen in student-to-student contacts that indicate domination: ignoring the rights of companions; resistance or conformity in responding or adapting to another child. When the teacher has a higher proportion of dominative contacts, the pupils are more easily distracted from schoolwork, and show greater compliance to, as well as overt rejection of, teacher domination.

Teacher tendencies toward "integration" in teacher-student contacts are associated with student-to-student contacts that include offering choices to companions, or soliciting expressions of the companion's desires ("What would you like to do now?"). Also associated with a higher proportion of integrative teacher contacts are pupil spontaneity and initiative, voluntary social contributions, and increased incidence of problem-solving.

Cogan (1956), with a sample of 960 pupils from 33 classrooms, examined associations between pupil perceptions of teachers, and student self-initiative in doing required and voluntary homework. He distinguished categories of teacher interactions that are "Preclusive" (Dominative, Aggressive, and Rejectant), from categories of "Inclusive" interactions (Integrative, Affiliative, and Nurturant). Also included in Cogan's analysis is a dimension of teacher behaviour he called Conjunctive-Disjunctive (e.g. imaginative vs. habit-bound). His study indicates that:

There is strong evidence to show that in individual pupils' perceptions the teacher's conjunctive and inclusive behaviors are each positively related to the pupils' scores in required work and in self-initiated work. The inclusive variable appears to be most closely related to the dependent variables.

(Cogan, 1956, p. 339)

Flanders (1971) summarizes the indirect and direct teacher behaviour patterns as:

The Dominative Pattern:

- a) Expresses or lectures about own ideas or knowledge.
- b) Gives direction or orders.
- c) Criticizes or deprecates pupil behavior with intent to change it.
- d) Justifies own position or authority.

The Integrative Pattern:

- a) Accepts, clarifies, and supports the ideas and feelings of pupils.
- b) Praises and encourages.
- c) Asks questions to stimulate pupil participation in decision-making.
- d) Asks questions to orient pupils to schoolwork.

(p. 47)

From this analysis Flanders developed concepts of (a) teachers' "direct influence" in responding to pupils, that restricts a student's freedom of action and requires momentary dependence on the teacher, and (b) responding that exerts "indirect influence", expanding choice for action and decreasing dependence. Flanders suggested that the pupil will have greater orientation to a problem, because he helped to identify it.

Indirect influence consists of those verbal statements of the teacher that expand a student's freedom of action by encouraging his verbal participation and initiative. These include asking questions, accepting and clarifying the ideas or feelings of students, and praising or encouraging students' responses.

(Flanders, 1971, pp. 50-51)

Flanders' (1965) research established clear and significant relationships among (1) teacher statements that demonstrate acceptance of, interest in, and constructive use of student ideas, (2) pupil attitudes toward the teacher, and (3) student motivation for schoolwork, student independence, and decreased student anxiety.

He hypothesized that the integrative patterns and the indirect influence of certain teacher interactions may serve to encourage students to inquire, stimulate student thinking, and help students to reflect on their lives and on the world around them. They contribute to students' ability to learn by enhancing self-esteem, sharpening problem-solving skills, and by promoting self-understanding.

Evidence is accumulating in each of the corresponding domains; responding to feeling, to thinking, and to valuing, that such hypotheses have validity.

Using Flanders' interactional analysis scale, Aspy and Roebuck (1974) noted in an analysis of more than 200,000 hours of classroom interaction that teacher direct influence accounts for 90 to 95 percent of all classroom interaction. Endeavouring to answer the question "is indirect influence superior to direct influence?", Aspy and Roebuck found significant correlations between (a) teachers'

indirect responses to student expressions of feeling (empathic responses), and (b) pupil achievement, absenteeism, truancy and tardiness, and student ratings of self-esteem.

In the area of cognition, Rath and associates (1967) demonstrated that teacher indirect responses to student expressions of thinking, which stimulate the student to use higher order thinking to process cognitively the student's immediate thinking expressions, correspond to reductions in behaviours such as inconsistency, dogmatism, means-end confusion, and increases in concentration and perseverance, confidence, and initiative in academic tasks.

Interactions that are integrative and represent an indirect influence can be appropriately used in response to children's expression of interests, concerns, choices or preferences, and activities or involvements -- considerations that have or may have a valuative component. Such value-clarifying interactions are a central concern of this investigation and are herein called "verbal clarifying responses". Rath's value theory hypothesizes that the verbal clarifying responses are a central means by which a teacher can promote student self-understanding, and student clarification and integration of personal choices, purposes, and actions. Rath proposed the "clarifying response" as the integrative teacher behaviour having an appropriate indirect influence, and cautioned against responses that are intense and demand "navel-gazing" self-analysis on the part of the student (Rath, Note 3).

These clarifying responses are means for promoting reflection about, and examination of, ideas, beliefs, attitudes, interests, and values. As in the other integrative, indirect-influence interactions, these responses require careful attention to and utilization of the "stuff" that is from the child's frame of reference and immediate personal experience. That is to say, it is the expressions of the child that provide the content to which the teacher responds. Following are examples of the verbal clarifying response, as proposed by Raths (Raths, 1959; Raths et al., 1966).

#### VALUE CLARIFYING RESPONSES

1. Say back what the student has said.
2. Paraphrase the student's statement.
3. Distort, or read into the student's statement.
4. Ask for examples.
5. Ask that a term be defined.
6. Ask another student to explain what was said.
7. Ask if there is an inconsistency.
8. Ask the student to summarize his statements.
9. Ask if something is being assumed. Bring out assumptions.
10. Ask where this idea, belief, thought will lead. What are the consequences? What might follow?
11. Ask if everyone should believe the statement.
12. Ask how good it is.
13. Ask, "Where did you get that idea?"
14. Ask if this is something the student cares a lot about.
15. Ask if the student has thought a lot about it.
16. Ask if the student does this often.
17. Ask if this is what the student believes.
18. Ask how this affects the student's life.

### Verbal Clarifying Responses

Some refinements of this mode of responding have been made by Wassermann (Note 4). She incorporates the interaction components of full and careful "attending" as a necessary adjunct to accurate responding (Note 5). Carkhuff (1977) also maintains that attending is a critical component of facilitative interactions. Wassermann has refined the articulation of the "reflective response" mode, a development suggested by the research into generic reflective responding pioneered by Truax and Carkhuff (1967) and supported by Aspy and Roebuck's data base (1974). As well, Wassermann distinguishes three categories of clarifying response: the reflective response, the responses that promote critical examination of an aspect of the student's idea, and the responses that "challenge" or promote examination of ramifications of the idea expressed. These distinctions help to sensitize the teacher to the potential threat to a student of a verbal clarifying response, and to the degree to which the teacher can promote valuative examination with a single response. Wassermann's categorization of clarifying responses is included in Appendix B.

When is this mode of responding appropriate? The clarifying response is used in the classroom when a student gives evidence of a valuative consideration or personal expression -- indicators of value such as attitudes, interests, choices, or activities (Raths, et al., 1966). Furthermore, the teacher intentionally provides stimulus for



such expressions, through sufficiently rich and varied curriculum experiences and learning materials, frequent opportunities for student choice, and through attention to student-to-student interactions that reveal the presence of personal and intragroup social issues in the classroom.

The teacher who wants to promote student development by encouraging the student's ongoing engagement in and habituation to a valuing process will have the opportunity to respond to such value-indicative expressions in a way that gives the student opportunity to reflect on, or examine, the personal meaning of the individual's own expressions or behaviours. It is an indirect influence, and integrative, in the following ways:

- (a) It focuses on the student's experience and frame of reference.
- (b) Any student answer is accepted, there is no "right" answer.
- (c) The child can choose not to respond, there is no pressure to "get clarified".
- (d) It communicates respect for the child, acceptance of the child "as is".
- (e) It communicates teacher acceptance -- there is no manipulation or leading.

Most commonly, a situation invites only one or two teacher responses. The effects of this mode of responding are cumulative, providing the child with experiences at expressing, examining, and acting on personal indicators and valuations. From an accumulation of such experiences over time, deep values will develop; more importantly self-understanding develops, as does an inclination or disposition to engage habitually in a valuing process: to examine choices, declare and affirm purposes, reflect on and make decisions for action, and take new considered action. For Raths this valuing process constitutes a productive, satisfying, and growthful orientation toward living, and is a fundamental feature of "character development" (Raths, Note 1).

The process by which the verbal clarifying response promotes valuing and personal integration and self-understanding is as follows: The response to the child may provoke a cognitive "dissonance" for the child (Festinger, 1957) because it may be a novel or unfamiliar consideration that may not yet fit in the child's construction of experience. The child strives to reduce the dissonance and move toward cognitive integration of the novel ideation with previous experience and thinking.

In summary, teacher interactions are a major component of the phenomenology of a classroom, and have a great deal to do with classroom climate. The quality of the teacher's interactions is critical to good teaching (Hughes, 1959) and has significant influence

on every child's development. Positive influence on children's development can be achieved by teacher interactions that are "integrative" (Anderson & Brewer, 1946) and that have an "indirect influence" (Flanders, 1965). Such interactions include responding to student feelings, responding to student thinking, and responding to student valuing.

Among the variety of student outcomes that are promoted by these kinds of interactions, student behaviours that are components of healthful character -- autonomous, purposeful, positive, and proud characteristics -- are likely to be promoted by enacting in students a "valuing process". Rath's (1966) value theory proposes the clarifying response as a fundamental way of doing so. What follows is a review of research into efforts at enacting this valuing process -- efforts that accentuate the systematic use of verbal clarifying responses and efforts that accentuate other, programmatic means of enacting the process.

#### Value Theory Research

The value theory as developed by Louis Rath's responds to children's confusion, uncertainty, and normlessness resulting from rapid social change, to children's lack of opportunities to develop a valuing orientation to life, and to effects on children of divergent values and inconsistent valuing behaviors reflected by adult models and our social institutions.

Stating that children are influenced by these forces, Rath reasons that children exhibit the effects of values confusion or inadequate values development in "Value-Related Behaviour" patterns such as apathy, flightiness, nagging dissension, inconsistency, and uncertainty. Traditional methods of values development such as inculcation and modeling no longer suffice to promote purposeful, positive, or proud behaviour in children. The value theory provides a relevant methodology for encouraging values development and positive valuing behaviour, plus skills necessary to contend with rapid and continuous social change.

The theory says that these Value-Related Behaviours -- signals of values confusion or inadequate values development -- will diminish in frequency and acuteness through involving the child in value-clarifying experiences. To achieve this involvement, one can:

- a) promote circumstances and situations where the child expresses personally relevant themes that are "value-indicators" -- beliefs, choices, attitudes, interests, concerns, feelings, or action preferences that are reflections of the child's personal experiences;
- b) accept fully a value-rich expression, while communicating real respect for the child;
- c) respond to the expression in a way that helps the child to engage in one of the dynamics of valuing, that is,

in an aspect of choosing, in an aspect of prizing or affirming, or of behaving or acting.

The theory presents three ways of responding to these expressions and indicators:

- A Dialogue Strategy wherein the teacher makes appropriate verbal clarifying responses;
- A Writing Strategy wherein the teacher makes written clarifying responses to a child's value-indicative writing elicited by Value Sheets;
- A Discussion Strategy wherein the teacher leads a group discussion of a values-laden issue of interest or concern to that group, and responds to students' value-indicator expressions with verbal clarifying responses.

The theory in Values and Teaching also describes "19 Other Strategies", group activities that engage the students in one or more of seven separate component processes that constitute Choosing, Prizing, and Acting. Programmatic presentation of such strategies characterizes the research carried on subsequent to the initial body of theory-testing research.

This thesis investigation examines the effects of programs

incorporating use of verbal clarifying responses on those student behaviour patterns that indicate confusion in or inadequate values development. It does so by exposing students to such responses in experimental settings, and observing the frequency and acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour before and after this exposure.

The review of research that follows here focuses on original research into the Value Theory, research that accentuates investigation of the effects of those value clarifying interventions which emphasize the clarifying response. The review then refers to research into the value theory that emphasizes programmed activities but may incorporate verbal clarifying procedures. The review then focuses on a body of research that examines clarifying procedures that consist of "values clarification" activities or "strategies" but do not use verbal clarifying procedures as part of the program. Throughout the review there are distinctions between certain behavioural outcomes predicted by the theory (such as increase in student purposefulness or decrease in student flightiness) and other outcomes that some studies have investigated (such as changes in student self-esteem, or changes in student value structure).

Some of Raths' doctoral students investigated hypotheses generating from this theory. These investigations comprise the original body of research ("first generation"). The elemental hypothesis of the value theory is that value-clarifying experiences will lead to diminishing of the frequency and/or acuteness of

Value-Related Behaviours of students who exhibit such patterns in extreme. A dynamic of the theory is that the value-clarifying process will generate from the interaction of value-indicator expressions with stimuli (such as teacher responses) that cause "valuative" examination of and reflection on the expressions ("thinking about" the self-expressions). The child uses experiences already in his or her frame of reference as the media for examining and reflecting on choices, affirmations or dispositions, and actions, and as the impetus for new action.

These first generation investigations usually created one-to-one situations with students who exhibited value-related behaviours, with the teacher or researcher using verbal clarifying responses to students' value-indicator expressions. Researchers measured these behaviours before and after a schedule of meetings with the student.

The first study in this group (Klevan, 1957) looked at student "purposefulness" and "consistency in thinking". A stated aim was to see if investigation into Raths' value theory could be carried out, and applied with a whole group of students. Evidence of increased purposefulness and significant improvement in consistency of thinking led Klevan (1957) to conclude that student value indicators or expressions can be encouraged in the classroom; and that the teacher can carry out 'clarification procedures' -- methods, verbal and written, for enabling students to examine their own expressions.

Brown (Note 6) and Simon (1958) each trained a group of teachers

to apply clarifying techniques (verbal clarifying responses). The teachers identified a single child in their classroom who demonstrated a pattern of value-related behaviour.

Simon's ten high school teachers each worked in individual interactions at least once per day with the child for the duration of his fifteen week training program. No consistent pattern of behaviour changes emerged after this intervention. Eight of ten teachers reported reduction of "undesirable" behaviours for the child worked with, yet only one child's behaviour change was recognized by other adults in the school. Furthermore, teachers' reports of behaviour change did not correlate with teacher applications of value-clarifying methodology as assessed by independent raters. These raters examined teacher-interaction data and evaluated that only one of the ten teachers demonstrated "an effective application" of the verbal clarifying methodology.

On the other hand, independent raters reported that fifteen of Brown's sixteen trained elementary teachers mastered the techniques of responding in the clarifying mode. All fifteen of the corresponding children were seen to improve markedly in purposefulness, and reductions in frequency and acuteness of the previously measured Value-Related Behaviours were also recorded.

A central implication of these studies is that training teachers in this verbal clarifying interaction skill might be a difficult task. Another implication is that individual conferences that are absent of



verbal clarifying interactions do not necessarily promote shifts in student value-related behaviours. A speculation for the difference in training effect on the two groups of teachers is that elementary teachers are less oriented to subject matter demands and more accustomed to personal contact with students, hence more amenable to interpersonal skills training.

The value theory is one component of a joint study by Machnits (1960), Jonas (1960), and Martin (1960) that investigated emotional needs, thinking, and values. Each in his own grade 3, 4, and 5 classroom respectively tested the relationship of value clarifying procedures to the frequency and acuteness of two or more of the following behaviours: apathy, flightiness, indecisiveness (uncertainty), overconformity, nagging dissension, and inconsistency. These investigators used ratings made by other school staff, school records, and parent conferences, to assist in the identification of two children in each of their classes with extremes of such behaviours. A comparison group of six was provided by students in the school's other grade 3, 4, and 5 classrooms matched only for frequency and acuteness of the same behaviours (identified from the two other classes in each grade).

In treatment periods of from 13 to 15 weeks, the investigators worked with the children during the course of regular classroom routine. Clarifying procedures consisted predominantly of efforts to communicate "clarifying responses" to children's value-indicator

expressions, during one-to-one dialogue interactions with each of the identified children.

Jonas and Machnits concluded that behaviour associated with lack of value clarification became less acute and less frequent after interventions with clarification procedures designed to clarify values. However Martin did not make this conclusion. He reported that one of his two subjects did not demonstrate significant shifts in behaviour. Martin suggested that the "nagging dissension" behaviour, which characterized this child, is a behaviour more resistant to change. An hypothesis confirmed by all three investigators is that there would be no reduction in normal academic achievement, after working with the students using the value-clarifying procedures. Independent ratings made by other subject-area teachers indicated that all six children shifted in positive behavioural directions (reductions in frequency and acuteness of the observed behaviour patterns.) There were no shifts at all reported in the behaviour patterns of the six "matched" students.

This concern with achievement reflects another thrust of value theory: underachievement is hypothesized to relate to children's unclear values. J. Raths (1960) investigated such a possible relationship, making the assumption that underachievement can symptomize values-confusion or inadequate values development. Using a matched pairs procedure, he selected 6 underachieving pairs randomly from a larger pool of identified underachievers among the population

of grade 9-12 underachievers in an affluent high school.

In brief but regular individual conferences with one student from each pair Raths listened and reacted to each student's exploration of topics having personal interest, some determined by examining the student's written work or free time schedule. While communicating interest and concern in the ideas and thoughts of the student, Raths would make use of verbal clarifying techniques in an effort to clarify attitudes, beliefs, interest, purposes, and aspirations. A minimum of twelve 20-minute conversations took place with each student; controls received no special attention.

Raths applied the sign test to three indices: changes in class ranking, changes in G.P.A., and observer (faculty) vote-assessments of student behaviour change. All shifts were positive, and the results led Raths to conclude that the clarifying procedure was consistently associated with an increase in the achievement level of the students in the experimental group. Possible Hawthorne effects were not considered in the analysis.

Lang (1962) did provide some control for expectancy or attention in a similarly-designed study. His purpose was to examine whether "specific counseling techniques and procedures utilized to help college students understand and clarify their values" had any relation to underachievement or to two other behaviour patterns, apathy and nagging dissent.

Lang used a matched pairs procedure to select 15 pairs of

students, with extra matching procedures to identify underachievers (above 75th percentile in I.Q. and below 33rd percentile in achievement), and apathetic and dissenting students (identified through instructors' ratings). Control students were counseled "directively" by other faculty members, and the investigator worked with the fifteen experimental students. He met with underachieving students 15 minutes once per week for 15 weeks, and with apathetic and dissenting students 15 minutes twice per week for 8 weeks.

Behavioural change data for all experimental students together, and for the 9 underachieving students analyzed separately, were in a positive direction with results reported significant beyond the 6 percent level. When taking the six apathetic pairs in isolation, behaviour change comparisons were not significant.

A concerted program to test the application of value theory in the classroom was undertaken by James Rath (1962). For the 1960-61 school year, all 100 students in the four classes of grades 5, 6, 7, and 8 in a university campus elementary school were subjects. The four classroom teachers were trained in clarifying procedures and asked to institute them as part of their class curriculum.

In order to weave elements of value theory into the course of study, three devices were used as sources of attitudinal-type statements or behaviours by the students. One, a regular expository writing program was designed to yield compositions that provided a source of attitudinal statements. Two, teachers attended to classroom

incidents such as tardiness, truancy, planning sessions, and student-sharing situations that could be used as sources of attitudinal information. As well, class meetings, oral work in class, small-group discussions of common student problems or current happenings of concern to the students, and small problem-solving groups, were structured into the day and were sources of attitudinal statements. The third source of value-type expressions was role-playing situations. Such activities as "the opportunity to sneak in near the front of a line at a ticket wicket" were designed, in order to encourage choice-making that could reflect attitudes.

The four teachers were trained to use a clarifying procedure (verbal clarifying responses) while promoting an acceptant classroom atmosphere, free from threat to the student. Teachers helped students to feel psychologically safe to speak their minds, without fear of harsh judgment or ridicule either from the teacher or from peers. Then, in those circumstances where the attitudinal indicators, and student preferences, beliefs, and feelings were generated by the curriculum experiences, teachers responded to the student expressions in verbal or written mode, using the clarifying procedure.

In this procedure, the teacher responds to the student expressions by raising reflective questions, designed to assist students in examining choices, preferences, or intended actions relevant to those expressions. Teachers would ask such questions as:

"Have you thought about any alternatives?"

"Is this something you prize?"

"Is this idea so good that everyone should go along with it?"

"What are some examples you have in mind?"

The program was instituted at the school because of teacher concerns regarding students' lack of purposefulness. Around the school generally, student interest in school activities was low. Nor did students seem genuinely involved in school work or learning activities. The researcher assumed that this lack of purposefulness in behaviour was rooted in the confusion of the students in the area of values.

If the students are confused about beliefs, attitudes, purposes, goals, and interests, then application of the clarification procedures would affect student behaviours in the area of involvement. Teachers decided to investigate the following areas of involvement:

1. Raising of questions and alternatives.
2. Initiation and self-direction of classroom activity.
3. Perseverance.
4. Active participation.
5. Attitudes toward learning.

Student behaviour ratings were made pre- and post-treatment by the four special teachers (non-classroom teachers of art, music, P.E., and library). Statistical design was a before-after no-control design. Students acted as their own control, comparing end-of-year ratings with the original benchmark measures. The null hypothesis was tested by the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test, and was rejected beyond the .01 level of significance. The researcher concluded that the clarification procedure was consistently associated with an increase in involvement on the part of the students in the study.

To examine possible maturation effects, pre-scores of sixth-graders were compared with post-scores of fifth graders, and the same procedure used for grades 6-7 and 7-8. Because post-group scores were higher than the next year's pre-group scores, the interpretation was that maturation itself would not completely explain the significant differences. A survey of students' other records, and of reports on students made by teachers, suggest no support for the rival hypothesis that teacher ratings are more generous and less critical at year-end.

For 88 out of the 100 students, involvement increased on the stated measures. For the 12 who did not shift, analysis of cumulative records indicated in every case the pattern, also reported by the teachers, of behaviour indicating unmet emotional needs. The implication, one that is important for value-clarifying efforts, is that unmet emotional needs block learning of values, as they tend to

obstruct almost every phase of learning. Students who demonstrate behaviour patterns that indicate seriously unmet emotional needs require "needs-meeting" interventions rather than clarifying procedures.

After this original body of research was completed, Harmin (Harmin et al., 1972), Simon (Simon et al., 1972), and other colleagues developed training programs for teachers and other professionals in values clarification methodologies. These methods accentuated values clarification practice as a program of "strategies" or exercises to be carried out with large (e.g. class-size) groups rather than as one-to-one teacher-student interventions.

A distinctive body of "second generation" research developed that investigated the effects of this style of application of values theory. This research has some salient features. Primarily, it investigated the application of a program of exercises/activities, and looked at the effects of these programs on all students, not simply on those who demonstrated extremes of value-related behaviours. As well, a range of dependent variables were examined rather than the behavioural variables flowing directly from the values theory: value-related behaviours, positive valuing behaviours (such as "purposefulness"), and underachievement.

Some of the research implies that clarifying responses were used as an adjunct to the exercises, and had value-related behaviours as the dependent variable. Covault (1973) compared two treatment classes with two control classes of grade five children and found small but



significant decrease in value-related behaviours after a program of clarification activities. Results also demonstrated significant improvement in positive valuing behaviours of "initiation and self-direction in classroom activities" and "positive attitudes toward learning".

Guziak (1975) replicated Covault's study, and had similar significant shifts in value-related behaviours. Dixon (1978) applied a program of activities with grade eights that she states included clarifying responses. Although her journal of the sessions reveals that the responding was rarely accurate and neutral reflection, Dixon found significant reductions in frequency and acuteness of value-related behaviours after the program. Wenker-Konner, Hammond, and Egner (Note 7), using a slightly different dependent variable, saw positive shifts in "initiative participation" plus decreases in "refusal to participate" and engagement in "alternate" behaviours.

Lockwood (1978) attributed high confidence to the results of the study because it used a reliable observation system. He attributed low confidence to the Covault and Guziak studies because the behaviour measurement instruments relied on single, subjective teacher ratings pre- and post-treatment.

Greco (1977) attempted to include verbal clarifying procedures in a clarification program for secondary school students. He augmented values-clarification exercises with verbal clarifying procedures, by creating opportunities for the students to ask each other clarifying

questions in small peer-interaction groups. There were no findings of behaviour change for the experimental subjects, as measured by changes in peer ratings of value-related behaviour pre- to post-treatment.

Reports of experiments that did not appear to use clarifying-response procedures with a program of exercises describe non-significant results. Greco (1977) had mixed and inconsistent results, Boyle (1978) found no changes in value-related behaviour patterns, and Bramson (1983) did not see significant shifts in student behaviour.

Some studies have looked at shifts in achievement, hypothesizing that underachievement may often be connected with lack of values development. Pracejus (1974) used a discussion format with a grade eight English students, and found significant shifts in reading comprehension. Her reading and discussion program incorporated frequent use of clarifying responses. Fitzpatrick (1975) noted changes in reading achievement and Barman (1974) worked with a science group that increased their achievement in biology.

Some researchers investigated the dependent variable of self-concept, assuming that this outcome could be anticipated as an indirect effect of students' decrease in confusion and uncertainty. Covault (1973), Fitzpatrick (1975), and Guziak (1975) had included this variable in their studies on value-related behaviours, and saw positive changes on self-concept indices. Gray (1975) reported no changes in self-concept, and McCormick (1975) reported increases in self-concept but no shifts in self-acceptance. DePetro (1975) found

small but significant improvement in self-esteem.

Although the value theory does not predict changes in values themselves, such possible changes have been researched. Pracejus (1974) found no change in value priorities of grade eights. Sklare (1974) reported no change in terminal or instrumental values, but described increases in clarity of values.

In summary, some positive changes may accrue after student participation in values clarification programs, although overall the studies show mixed effects. The studies either neglected to include verbal clarifying procedures or failed to describe or verify their use. Leming (1981) and Lockwood (1978) each made a critical analysis and summary of values clarification research that excluded the original body of first generation research accentuating the clarifying response. They concluded that values clarification appears to affect positively students' classroom behaviour to some degree but that claims as to effects on self-concept or self-esteem, value change, or subject-area achievement should not yet be made. Lockwood was also highly critical of the body of research taken as a whole, on the basis that there are inadequacies in experimental procedure, instrumentation, and observation methodologies, plus subjectivity in some conclusions.

An overview of the research to date indicates two "phases" of research. One focuses on the students with extremes of non-valuing behaviour or patterns of chronic underachievement, and on the effects

of "clarifying programs" which utilize the verbal clarifying response as the primary component of the program. Exploratory research in this phase yielded some promising results, but experimental procedures were often too flawed to permit sound conclusions.

The other, second generation research focused on the application of programs of clarification activities with all students, not only those demonstrating extremes of Value-Related Behaviour, and the effects of these programs on a number of variables. These studies rarely specified whether verbal clarifying responses were an intended component of the programs. Although this body of research also has flaws, there is some indication that the programs can affect patterns of classroom behaviours for any students, but effects on student achievement and self-concept have not yet been demonstrated.

This chapter has described the incorporation of values education in school settings, outlining various approaches to values development and articulating Raths' value theory in detail. Techniques for bringing the value theory into educational practice have been examined, and the "verbal clarifying response" has been highlighted as an intrinsic technique of the Value Theory.

A review of research outlined the accumulation of two somewhat separate and distinct bodies of research, each one paralleling a distinct manifestation of the value theory. This review indicated that research into the "clarifying response", after receiving an initial emphasis, has been superseded by research into "values

clarification", constituting techniques derived from Raths' value theory that incorporate pre-designed activities as the primary substance of clarifying programs.

The present study focuses on four aspects of the accumulated body of research into Raths' value theory that merit renewed consideration.

First, research has already investigated situations within which students at the extremes of frequency and acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour have been exposed to verbal clarifying responses, in private didactic encounters. This study provides conditions that generate immediate and personally relevant valuative expressions and activities, in two small group settings. These expressions invite verbal clarifying responses from the adult and contrast with experiences that involve the imposition by the adult of valuing themes in the form of "exercises" in choosing, prizing, or acting, exercises that are not derived directly from the children's immediate, personal, values-oriented considerations.

Second, this study looks for possible changes in behaviour patterns, after exposure to the verbal clarifying responses, of any students from the class, not only those scoring at the extremes of frequency and acuteness in Value-Related Behaviour. It achieves this by including all eighteen grade six students from a single class in the study, and assigning them randomly to treatment and control conditions.

Third, the present research attempts to control for possible

effects of attention on Value-Related Behaviour, by planning for a "treatment-control" condition where the students are involved with the investigator but are subject to interactions excluding verbal clarifying responses.

Fourth, for the purposes of this study the researcher modified the "Student Value-Related Behaviour Rating Form" in order that frequency counts and acuteness values regarding Value-Related Behaviour could be accumulated over an extended observation period. This modification was done in order that evaluations of behaviour change would not rely on a single behaviour quantification assigned subjectively by a teacher or other rater pre- and post-treatment.

The next chapter, III, describes the methods and procedures this researcher used to investigate the effects of clarifying programs that incorporate the verbal clarifying response on behaviour of grade six students.

## CHAPTER III

## Methodology

This chapter outlines the research design, and discusses the methodology and procedures used in the study. The following topics are addressed in separate sections: the study sample, treatment interventions, the data collection process, instrumentation, and data analysis.

The central purpose of this study was to implement clarifying programs that operationalize Raths' value theory by using verbal clarifying responses to children's value indicator expressions, and to examine changes in children's classroom behaviour following participation in the programs. To achieve this purpose, the research tested the following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I following exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
2. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II following exposure to a value-

clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

3. There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in control Group III following no exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
4. There will be no difference between observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group I to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.
5. There will be no difference between observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group II to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.



### The Study Sample

The sample in this research study consisted of the nineteen grade six children, ages eleven and twelve years, from within a mixed grade six/seven class in a Vancouver B.C. elementary school. One of these nineteen children elected not to participate in the study.

The remaining six girls and twelve boys were randomly assigned to three different groups, with six children in each group. One group, Group III, was designated as a control, and the children in this group were exposed to no treatment interventions. The other two groups were experimental groups, each exposed to verbal clarifying procedures within a program conducted in a small group setting.

The investigator had initially designated group I as a "treatment-control" group prior to the onset of treatment. This group was to receive attention from the investigator comparable to the attention received by group II, through participation with the investigator in a small group doing regular, assigned academic work. There was to be no exposure to a clarifying program, and the investigator intended to use no verbal clarifying responses in interactions with these children.

The investigator intentionally altered the design half way through the treatment period, by designating group I as a second treatment group, for three reasons. First, at the request of the classroom teacher, the children in this group had chosen personal Project topics at the commencement of the treatment period. This

personal choosing, a potent valuing activity (Raths et al., 1966), immediately comprised the control condition of "no exposure to a clarifying program", because children worked on their individually-chosen projects rather than doing assigned academic work. Second, the investigator had also compromised control conditions through the frequent use of verbal clarifying responses (the core treatment condition) during the students' selection of individual Project topics in treatment sessions one, two, and three. Third, the children manifested valuational considerations during their ongoing Project work, and the investigator determined that verbal clarifying responses to these "value indicators" would be a responsible intervention. Schon (1983, p. 134) argues for the propriety of such alterations in structural design, in response to shifts in conditions of an experimental situation.

The two experimental groups were exposed to somewhat different programs in their small group setting. Group I's program had a "Projects" theme -- the children worked at their individually created study projects during their group's meeting (treatment intervention) times. Group II's program centred on "Discussions" during group meeting times -- children discussed together topics of interest or concern stated or selected by the individual participants.

### Treatment Interventions

The intervention program consisted of twenty-six sessions for each experimental group over thirteen successive weeks. Participating students joined with the investigator in an unused classroom for sessions lasting approximately thirty-five minutes. The program for each treatment group created conditions necessary for student engagement in the valuing process: choice, emergence of value indicators, prizing or affirmation, action on choices, climate of acceptance and respect, student self-evaluation, and verbal clarifying responses.

The following general descriptions of the two programs provide a framework for subsequent discussion of each of the above conditions. In Group I, activity in the first sessions centred on students brainstorming their own lists of possible Project themes, and selecting one theme to be their ongoing work focus. In subsequent sessions, the students began by socializing for a few minutes, then proceeded with work on their individual projects for the remainder of the session. During this time the investigator talked with every child about his or her personal work. As well, a "News" component became part of the group's regular activities. In this activity, students could elect to share with the group any events or ideas of personal interest or concern. After the half-way point in the treatment period, the investigator began responding intentionally in the verbal clarifying mode to student valuative expressions. Also at

this stage the students began and ended each meeting with a goal-setting and self-evaluation activity. Sessions sixteen and seventeen, and twenty-five and twenty-six were devoted to Project sharing, wherein every child shared his or her project work with the group.

In Group II, activity in the first sessions centred on students brainstorming their own lists of possible discussion topics, each student choosing a preferred topic from his or her list, and determining procedures both for selecting a single topic for a meeting and for discussing the topic together. Also a "News" sharing time was structured into the sessions. The investigator participated in the discussions and sharing by using verbal clarifying responses when appropriate.

In subsequent sessions, students began by socializing together for a few minutes, then proceeded to determination of the day's discussion focus, and carried on a discussion. A new topic might emerge either from News or from the established discussion. If such a spontaneous topic seemed popular, the investigator would elevate the new theme into focus for discussion.

Self-evaluation tasks were initiated after the initial phase of the treatment period so that students could assess previous discussions and their own participation, and consider introduction of novel topics. Sessions twenty-five and twenty-six were devoted to evaluation of the different discussion topics that took place, and

students articulated personal favourites.

Encouraging the expression of "value indicators" is essential to stimulate the valuing process dimensions of choosing, prizing, and acting. In group I, News, self-evaluation, project choosing and sharing, and regular work on the Project themes stimulated value-indicating expressions, which include preferences, attitudes, obstacles, feelings, goals and purposes, activities, ideas, and aspirations. In group II, the children's own discussion topics, News, and self-evaluation activities provided the opportunities for expressions of value indicators.

In both clarifying programs, pre-designed "values clarification exercises" were avoided, on the assumption that such stimuli do not accurately reflect or solicit the children's personal and immediate interests, concerns, opinions, or ideas.

Of the three dimensions of the valuing process, Raths (Raths et al., 1966) emphasizes "the crucial criterion of choice". Children in both groups had a number of incidental opportunities for choosing: where to sit, who to sit beside, whether to offer ideas or to remain silent and "pass", how to arrange the furniture and seats, what News items to share, and whether to attend or remain at a particular session.

In group I the significant choice opportunities for individual students were the personal Project themes, the contents to be included in or excluded from a project, and the determination of each day's

Project tasks or alternate work goals. For group II, key choice opportunities centred on determination of initial preferred discussion themes, and then on choice of discussion preferences regarding emergent themes or alternative themes offered by the investigator.

The Project sharing, and the activities of project choosing, News, and self-evaluation of daily work, created the primary opportunities for prizing or affirming one's expressions in group I. In group II, topic selection and discussion, and self-evaluation, created occasions for affirmation.

In respect to the valuing process of taking action on choices, group I students had the concrete medium of chosen project themes through which they could manifest consistent and repeated action. In group II, discussing personally chosen topics, reflecting on past action, and speculating on what one might do in situations removed from the discussion setting, provided a more abstract medium for such action.

For each group, the self-evaluation tasks contributed to the valuing process in a number of ways. They promoted reflection on and examination of behaviour and feelings, stimulated consideration of preferences and interests, choices and decisions, and provided opportunities for prizing and cherishing. As well, they provided valuative material to which the investigator could respond immediately in the verbal clarifying mode, thereby promoting further student reflection and evaluation.

The group leader attended to a climate of acceptance and respect in each group. Fostering an atmosphere wherein children feel safe to express and examine personal ideas, free from threat, judgment, or criticism is considered essential to the enhancement of the valuing process. Rules regarding the prohibition of put-downs and ridicule of ideas were specified from the outset. Children knew of and exercised the right to "pass" when called upon during a discussion. The investigator modeled acceptant, respectful behaviour and attitudes to the children, and to their ideas. Clarifying responses themselves, warmly and non-judgmentally stated, also communicate acceptance and respect.

Verbal clarifying responses create a separate, interpersonal medium for actualizing the clarifying process by engaging students in valuative considerations. Through the dialogue that is created, these responses provoke reflection on and examination of choices considered and made, affirmations or prizings that are stated or latent, and behaviour engaged in or actions taken. The different elements of the two intervention programs were intended to create opportunities for emergence of student value-indicating expressions, and conjunctive use of verbal clarifying responses by the investigator.

#### Data Collection

The investigator collected observational data for the frequency and acuteness of student Value-Related Behaviour prior to and

following the treatment period. The classroom teacher was also trained to use the observation forms, in order that comparative observational data be available. Because of time constraints, he was unable to continue with this task, so there are no inter-rater reliability estimates that could discount the existence of observer bias in the post-treatment ratings.

Pre-treatment observations were recorded in twenty-two observation sessions lasting fifty minutes, during five weeks preceding treatment. Post-treatment observations were made over fourteen sessions of fifty minutes' duration, during the month following treatment.

The investigator sat at the back of the classroom during morning class sessions. He recorded each perceived incident of Value-Related Behaviour, and assigned an acuteness rating to it, on the Value-Related Behaviour: Daily Record form. This form, the description of Value-Related Behaviour Types, and the Value-Related Behaviour: Acuteness Scale, are included in Appendix A.

Because the use of verbal clarifying responses was a central purpose of the study, audiotapes were made of every treatment session with each group. These audiotapes were inspected to determine if the group leader made this mode of responding a part of the intervention programs. Following the treatment period, an independent rater, previously trained and experienced at evaluating and using verbal clarifying responses, systematically examined a randomly-determined



sequence of five audiotapes from each group. Two extra tapes were included in the analysis for group I, one to verify whether verbal clarifying procedures were used in the early (choosing activity) sessions, and one to highlight the phase of treatment when the investigator recommenced systematic application of verbal clarifying procedures.

A procedure for defining and categorizing verbal interactions was adapted slightly from a system developed by Wassermann (Note 4, see Appendix B) incorporating Raths' (Raths et al., 1966) original description of "clarifying responses". The rater used the categories to code the investigator's verbal interactions and the duration of each response. Results indicating the observed occurrence of verbal clarifying responses and other verbal interactions are tallied in Table 4-5 in Chapter IV. Materials used for categorizing and coding the adult verbal interactions are included in the appendices.

#### Instrumentation

The Value-Related Behaviour: Daily Record was used to record each perceived incident of Value-Related Behaviour, and to record an acuteness value for each incident. This instrument was adapted by the investigator from the Form For Measuring the Degree of Value-Related Behavior Problems developed by Raths (Raths et al., 1966). The original form distinguishes eight Value-Related Behaviour categories. It has an eleven-point Frequency Scale for making a single estimate of

frequency of occurrence of the behaviour. The present research produces actual frequency counts for each child over a sustained observation period, and did not need to use the Frequency Scale.

Raths' form has a seven point Acuteness Scale that was reduced to a four point scale by this investigator. As well, the adapted form specifies a criterion for assessing the degree of acuteness, making judgments according to the extent to which the student is distracted from the present classroom activity during the observed behaviour episode.

The observer recorded each episode as one of eight Value-Related Behaviour categories. Raths' (Raths et al., 1966) theory states that the different behaviours subsumed by this broad category all reflect the same etiological factors -- confusion about and lack of development of values. Colucci (1979) investigated non-value-based behaviours and saw indications that this category may break down into "purposefulness", a cognitive factor, and "confidence", an affective factor. He found some support for the claim that lack of value clarity is related to non-valuing behaviour. Research carried out by Greco (1977) examined the discreteness of the eight sub-categories. He concluded that when "overconformingness" (a behaviour not recorded in the present investigation) is deleted from analysis, the seven remaining categories illustrating Value-Related Behaviour can be collapsed into two clusters: Type A (Passive) includes apathy, flightiness, uncertainty, drifting, and inconsistency; Type B (active,

or seeking social contact) includes overdissension and role-playing. This investigator assumes that both of these clusters represent the same causal factors, and clustered all frequency counts into a single generic category of "Value-Related Behaviour" for the purpose of data analysis. A separate analysis of "Type A" behaviour was also carried out.

#### Data Analysis

It was decided that the Sign Test would provide a reasonable method for analyzing changes in frequency of students' Value-Related Behaviour from pre- to post-treatment, and that the Kruskal-Wallis Test would be used to compare frequency change-scores of students in the three groups.

Each group's mean acuteness scores pre- and post-treatment were examined, and compared with mean scores of the other groups. Because changes and differences were very small, it was decided not to use any statistical procedures to analyze the acuteness data.

## CHAPTER IV

Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine changes in children's classroom behaviour following their participation in a value clarifying program that emphasized adult use of verbal clarifying responses. Five hypotheses were tested to evaluate the effects of two different clarifying programs compared with the effects of no clarifying program on the frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour in the classroom. The results regarding these hypotheses are presented in this first section. Included also are an analysis of the investigator's verbal interactions in the clarifying programs, and qualitative data consisting of student evaluations and observations of the investigator.

Results

Each hypothesis has two components: (a) Frequency of Value-Related Behaviour and (b) Acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour. Results are discussed for each component separately, in the framework of the five hypotheses.

### Frequency data

Prior to treatment, each child was observed for a maximum of twenty-two observation sessions. Following treatment, each child was observed for a maximum of fourteen observation sessions. Each child's frequency score was transformed to represent the frequency of Value-Related Behaviour incidents had there been one hundred observation sessions pre- and post-treatment. This transformation therefore takes into account frequency score differences arising from variations in individual student attendance during the observation periods. The transformation procedure also equalizes the two observation periods. Table 4-1 displays the raw and transformed frequency scores for each child in each group, and shows the change scores -- differences in each child's transformed frequency scores -- from pre- to post-treatment.

### Acuteness data

Every observed incident of a child's Value-Related Behaviour was assigned a single Acuteness Rating score. Each Rating was assigned according to the Acuteness Scale (see Appendix A), a modification of a scale published by Raths et al. (1966). Ratings on this scale ranged from Mild (1) to Severe (4).

An Average Acuteness Score per incident was calculated, based on each group's total number of incidents of Value-Related Behaviour during the pre- and post-treatment observation periods. For each

Table 4-1. Changes in Student Value-Related Behaviour Frequency Scores

Group	S. no.	PRETREATMENT			POSTTREATMENT			CHANGE SCORES
		No. of Observes	No. of Incidents	Transform. Freq.	No. of Observes	No. of Incidents	Transform. Freq.	
I.	1	22	21	95	13	6	46	-49
	2	22	19	86	14	3	21	-65
	3	22	10	45	14	2	14	-31
	4	22	9	41	14	1	7	-34
	5	12	12	100	7	0	0	-100
	6	21	14	67	14	3	21	-46
II.	7	15	29	193	14	33	236	+43
	8	21	35	167	14	45	321	+154
	9	22	6	27	14	3	21	-6
	10	21	43	205	14	14	100	-105
	11	22	17	77	13	19	136	+59
	12	22	9	41	13	3	23	-18
III.	13	22	35	159	13	23	177	+18
	14	19	27	142	6	15	250	+108
	15	22	18	82	14	18	129	+47
	16	22	9	41	13	4	31	-10
	17	22	9	41	14	4	29	-12
	18	22	2	9	14	0	0	-9

group, the Average Acuteness Scores pre and post-treatment could be compared, and Average Acuteness Score changes could be compared with other groups' change scores. This summary information is presented in Table 4-2.

The average Acuteness Scores for each child are not analyzed for two reasons: (1) First, two children in the study had no observed incidents of Value-Related Behaviour post-treatment, and a "zero" average would be meaningless. Second, for several children, the low number of incidents pre- and post-treatment would yield an Average Acuteness Score based on so few observations as to be of doubtful reliability, and an analysis of individual score changes would give a disproportionate weighting to possible change scores of these individuals.

The information given in Table 4-2 indicates very small changes in the Average Acuteness Scores of each group. Differences are so small as to be of no practical significance.

#### Hypothesis 1

There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I following exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

Table 4-2. Changes in Value-Related Behaviour, Group Mean Acuteness Scores

Group	PRETREATMENT			POSTTREATMENT			CHANGE SCORES
	No. of Incidents	Cumulative Acuteness Score	Mean Acute. Score	No. of Incidents	Cumulative Acuteness score	Mean Acute. Score	
I.	85	190	2.2	15	31	2.1	-0.1
II.	139	344	2.5	117	269	2.3	-0.2
III.	100	228	2.3	64	153	2.4	+0.1



#### 1(a). Frequency

Adjusted frequency scores of each child in Group I were compared for the pre- and post-treatment observation periods. Changes in frequency scores were evaluated according to the Sign Test (Marascuilo and McSweeney, 1977, pp. 50-53).

The frequency of Value-Related Behaviour diminished for all six children in that group. When applying the Sign Test, these changes are significant beyond the 0.05 level of significance, and Hypothesis 1(a) is rejected. Evidence supports the alternate hypothesis that there was a statistically significant reduction in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment group I.

#### 1(b). Acuteness

As presented in Table 4-2, change in Group I's Mean Acuteness Score pre- to post-treatment was minimal. The data are judged not to support rejection of null Hypothesis 1(b).

### Hypothesis 2

There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II following exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

## 2(a). Frequency

Adjusted frequency scores of Value-Related Behaviour of each child in Group II were compared for the pre- and post-treatment observation periods, and changes were evaluated according to the Sign Test. These data are displayed in Table 4-1.

As presented in Table 4-1, three students in this group exhibited increases, and three decreases in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour following the treatment intervention. These changes are not significant at the 0.05 level of significance when applying the Sign Test, and it is concluded that there was no change in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour of students in group II.

## 2(b). Acuteness

As displayed in Table 4-2, change in Group II's Mean Acuteness Score pre- to post-treatment was minimal. There is no indication of changes in acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour for students in group II.

## Hypothesis 3

There will be no change in the observed frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in control Group III following no exposure to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

### 3(a). Frequency

Adjusted frequency scores of Value-Related Behaviour of each child in Group III were compared for the pre- and post-treatment observation periods, and changes were evaluated according to the Sign Test. These data are displayed in Table 4-1.

There were three change scores indicating increases in Value-Related Behaviour, and three change scores indicating decreases, from pre- to post-treatment. The Sign Test indicates that these changes can be assumed to be the result of chance, and it is concluded that there was no change in the observed frequency of Value-Related Behaviour following no exposure to a value-clarifying program.

### 3(b). Acuteness

As displayed in Table 4-2, changes in Group III's Mean Acuteness Score pre- to post-treatment were minimal. There is little evidence of change in acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour for the control group, and null Hypothesis 3(b) should not be rejected.

### Hypothesis 4

There will be no difference between observed changes in frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group I compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group I to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

#### 4(a). Frequency

Adjusted frequency change scores of all subjects in the experiment were ranked, from the greatest reduction in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour to the least reduction (greatest increase) in frequency. A non-parametric one-way analysis of variance, the Kruskal-Wallis Test (Marascuilo and McSweeney, 1977, pp. 299-307), was applied to the groups' rankings of frequency change scores. Change scores and rankings are displayed in Table 4-3.

Confidence estimates of differences in between-group mean ranks, as represented in the composite Kruskal-Wallis H statistic, indicate significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the mean ranks of the three groups. In comparing the mean ranks pairwise, the mean rank of Group I change scores is significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) from the mean rank of Group III change scores. The data are evaluated to support rejection of Hypothesis 4(a), and to support the alternate hypothesis that there was a significant reduction in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour in group I as compared to the control group.

#### 4(b). Acuteness

The difference between Mean Acuteness Score changes in Group I and in Group III can be seen in Table 4-2. The difference is small and there does not appear to be any meaningful difference in acuteness score changes.

Table 4-3. Value-Related Behaviour Frequency Change Score Ranks, and Mean Ranks Analysis of Variance.

Group	S. No.	Change score	Change score rank	Group mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H
I.	1	-49	4	$R_1 = 4.5$	$H = 8.03^*$
	2	-65	3		
	3	-31	7		
	4	-34	6		
	5	-100	2		
	6	-46	5		
II.	7	+43	14	$R_2 = 11.5$	
	8	+154	18		
	9	-6	12		
	10	-105	1		
	11	+59	16		
	12	-18	8		
III.	13	+18	13	$R_3 = 12.5$	
	14	+108	17		
	15	+47	15		
	16	-10	10		
	17	-12	9		
	18	-9	11		

Pairwise Comparison of Mean Ranks:  
Confidence Table

contrast	estimate
$R_1 - R_3 =$	-8.0*
$R_2 - R_3 =$	-1.0
$R_1 - R_2 =$	-7.0

\*  $p < 0.05$

### Hypothesis 5

There will be no difference between observed changes in frequency and/or acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment Group II compared with students in control Group III following exposure of students in Group II to a value-clarifying program using verbal clarifying responses from an adult.

#### 5(a). Frequency

Data in Table 4-3 indicate that there are significant differences in the frequency change score mean ranks of the three experimental groups. However, the change score ranks of students in Group II are not significantly different from the change score ranks of students in Group III. Therefore, evidence supports null Hypothesis 5(a) and does not suggest consideration of an alternate hypothesis.

#### 5(b). Acuteness

The difference between Mean Acuteness Score changes in Group II and Group III are seen in Table 4-2. The difference is small and supports null Hypothesis 5(b).

To summarize the quantitative findings of this study: Value-Related Behaviour frequency scores of students in treatment group I (Projects) were significantly reduced from pre- to post-treatment (Hypothesis 1a) and when compared with frequency change scores of

students in control group III (Hypothesis 4a). There were no significant changes in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment group II (Discussion) from pre- to post-treatment or when compared with control group III. There were no significant changes in frequency for students in control group III. There is no support for rejection of any null hypothesis pertaining to acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour.

#### Condensing Value-Related Behaviour into one category

In the present study the eight Value-Related Behaviours (see Appendix A) have been collapsed into a single category for hypothesis and statistical analysis purposes. Previous investigations have examined each of these eight behaviours separately.

Greco (1977) analyzed the degree to which these eight behaviours might condense to represent a single dimension. He concluded there is a valid condensation of the eight behaviours into two separate clusters. Greco called one cluster Factor A, which incorporates apathy, flightiness, uncertainty, drifting, and inconsistency. The other cluster, Factor B, includes overdissension and role-playing ("dissimulation"). Greco's study found the behaviour "overconformity" to correlate with neither cluster and with none of the other seven Value-Related Behaviours.

In the present investigation, frequency data has been tallied for

these two behaviour clusters, to provide data consistent with Greco's categorizations. Table 4-4 displays the frequency data for Factor A behaviour. Factor B frequency data have been excluded from analysis because for several students, there were too few observed Factor B behaviour incidents to provide a data-base for comparison purposes.

When data in Table 4-4 are analyzed, the results parallel the results found when analyzing changes in Value-Related Behaviour condensed into a single category. That is, when Factor A data are isolated and analyzed separately, evidence ( $p < 0.05$ ) leads to the rejection of the null Hypotheses 1(a) and 4(a) and acceptance of the alternate hypotheses.

#### Adult Verbal Interactions

Data regarding the investigator's verbal interactions were collected for the intervention (clarifying) programs in Group I and Group II. The purposes of these data are to verify that "verbal clarifying responses" were an integral component of the clarifying programs, and to examine the use of these responses in comparison with the use of "directive" and "management" interactions.

From audiotape records of every session, five tapes from each group were selected for coding analysis. Selection was determined by generating a random number for the selection of the first tape, then using every fifth tape. Sessions 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25 were designated for analysis.



Table 4-4. Value-Related Behaviour Frequency Change Score Ranks, and Mean Ranks Analysis of Variance, "Factor A" only.

Group	S. No.	Change score	Change score rank	Group mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H
I.	1.	-55	4	$R_1 = 4.33$	$H = 8.77^*$
	2.	-56	3		
	3.	-31	6		
	4.	-29	7		
	5.	-92	1		
	6.	-34	5		
II.	7.	+80	16	$R_2 = 11.83$	
	8.	+167	18		
	9.	+5	12		
	10.	-83	2		
	11.	+63	15		
	12.	-20	8		
III.	13.	+29	13	$R_3 = 12.33$	
	14.	+124	17		
	15.	+32	14		
	16.	-10	9		
	17.	-7	11		
	18.	-9	10		

Pairwise Comparison of Mean Ranks:  
Confidence Table

contrast	estimate
$R_1 - R_3 =$	-8.0*
$R_2 - R_3 =$	-0.5
$R_1 - R_2 =$	-7.5

\*  $p < 0.05$

For group I, two additional tapes were examined: session one, to provide indications of the investigator's application of verbal clarifying responses during this group's initial "Choosing of project-topics" phase, and session 18, to illustrate the time in this group's program when the investigator recommenced systematic application of verbal clarifying responses.

Coding instruments (see Appendix B) were used by an independent rater who had extensive training and background in Raths' value theory and verbal clarifying procedures. He examined the 12 audiotapes using coding guidelines adapted from Raths et al. (1966) and Wassermann (Note 4), and a tally system developed by the investigator. Analysis of the audiotapes yielded data concerning three types of investigator verbal interactions in the clarifying programs: verbal clarifying, directive, and management responses.

The data that the scoring procedure made available are: (a) the number of each type of response in every session, (b) the mean duration (T) of responses in each category, and (c) the mean "periodicity" of each type of response -- that is, how many seconds elapsed on average during a session before a similar type of response was made. These data are summarized in Table 4-5.

This table shows the investigator talking in each group for an average of 38 percent of the total meeting time, that he began a verbal interaction an average of every ten seconds, and that the average duration of a discrete adult response was about four seconds.

Table 4-5. Adult Verbal Interactions: Session Summary Data.

Interact. Type	Interact. Variable	Group No.	Session Number						
			1	5	10	15	18	20	25
	% <u>Adult Talk</u> <u>Total Time</u>	I	54	43	33	27	42	40	34
		II		45	35	39		35	37
ALL RESPONSES	Number of Responses	I	160	95	180	184	180	248	181
		II		237	253	161		181	212
	Mean Length of Response(sec.)	I	4.3	5.8	3.2	2.7	4.8	3.7	4.1
		II		4.6	3.4	4.6		3.5	4.0
	Mean Response Periodicity(sec.)	I	8	13	10	17	11	9	12
		II		10	10	12		10	11
VERBAL CLARIFY- ING RESPONSES	Number of Responses	I	50	7	7	10	46	86	72
		II		79	53	52		60	88
	Mean Length of Response(sec.)	I	2.7	3.2	2.0	2.0	4.5	2.7	3.7
		II		3.9	2.8	4.4		2.8	3.6
	Mean Response Periodicity(sec.)	I	25	180	251	186	45	27	30
		II		30	45	36		30	26
DIRECT- IVE RESPONSES	Number of Responses	I	62	21	47	67	31	45	31
		II		21	55	21		44	31
	Mean Length of Response(sec.)	I	5.1	5.9	3.2	3.2	4.5	4.6	3.7
		II		4.0	2.8	4.7		3.2	3.6
	Mean Response Periodicity(sec.)	I	21	60	37	28	66	51	70
		II		114	44	90		41	105
MANAGE- MENT RESPONSES	Number of Responses	I	48	67	126	107	103	117	78
		II		137	145	88		77	102
	Mean Length of Responses(sec.)	I	4.9	6.0	3.3	2.6	4.9	4.1	4.2
		II		5.0	3.8	4.8		4.1	4.4
	Mean Response Periodicity(sec.)	I	27	19	14	17	20	20	28
		II		18	17	22		23	23

With group I, some of the investigator talk took place in private interactions with individual students, while with group II most of the adult talk, although directed to an individual student, took place within the group while all members were attending to the same theme. That is, overall, the investigator was perhaps more a centre of attention in group II than in group I.

#### Verbal clarifying responses

Verbal clarifying responses are the adult's reaction to students' expressions that indicate a component of personal valuing or valuation. They are those responses which (a) attend directly to the student's idea, (b) attend, and invite the student to examine a part of the statement, or (c) challenge the student's thinking about the issue. They can be phrased either as a reflective response or as a clarifying question.

Summary data in Table 4-5 provide indications that in group I the investigator used verbal clarifying responses at a high rate in the first session, then used this response at a low rate (every three or four minutes) until session 18. After this time the investigator's use of the verbal clarifying response in group I matched the consistent level of its use with group II (approximately every half minute).

The duration of each response tended on average to be longer when used in group II than in group I, ( $T_2 = 3.5$  sec.,  $T_1 = 3.2$  sec.), but

average length of response is similar for the two groups in the last two analyzed sessions (T approximately 3.2 seconds).

The accumulated periodicity of adult verbal clarifying responding was every 45 seconds in group I and every 34 seconds in group II. Such responses were not only infrequent in group I during the first half of its treatment (clarifying) program, but were also of shorter duration during this phase.

#### Directive responses

Directive responses are those which react to the content of the student's statement by (a) agreeing or disagreeing, (b) leading or manipulating, (c) offering a personal opinion or point of view, (d) praising or disputing a student's idea, or (e) providing an answer.

Summary data in Table 4-5, and comparative data in Table 4-6, provide indications that adult directive responses occurred differently in the two groups. They were used at a higher rate overall in group I than in group II (every 42 seconds versus every 66 seconds), and tended to last longer (for 4.2 seconds compared with a mean duration for group II of 3.4 seconds).

When comparing mean periodicity during the first phases of each group, there are distinct differences. In group I such responses occurred much more frequently than in group II (about every 37 seconds compared with every 82 seconds). During this time, a directive

Table 4-6. Adult Verbal Interactions: Session Mean Data,  
Group I and Group II.

Verbal Response	Mean No. Responses		Mean Resp. Time (sec.)		$\frac{\text{Response T.}}{\text{Total Resp. T.}}$ (percent)		Response Rate (sec.)	
	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
ALL RESPONSES	175	209	3.9	4.0	38	38	10.3	10.4
CLARIFYING	40	66	3.2	3.5	18	28	45.5	36.2
DIRECTIVE	43	33	4.2	3.4	26	13	41.6	66.3
MANAGEMENT	92	110	4.1	4.4	55	58	19.6	19.7

response used in group I tended to last longer than did a directive response used in group II.

### Management responses

Management responses are those which (a) are used to manage or promote students' participation in their program, (b) are used to manage student behaviour, or (c) are unrelated to the themes of a session, such as when the adult relates personal experience.

Data in Tables 4-5 and 4-6 indicate that the investigator's management responses occurred about as often in each group (every 20 seconds) and that when used in group II lasted somewhat longer than when used in group I (4.4 sec. compared with 4.1 sec.). Subjective summary comments made by the rater after analyzing each tape provide some indication that there may have been a higher degree of behaviour management interaction initiated by the investigator in group II than in group I, and that there may have been a higher degree of interaction focused on organization, and work procedures, in group I than in group II.

### Response frequency: comparison ratios

The relative frequencies of each type of adult interaction during each session were also examined, in order to provide indications of the degree to which the investigator was using these interactions proportionally within a session and throughout the treatment programs.

The ratios showing the comparative frequency of the responses in each session are illustrated in Figures 4-1 and 4-2.

These figures illustrate the frequency of each response-type's occurrence in a session, when compared to the frequency of occurrence of each other response-type during that session. In Figure 4-1, for example, during session "5" there was one clarifying response (denoted by x ) for every three directive responses (+) and for every ten management responses (\*). This ratio -- 1 : 3 : 10 -- is written below the session number axis. The reader is alerted visually to fluctuations in the ratios across sessions, by lines connecting each response-type.

Figure 4-1 presents the frequency ratios for group I. The figure indicates that after session I (when the different response-types occurred equally as often), there was always a greater number of directive than clarifying responses, and an even greater number of management responses, until session 18. Starting with session 18, directive responses were used least, and management responses occurred slightly more often than did verbal clarifying responses. Overall, after session one there were always more management responses used than clarifying responses in the sessions analyzed. This difference was extreme during sessions 5, 10, and 15, and modest in the other sessions. Once verbal clarifying response procedures were recommenced (session 18), the occurrence of directive responses was somewhat less frequent than the use of clarifying responses. Note that in Figure



Figure 4-1. Group I, Adult Response-Rate Ratios.  
 Verbal clarifying : Directive : Management.

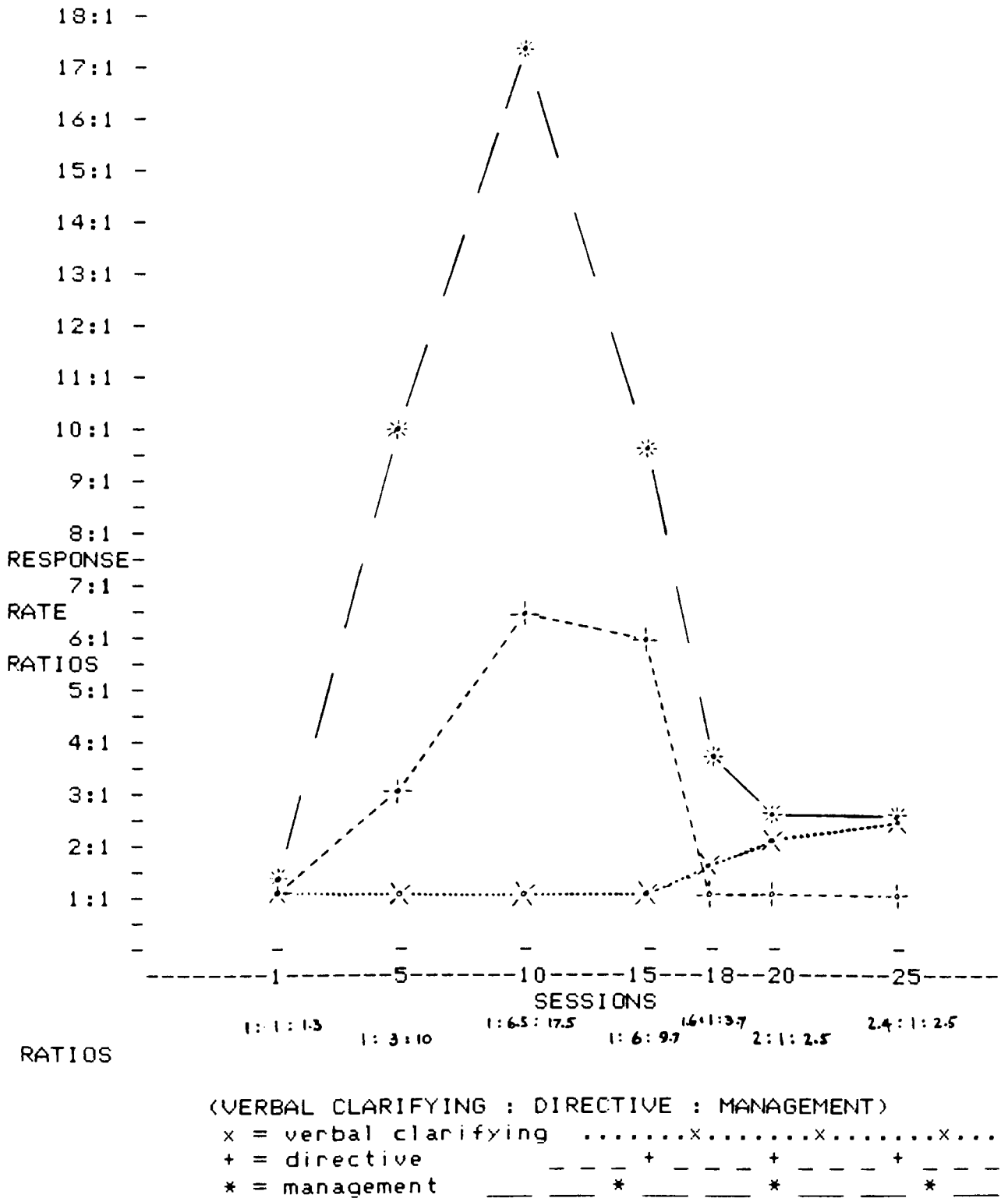
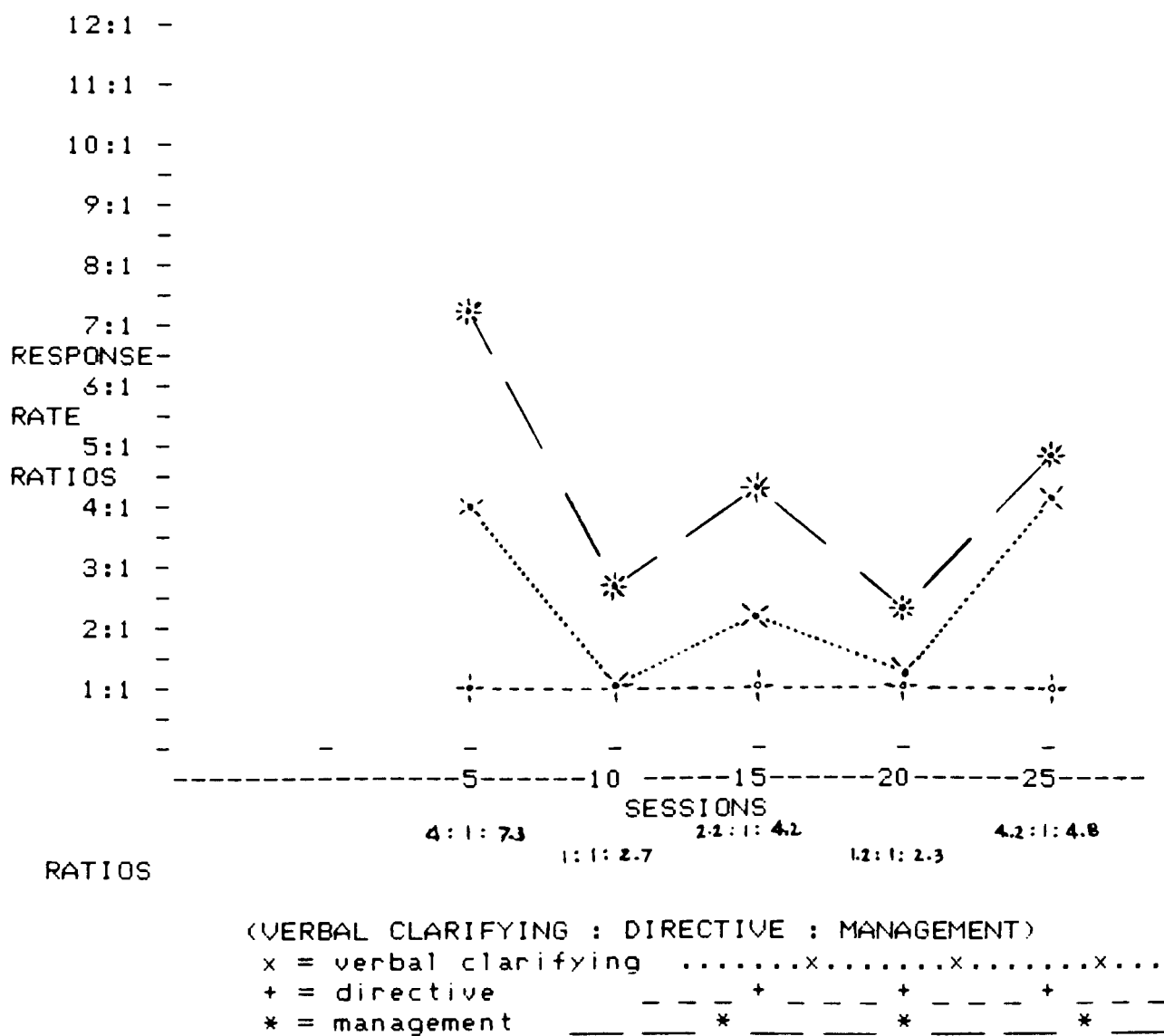


Figure 4-2. Group II, Adult Response-Rate Ratios.  
 Verbal clarifying : Directive : Management.



4-1 the directive response symbol (+) is now at the baseline, and the ratios are depicted in the same order as before --

Verbal clarifying : Directive : Management (1.6 : 1 : 3.7).

Figure 4-2 illustrates that in group II directive responses were always the least used, except in sessions 10 and 20 when they occurred as often as verbal clarifying responses. Management responses were always somewhat more frequent than verbal clarifying responses.

This section has presented data collected concerning the investigator's use of verbal clarifying responses with each group over the treatment period. The data indicate that the verbal clarifying response was a component of both clarifying programs. The data also provide a picture of the degree to which this response was used in comparison to the use of other verbal interactions in the two programs.

#### Qualitative Data

The data presented in this section are based on evaluations completed by the students at the end of their experience, and on the investigator's observations of the children's behaviour during the programs.

In group I, children completed an evaluation form that solicited their ratings of certain program components. Appendix C contains the evaluation form, and Table 4-7 presents the children's ratings.

These ratings reveal some consensus and some deviation in

Table 4-7. Student Ratings of Program Components, Group I.

(RATINGS: EXCELLENT=4; GOOD=3; OKAY=2; NOT VERY GOOD=1)

<u>TOPIC</u>	<u>RATINGS</u>						Mean	
	students:	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.		6.
CHOOSING TOPICS FOR PROJECT WORK		3	4	3	4	4	-	3.6 (data not available)
DOING PROJECTS WORK		4	3	4	1	2	-	2.8
NEWS AND SHARING TIME		4	4	4	2	3	-	3.4
DRAWING		3	4	3	3	4	-	3.4
FREE READING OR HOMEWORK		2	3	2	0	4	-	2.2
SHARING OUR PROJECTS		4	3	3	4	2	-	3.2
DOING DAILY PLAN SHEETS*		0	0	0	1	0	-	0.2
DISCUSSIONS								
a) sharing money*		4	4	0	1	2	-	2.2
b) adults being fair		3	3	2	2	4	-	2.8

\*A zero rating was assigned by some students although not included in the rating scale.

children's preference. "Choosing Topics for Project Work", "News and Sharing", an optional "Drawing" activity, and "Sharing of Projects" received consistently high ratings from the children. The mean student ratings for these components were 3.6, 3.4, 3.4, and 3.2 respectively. "Doing Project Work" and two spontaneous "Discussions" received variable but generally positive ratings (mean ratings of 2.8, 2.2, and 2.8). The activities of "Free Reading or Homework", other student-selected alternatives to project work, had several low ratings (mean 2.2), and "Doing Daily Plan Sheets" received consistently very low ratings (mean 0.2).

The investigator observed that the choosing of project themes and subsequent project work appeared to draw the sustained attention of all group members, and the degree of children's involvement in their projects may have increased as more sessions occurred. The children sat at their own places, but often worked in pairs, discussing and sharing their work or other topics. Typically the children solicited direction, approval, and assurance from the investigator for their project work during the initial phases of the program. They often asked such questions as:

"Is this good?"

"What should I do now?"

"How should I (draw my title page)?"

After a number of sessions, "News and Sharing" was introduced. The children readily learned to listen and to take turns, while

simultaneously continuing with their projects. Not long thereafter, the investigator introduced "Daily Plan and Evaluation" sheets, and then recommenced concerted use of verbal clarifying responses. During this period, after half way through the 26 session program, students began to choose alternate activities periodically, and to specify the alternate focus on their Daily Plan. The frequency with which children opted for alternate activities appeared to diminish after a time.

During the latter phases of the treatment period, the atmosphere was one of interest and excitement. The students regularly requested "News and Sharing" while doing project work. This atmosphere persisted through the final session, with the three project-sharing sessions being particularly positive times.

The qualitative data described for group I suggest that students had opportunities for choice, affirmation, and action, and that students rated favourably the program components that reflect these elements of the clarifying process.

In group II, children completed an evaluation form that solicited their ratings of topics that had been central discussion themes. Appendix C illustrates this form, and Table 4-8 presents the students' compiled ratings.

Student preferences can be distinguished according to three categories. First, there are those topics that arose spontaneously during general discussion time. These topics, such as "Kids and

Table 4-8. Final Evaluation of Discussion Topics, Group II.

(Ratings: EXCELLENT=4; GOOD=3; OKAY=2; NOT VERY GOOD=1)

<u>TOPIC</u>	<u>RATINGS</u>						Mean
	students:	<u>1.</u>	<u>2.</u>	<u>3.</u>	<u>4.</u>	<u>5.</u>	
FAVOURITE PERSONAL QUALITIES	2	4	3	1	2	1	2.2
CHOOSING TOPICS (Animal experiments, money for African relief, money for our school)	1	2	2	1	1	3	1.7
KIDS AND MONEY	4	2	4	3	3	4	3.3
NEWS	1	3	2	1	3	2	2.0
CHOOSING TOPICS (Cheating, loyalty to friends, chores, doing boring school work)	3	3	4	1	4	2	2.8
WHAT BUGS ME AT SCHOOL	2	4	2	3	2	1	2.3
PRACTICAL JOKES	3	4	4	4	4	3	3.7
WHAT WE DID ON THE WEEKEND	4	4	3	1	4	2	3.0
CHILDREN'S RIGHTS	1	1	3	3	2	2	2.0
TALKING ABOUT MOVIES	2	3	3	2	3	3	2.7
FRIENDSHIP, being a good friend	3	3	4	1	2	2	2.5
PEACE AND WAR	0	2	1	2	1	2	1.3
ANIMAL KILLING	0	3	2	3	1	3	2.0

Money", "Practical Jokes", and "Talking About Movies", received consistently high ratings from the children (mean ratings of 3.3, 3.7, and 2.7 respectively). When these topics emerged naturally, some consensus about their degree of interest to the students would be evident immediately, and the investigator elevated the themes into focus.

Topics that the investigator himself had intermittently introduced to provide focus in a session were somewhat less highly rated. These included "Animal Killing", two activities of "Choosing" a discussion topic from a short prepared list, and "News". Student mean ratings for these topics were 2.0, 1.7, 2.7, and 2.0 respectively.

The following low-rated topics -- "What Bugs Me About School", "Peace and War", and "Children's Rights" (mean ratings of 2.3, 1.3, and 2.0) -- have a distinguishing characteristic. Each was specified by a child on the children's individually developed "Preferred Topics" list completed in the first sessions.

These qualitative data indicate children expressed least preference for discussion themes proposed formally by other children, or for themes proposed by the investigator, and greatest preference for those themes that emerged spontaneously within a session.

During discussion times, children's participation skills were seen to be undeveloped. The children had difficulty attending to others, respecting other's ideas, and sharing their own ideas



coherently. Students' discussion in a terminal session was focused on likes and dislikes regarding their experiences in the clarifying program (see Appendix C). It revealed that these difficulties had been of concern to the students themselves:

"I disliked it when people were goofing off and not listening."

"I disliked it when it was chaos and no one paid attention."

"I disliked it when kids ganged up to tease and pick on one another."

"I disliked it when people interrupted when I was talking."

Other comments, some by the same children who disliked the "fooling around", allude positively to the fractious behaviour that was common in the group until the late phases of the treatment period:

"I liked it when we got to dress up and fool around."

"I liked it when fooling around."

"I liked it when we did what we wanted and didn't have to worry about detentions."

As the treatment period progressed, the investigator perceived two phenomena. Discussion themes of interest to the group as a whole emerged more frequently, and discussions would endure for a sustained period. Also, there was some reduction in the individuals' fractious behaviour coupled with an increase in spontaneous group activities such as "pirates", "castles", and "building a spaceship".

Although there was a positive atmosphere in the late stages of

treatment, qualitative data as a whole suggest that students in group II may not have had consistent opportunities to experience clarifying processes of choice, affirmation and action within their program.

#### Summary of Findings

Qualitative data have been presented that illustrate student attitudes and investigator observations regarding each group's clarifying program. Other topics in the Results chapter include an examination of quantitative data pertinent to the hypotheses, and a description of data regarding the investigator's verbal interactions.

Group I demonstrated significant reductions in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour following the treatment period. No changes were evident in the frequency of Value-Related Behaviour of students in treatment group II, or of students in control group III who had not participated in a clarifying program. There appeared to be no meaningful changes in the acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour within any group. Differences were noted in the investigator's patterns of interaction in the two treatment groups, and qualitative data suggest that the two clarifying programs were different in the degree to which they involved the students in a clarifying process. The next chapter of this thesis discusses and suggests interpretations of these findings, states some conclusions, and examines some implications.

## CHAPTER V

## Discussion, Conclusions, and Implications

This chapter discusses those results of the study pertaining to the five hypotheses, results from an analysis of the investigator's verbal interactions, and results categorized as qualitative data. It then makes some conclusions based on the findings, and considers several implications of the study.

Discussion of Results

For the purposes of this study, the term value indicator was used to refer to attitudes, interests, concerns, activities, feelings, and ideas that are a child's unique expressions. The term verbal clarifying response was used to describe an appropriate verbal response to such expressions, a response that focuses non-judgmentally on the substance of a child's value-related considerations or valuing behaviour (reflected in value indicators), and accurately and neutrally reflects this content back to the child so that the child can examine his or her own valuations. The term clarifying program was used to refer to conditions that encourage students' expressions of value indicators, involve children in processes of choice, affirmation, and action, and include an adult's use of verbal clarifying responses to these expressions.

Elements of the clarifying program in group I intended to

encourage such expressions were:

- (a) opportunities to choose project topics of personal interest;
- (b) opportunities to act on the chosen topic in a systematic way;
- (c) opportunities to affirm and prize the choices and the project work completed.

Other conditions for encouraging the expression of value indicators were:

- (d) regular planning and self-evaluation of work; and
- (e) regular sharing of personal "News".

For students in Group II, conditions in a small group structure called a discussion group were created to encourage student value indicator expressions, and include:

- (a) opportunities to brainstorm and choose personally relevant themes for discussion with the group;
- (b) opportunities to choose from among suggestions for discussion focus presented by the leader;
- (c) opportunities to discuss topics that arose spontaneously;
- (d) opportunities during discussion to affirm personal attitudes, preferences, or ideas;
- (e) opportunities to consider past or possible future action related to the attitudes, preferences, or ideas.

It is pertinent to note that the opportunities for choice, affirmation, or action were usually abstract rather than concrete. That is, affirmation of expressed attitudes, ideas, and preferences

was considered and reflected on during discussions, but it could not include affirmation of present action. Nor did experiences in the immediate discussion situation lead to concrete output, such as completed project work, that could be prized. Action itself was not often an option in the child's immediate environment, and there were probably limited opportunities for student choice that could be acted on concretely and immediately.

In Chapter II, studies were presented to demonstrate that clarifying programs which incorporate one-to-one interchanges between teacher and student may have positive effects on student behaviour, when the teacher is using verbal clarifying responses (Jonas, 1960; Martin, 1960; Machnits, 1960; Klevan, 1957; Lang, 1962; J. Raths, 1960, 1962; Simon, 1958; and Brown, Note 6). One study (Simon) reported no positive changes in behaviour, but indicated that teachers had not effectively enacted verbal clarifying responses. The positive behaviour changes are described as reductions in frequency and acuteness of Value-Related Behaviours, increases in purposeful, positive, and proud student behaviour, or increases in student achievement. The clarifying programs in this "first generation" of research were usually applied with individual students identified to exhibit extremes of Value-Related Behaviours.

Other studies presented in Chapter II, a "second generation" of research, investigated clarifying programs that consisted predominantly of values-clarification exercises with classroom groups,

but some of these programs may also have included some adult use of verbal clarifying procedures. Of these studies, Covault (1973) and Guziak (1975) reported small but significant changes on Value-Related Behaviour indices. Dixon (1978) reported positive outcomes on the same indices, and Wenker-Konner et al. (Note 7) described major change on similar indices -- refusal to participate, and engaging in alternate behaviours. Greco (1977) found no significant effects on student behaviour.

Still other studies were cited (Bramson, 1983 and Boyle, 1978) that used a program of values-clarification exercises, with no accompanying use of verbal clarifying responses. These studies saw no evidence of changes in student behaviours.

Leming (1981) evaluated a group of values-clarification studies that focused on different dependent variables -- self-esteem, self-concept, value clarity, and various achievement indices, and concluded that overall the studies indicated that values-clarification (exercises) had no effects on these variables.

The purpose of the present study was to focus on the use of verbal clarifying responses to children's value indicator expressions as a primary vehicle for operationalizing Raths' value theory. This focus is more similar to that of the "first generation" research than it is to the "second generation" research, which stresses efforts to operationalize Raths' value theory through application of programs consisting of values-clarification exercises.

The study examines the effects of participation in each of two clarifying programs on the Value-Related Behaviour of students in the study. These students were from a regular classroom and were not pre-selected according to any criterion of initially extreme frequency or acuteness of such behaviours. One group of six children engaged in a program that provided structure and media for activity on individual projects; the other engaged in a program that provided structure and media for group discussions.

#### Quantitative Data

Statistical analysis of behaviour observations pre- and post-treatment shows that there were different effects for the students in the two treatment groups. Application of Sign Test procedures indicates that there was a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) diminution of frequency of Value-Related Behaviour in group I, the Projects group, from the pre- to the post-treatment period. There was no significant change in these behaviours for students in group II, the Discussion group. Neither was there any significant change in a control, group III.

As well, the magnitude of the Value-Related Behaviour frequency change scores from pre- to post-treatment was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) for group I in comparison with change scores of students in a control, Group III, according to change score differences evaluated by the Kruskal-Wallis Test. There was no difference between frequency change

scores of Group II when compared with those of the control, Group III.

A difficulty exists concerning the reliability of post-treatment observations. The investigator was also the observer of children's classroom behaviour. A second observer, the classroom teacher, had been trained to use the observation instruments, but he was unable to take the time to collect observational data systematically, so estimates of inter-rater reliability are not available. There is therefore the possibility of observer bias infiltrating post-treatment observations. Nevertheless, the fact that post-treatment data indicate significant shifts in frequency for students in group I, but no significant shifts in frequency for group II, suggests that observer bias may not have affected the results.

In a similar way, the fact of no significant change for group II but significant change for group I provides evidence that Hawthorne effects may not account for the significant differences between behaviour changes in Group I and (no) behaviour changes in the control, Group III.

As a consequence of using a sustained observation period that yielded tallies of observed Value-Related Behaviour incidents, frequency data are available for every child in the study (refer to Table 4-1). Past studies (Greco, 1977; Klevan, 1957) have suggested procurement of such data for individual children. To date, group studies that examine Value-Related Behaviour as a dependent variable have used data analysis of group-mean behaviour frequency scores.



The present study provides the opportunity to inspect individual change scores more closely. The reader is cautioned that the magnitude of any change score is not necessarily stable, because an increase or decrease of only one or two frequency tallies can alter a subject's overall frequency score considerably.

Inspection of group I frequency scores as presented in Table 4-1 reveals that the least decrease in frequency from pre- to posttreatment was 52 percent, the other decreases in frequency being 69, 69, 81, 85, and 100 percent. While remembering the caution about magnitudes of change, it appears that the reduction in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour was consistently substantial for students in this group.

In examining the degree of change in acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour the present study is constrained to refer to Average Acuteness Scores for each group, for reasons described in the Results section. When comparing the pre- to post-treatment changes in Average Acuteness Score for group I taken as a whole, a diminishing in Acuteness of 0.1 points is seen (on a rating scale whose total range is three points -- i.e. a four point scale). This change is so small as to have little or no practical significance, even if procedures that might demonstrate statistical significance could be applied.

When group Mean Acuteness change score of group I is compared with that of group III, the control group, (whose mean score increased by 0.1 points pre- to post-treatment) there is a favourable difference

of 0.2 points, about nine percent of the total range of the Acuteness Scale. No claims as to confidence or significance of such differences can be made, but it is of interest that some other studies (Covault, 1973; Dixon, 1978; Guziak, 1975) have found a similar difference -- about nine percent -- between treatment and control group Mean Acuteness score changes for some Value-Related Behaviours.

Past group studies have relied on group Mean Acuteness Scores pre- and post-treatment, calculated as the average of single acuteness ratings made for each child in the group. Reductions in acuteness reported in past studies are both small and suspect. Their validity is suspect because there is no clear interpretation of how the acuteness ratings are really "independent observations" -- single ratings distinctly separate from, or not interactive with, the single ratings of frequency. As well, the subjectivity of single ratings by classroom teachers that assess acuteness pre- or post-treatment brings into question the reliability of those data. The present study did not successfully overcome the problem of looking at changes in group Mean Acuteness Scores as opposed to isolating individual subject scores that could be compared.

The investigator in the present study had modified an Acuteness Scale (Raths et al., 1966) which ranged from 0 to 6, into a scale with a range from 1 to 4. While scales with narrower ranges are expected to provide more reliable discriminations (Borg & Gall, 1979, pp. 334-336), the modified scale may not have been useful as a tool for

making meaningful discriminations regarding the acuteness of an observed Value-Related Behaviour episode.

Raths' value theory hypothesises that values confusion is manifest in behaviour patterns that are called generically "Value-Related Behaviours". Descriptors of the eight discrete Value-Related Behaviour patterns provide the means for teachers' identification of children's confusion or uncertainty in values development.

Nevertheless, results of the present study suggest that for experimentation purposes collapsing the eight categories into a single category may be an appropriate methodology. The fact that frequency change-score ranks were stable across the three experimental groups when following Greco's (1977) proposal to collapse five behaviours into a single category supports this idea. Other research (Colucci, 1979; Wenker-Konner et al., Note 7) suggests similar changes in research methodology.

#### Adult Verbal Interactions

The results of a systematic examination of the investigator's verbal interactions in the treatment (clarifying) programs in groups I and II articulated data pertaining to three different categories of responding: verbal clarifying, directive, and management. The mean duration of any response was calculated, as was its mean periodicity -- the average rate at which a response-type recurred during a

session. Investigator-to-student responses were also analyzed to investigate the ratio of occurrence of each response-type compared to the other response-types during a session.

The analyses verified the presence of adult verbal clarifying responses in the two programs, provided a longitudinal perspective of the interactions in each group throughout the treatment program, and established a basis for comparing the interaction phenomena in the two groups.

When interaction data were examined as a whole, investigator verbal responses were seen to occur equally as often in the two groups (every ten seconds), to last equally as long (about four seconds), and to cover equal amounts of the meeting times (about 38 percent).

When interactions are distinguished by category, similarities and differences in mean response duration and periodicity were noted, both within groups across sessions and between groups.

#### Group I Data

Data in Table 4-7 show that verbal clarifying responses were used frequently in the first meeting, then infrequently until after the fifteenth session. In the first meeting, the different response-types occurred equally as often, but in following sessions up to number 18 the management response mode was prevalent, and directive responses occurred much more often than verbal clarifying (see Figure 4-1). Subjective commentary provided by the audiotapes-rater described

frequent use of management responses that structured the group's procedures during this phase.

After session 17, the ratio of use of the three response-types converged to some degree, with directive responses occurring least often during this last phase.

The data in Table 4-7 provide evidence that verbal clarifying procedures were a component of the group's clarifying program.

#### Group II Data

Data in Table 4-7 indicate that verbal clarifying responses were used to a consistent degree throughout the treatment period. There is also an indication that directive responses usually occurred less frequently than the other responses. Figure 4-2 illustrates that management responses always occurred at a higher frequency than verbal clarifying responses. Subjective commentary solicited from the tapes-rater described frequent responding to manage student behaviour. Table 4-7 summarizes data that verify the use of verbal clarifying procedures as part of the treatment program.

#### Comparative Data

Verbal clarifying responses occurred more frequently in group II (every 33 seconds) than they did in group I (every 45 seconds). The mean periodicity of such responses in group I in sessions 1, 18, 20, and 25 matched group II's mean periodicity. But in sessions 5, 10,

and 15, the rate of verbal clarifying responses in group I (every three or four minutes) was much lower than the rate in group II over that period (every 38 seconds).

During the treatment period, directive responses occurred more often in group I (every 42 seconds) than they occurred in group II (every 66 seconds). Management responses occurred with equal frequency for each group (every 20 seconds), but group I may have been exposed to more structural and procedural management, and group II to more behaviour management.

Figures 4-1 (group I) and 4-2 (group II) illustrate the frequency rates of each response-type in ratio to other response-types, across the treatment period.

In group I, management responses dominated sessions 5 to 15, while directive responses occurred less often than management but more often than verbal clarifying. After this time, directive responses occurred somewhat less often than the other types, and the ratio of all three remained fairly stable. There is some indication from Figure 4-1 that after session ten, management responses in group I decreased as verbal clarifying responses increased, and that directive responses decreased as verbal clarifying increased.

In group II, directive responses were consistently of low frequency in ratio to management responses, and usually lower than verbal clarifying responses. While management responses always occurred at a higher rate than verbal clarifying, there is an apparent

consistency in their relationship. Management responses and verbal clarifying responses always increased and decreased together in relation to the frequency of directive responses. This means that an increase or decrease in verbal clarifying responses was accompanied by an increase or decrease in management responses.

### Interpretations

In view of the fact that classroom behaviour of students in group I had changed after the treatment period, and that there were no significant changes in classroom behaviour of students in group II, some insights about this difference may be provided by the interaction data.

Perhaps the focus on procedural and structural management contributed to students' feelings of security in the group. The sense of security may have been enhanced with some directive responding, a response mode with which students may be more familiar and that may provide some initial security through praise. The initial activity in group I, choosing project themes, coupled with clarifying responses, may have fostered a climate of enthusiasm and acceptance, plus some initial success in the valuing process.

It may be the case that confusion was reduced by the structuring, security enhanced by the clear procedures and directive responding, and enthusiasm generated by the initial choosing experiences, to a degree sufficient to create a climate of acceptance and respect. Once

this climate was established, students were possibly more inclined to reveal authentic value indicators, and the increased use of verbal clarifying responses in later sessions may have stimulated reflection and examination without evoking a stressful degree of dissonance.

The situation may have been somewhat different for students in group II. There was an immediate and sustained immersion in clarifying processes provided by the steady high level of verbal clarifying interactions. Stressful levels of dissonance may have been generated, and then sustained. The infrequency of directive responses and structuring management responses may have contributed to rather than allayed feelings of confusion and uncertainty. If students experienced a stressful degree of dissonance and uncertainty, and a climate of acceptance and respect was not achieved, then it may have been less likely that they felt safe to express authentic and personal value indicators. In such conditions, the verbal clarifying responses would not appropriately tie in with student expressions of personal interest or concern, and may have induced further stressful dissonance.

Data presented in Table 4-1 show that students in group II tended to exhibit higher levels of Value-Related Behaviour in the pre-treatment period than did students in group I. These data suggest higher levels of confusion and uncertainty for some students in group II at the commencement of the treatment period. This confusion may have been exacerbated by insufficient structure, insufficient security



from praise and other directive responding, a diminished climate of acceptance and respect, and an accompanying stressful level of dissonance.

Another possibility may account for the fact that some students in experimental group II showed post-treatment increases in frequency of Value-Related Behaviour. If students have seriously unmet emotional needs (see Raths & Burrell, 1963), frequent verbal clarifying interactions are expected to be a threatening condition for them (Raths et al., 1966). Perhaps some students in group II had a significant degree of emotional insecurity, and the verbal clarifying responses may have threatened them and obstructed the valuing process.

Students who exhibit higher levels of Value-Related Behaviour may also be more resistant to change than other students, and "immersion" in clarifying processes may be less appropriate than gentle and increasing exposure to clarifying procedures. A steady preoccupation with this function of teaching would probably do harm with respect to the total situation (L. Raths, Note 2, p. 11). It can perhaps be stated that the clarifying process "can start gently and go deep" (Simon & deSherbinin, 1975).

### Qualitative Data

#### Group I

The activities that involved student choice making, and the sharing of personal ideas, were most favoured by the group members.

Student evaluations that appear to support this perception are:

"You could sit where you wanted."

"I liked the freedom of choice, like doing anything we wanted within reason."

"We could talk about things and not get in trouble."

Considering the high ratings for the "Project Sharing" activities, and the relatively high ratings for "Doing Project Work", along with the high ratings for "Choosing Project Topics" and for other choice situations, it may be stated that the three elements of the valuing process -- choosing, affirming, and acting -- were activated in the clarifying program and provided favourable experiences for the children.

Other commentary reveals distaste for the Daily Plan and Evaluation tasks:

"I didn't like it because it seemed like we were under surveillance."

"They were boring because they were the same thing over and over."

"They were boring."

"Sucks harshly."

The self evaluation activity had very low ratings from all the students. Perhaps students are accustomed to being evaluated by teachers and others, and any kind of evaluation procedure is experienced as a judgment or criticism, or as conditional approval.

Notwithstanding the negative student ratings, the investigator

considered that the self-evaluation process provided students with opportunities for choice, affirmation, and action, to which verbal clarifying responses could be made. The investigator perceived the Daily Plan and Evaluation also to be a factor in stabilizing the group and in diminishing fractious behaviour, by providing a medium for children to create and understand structure and norms.

When considering the dynamics within this group, two other factors may have contributed substantially to the development of a progressively more positive and cooperative atmosphere. According to pre-treatment data displayed in Table 4-1, the children in Group I exhibited a moderate degree of Value-Related Behaviour prior to treatment. Also, the activities in their program were predominantly centred on project work. These activities provided a structure wherein the children always had an understanding of what action they could be involved in.

### Group II

In group II, the qualitative data with respect to student feedback and investigator's observations show similarities and differences compared to data from group I. These data suggest that the children in Group II were unable or unwilling to respect another student's individually chosen preferred topic. This relative absence of respect, coupled with the children's observed lack of discussion skills, may have established a condition whereby children perceived

much risk in sharing their most personal ideas, interests, concerns, or attitudes, a condition subverting children's expression of value indicators to which verbal clarifying responses could have personal meaning and impact.

On the other hand, when topics of interest to everyone in the group arose naturally, and when this shared interest was evident to the group, discussions were more cooperative. Feedback from the children during a last-session evaluation of the experience indicates an appreciation for these discussions:

"I liked it when everyone was discussing and listening."

"I liked it when sometimes we had good discussions."

"I liked it when we talk about whatever comes to mind."

These data are in accord with ratings from the student evaluation forms. The ratings suggest a clear preference for the topics that arose spontaneously during other discussions and that sparked everyone's interest. There is within these data the suggestion that discussion topics which have potential for providing expression of value indicators are not ones that are imposed on or offered to the group by any individual, but are ones that occur spontaneously in a situation.

The self-evaluation task sheets imposed by the leader were disliked by these students:

"The sheets are too dumb."

"The sheets -- I thought they were dumb."

Perhaps the students' dislike for these self-evaluation tasks reflects the same resistance the children exhibited toward topics imposed or suggested by a single person, along with apprehension about possible external judgment.

In the perception of the investigator, the initial levels of self-centred rather than cooperative group behaviour was high. Also, according to pre-treatment data presented in Table 4-1, the initial levels of Value-Related Behaviour were generally quite high in comparison with the levels observed for the other groups. Perhaps the evident lack of group discussion skills, and the extent of fractious behaviour during sessions, reflect children's confusion or uncertainty.

Toward the late stages of the treatment period, students appeared more able to take turns, to listen to others, and to share personal ideas. Discussions tended more often to arise naturally, to endure longer, and to sustain a single focus.

As well, there was a diminution of fractious behaviour late in the treatment period, and a parallel increase in occurrence of unified group activity, such as "pirates", "castles", and "building a spaceship". These shifts suggest an increase in student feelings of belonging and security may have been occurring.

Group dynamics

Louis Rath (1954) contributes to a comprehension of the group dynamics variables operant in both groups. Rath noted that feelings of personal empowerment, and subsequent self-esteem, accrue from experiences of making a substantive contribution to the group experience, from engaging in a personally worthwhile activity (as defined by personal choice, preference, and interest), and from having a say in the definition and norms of the group. Such individual experiences contribute to group members experiencing feelings of status.

When group members experience status, and are aware of others' status, there is a decline in feelings of confusion. Rath hypothesized that group climate or morale relates directly to group accomplishment and to individual feelings of accomplishment.

The choosing, working on, and sharing of projects could have contributed to a decline in confusion among students in group I. In group II, perhaps the students did not have norms or structure they could understand, or opportunities to engage in processes of choice, affirmation, and action. It may be the case that in the Discussion group there were few opportunities for status -- because of the abstract nature of the task of sharing ideas, because children did not feel respect for their ideas, and because children did not get feelings of accomplishment from this process.

In the Projects group, every child had a topic of personal

interest, and had opportunities to share that interest. The giving and getting of status due to personal expertise may have provided feelings of personal power, and accomplishment.

### Summary

This discussion has interpreted the findings of the study, which showed that value-related behaviour of students in one treatment group diminished while behaviour changes of the students in the other were variable. The interpretation has suggested two sources for the differential effects: variations in the investigator's verbal interaction patterns, and variations in other components of the two clarifying programs.

When the three response-types were considered, possible influences of each were suggested. First, these students needed a degree of directive responding from the investigator, for reassurance and for familiarity. Second, management interactions that structured procedures for the students in an understandable way promoted a climate of security rather than confusion. When fewer of these interactions occurred, more behaviour management interactions appeared to have been necessary. Third, the clarifying response mode was more effective when it was paced to the students' progressive involvement in self-directed activity rather than when it was prevalent from the outset.

A perspective on the other program components has led to the

interpretations that the more effective clarifying program for this population of students provided identifiable concrete structure and procedures, and a group climate promoting sufficient acceptance and respect. As well, the more effective clarifying program appeared to provide constructive opportunities to make personally relevant choices, to act on those choices, and to share personal work affirmatively.

It is suggested further that the verbal clarifying response procedures were more effective when they interfaced with the above valuing processes than when they interfaced with more abstract, less immediate and personal value indicator expressions.

This discussion of findings has examined quantitative data concerning the hypotheses, data regarding the investigator's verbal interactions, and qualitative data that include student evaluations and observations of the investigator. It points to conclusions regarding the treatment programs.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn with respect to the purpose of the study:

1. In group I, the clarifying program included:
  - (a) student expression of value indicators,
  - (b) student involvement in processes of choice,



- affirmation, and action, and
- (c) adult verbal clarifying response procedures applied to children's valuative expressions.
2. The clarifying program for group I was shown to be effective in significantly reducing the frequency of student Value-Related Behaviour in the classroom.
  3. In group II, the clarifying program included:
    - (a) student expressions of value indicators, and
    - (b) adult verbal clarifying response procedures applied to children's value indicator expressions.
  4. The clarifying program for group II was not shown to be effective in significantly reducing the frequency of student Value- Related Behaviour in the classroom.
  5. No change was seen in classroom Value-Related Behaviour of students who did not participate in a clarifying program.

### Implications of the Study

1. Engagement of children in self-directed project work may create a medium for student choice, affirmation, and action and for student expression of value indicators to which teachers can respond in the verbal clarifying mode.

2. Engagement of children in values-rich discussions may create a medium for student expression of value indicators to which teachers can respond in the clarifying mode, but may not create a medium for sufficient stimulation of the processes of choice, affirmation, and action.

3. Values-clarification exercises may not elevate students' expressions of value indicators that are personally relevant and meaningful, or may not involve students in processes of choice, affirmation, and action, to a degree sufficient to promote student behaviour change.

4. Concrete activity may contribute more than does abstract discussion, to engagement of young students (11 years old) in a valuing process.

5. The concept of "acuteness" of Value-Related Behaviour is difficult to separate from the concept of frequency, and may be difficult to measure meaningfully.
  
6. A climate of acceptance and respect may be a necessary condition for engaging children in a valuing process.
  
7. Exposure to verbal clarifying responses may be a necessary condition for engaging children in a valuing process that leads to behaviour change.
  
8. 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.
  
9. The opportunity for children to express personal and authentic value indicators in the domains of choice, affirmation, and action, in a climate of acceptance and respect, and accompanied by exposure to verbal clarifying responses, may be the necessary and sufficient conditions to involve students in a valuing process that leads to positive student behaviour change.

10. There may be a definable "readiness" factor regarding a child's openness or resistance to verbal clarifying responses.

11. Raths' value theory may be applied in classrooms productively with any students, not only those exhibiting extremes of Value-Related Behaviour.

12. Teachers' instructional methods can include specific verbal interaction skills that respond directly to worrisome behaviour patterns of children and that contribute to children's autonomous functioning.

13. Condensing the eight Value-Related Behaviour categories into fewer categories, or into one category, may be a suitable experimental procedure for recording observations of and calculating changes in frequency or acuteness of children's Value-Related Behaviour.

#### Implications for Further Research

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

1. Examines the effects on children's classroom behaviour

of those teachers who

- (a) have been trained to use verbal clarifying responses accurately, and
- (b) demonstrate accurate application of these responses in the classroom.

2. Tests the reliability and validity of the verbal clarifying response measurement instruments used in the study and/or contributes to the development of new measurement instruments.
3. Investigates the factor of student "readiness" for verbal clarifying response procedures.
4. Examines the effects on children's classroom behaviour of classroom procedures for children's self-directed study that effectively generate value indicators and student involvement in processes of choice, affirmation, and action.
5. Examines and defines the scope of Value-Related Behaviour, beginning with efforts to validate the definitions of "Value-Related Behaviour Types".

6. Refines the methods used in this study for collecting Value-Related Behaviour frequency data, for example by using videotapes of classrooms and using trained raters to evaluate behaviour frequency data.

APPENDIX A

Observation Instruments:  
Frequency and Acuteness of Value-Related Behaviour

## Value-Related Behaviour

### Using the Daily Observation Record

This instrument helps the teacher identify children whose patterns of behaviour suggest difficulty in or confusion with values development, and whose learning may be interfered with as a consequence.

The sheet "Behaviour Descriptions" describes 8 categories that are related to confusion about personal values. An important factor is not simply the presence of one or more of the various behaviour symptoms, but also the frequency and intensity of their occurrence.

Study the description of each behavioural symptom carefully.

When you perceive an episode of Value-Related Behaviour, record it by number on the Daily Observation Record. At the same time, make an estimate of the intensity, or "acuteness" of that behaviour episode, using the "Acuteness Scale" as a guide.



Value-Related Behaviour: Daily Observation RecordBehaviour Categories

1. Apathetic
2. Flighty
3. Uncertain
4. Inconsistent
5. Drifting
6. Overconforming
7. Overdissenting
8. Role-playing

Acuteness of Behaviour

- 1 = Mild
- 2 = Moderate
- 3 = Severe
- 4 = Extreme

Child's Name	Behaviour Category (Use a number) as above)	Acuteness Rating (Indicate by Number)	Descriptive Notes (To help describe specific episode)
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			
10.			
11.			
12.			
13.			
14.			
15.			
16.			
17.			
18.			
19.			
20.			

Value-Related Behaviour

## Acuteness Scale

(0 = NO SUCH SYMPTOMS)

- |              |  |
|--------------|--|
| 1 = MILD     | Does not obstruct the child's effective participation in class activities* |
| 2 = MODERATE | Reduces somewhat the child's effective participation in class activities*  |
| 3 = ACUTE    | Reduces greatly the child's effective participation in class activities*   |
| 4 = EXTREME  | Prevents the child's effective participation in class activities*          |

\* for the time-span of the observed Value-Related Behaviour.

## Value-Related Behavioural Types: BEHAVIOUR DESCRIPTIONS\*

**1. The apathetic, listless, disinterested child**

This child lacks interest in almost everything; often goes through the motions expected, but just doesn't care. He or she is passive and indifferent: looks out windows, fiddles with things in pockets, daydreams frequently, and gets excited about almost nothing. He or she is difficult to motivate and often a school drop-out. The words "apathetic" and "disinterested" suit this child well.

**2. The flighty child**

This child is interested in almost everything, but just for a fleeting moment. The flighty child is characterized by quickly shifting interests or attention, and doesn't seem able to settle down for sustained periods. He or she flits from this to that; seems to have no stable interests or concerns. Attention span is short, and he or she rarely follows through with something begun.

**3. The very uncertain child**

Some children seem unable to make up their minds, not sometimes, but most always. Simple choices throw such a child into a quandary. He or she takes a long time with decisions; seems to be in doubt about 'wants' and 'likes'. He or she often prefers that others make the decisions and almost always is reluctant to be involved in decision-making situations. This child often wants help or does not know what to try, or do, next.

**4. The very inconsistent child**

This type of child supports one thing today and supports just the opposite tomorrow. Now in favour of integration; later he or she will likely be for segregation. Or the child talks for peace in this context and war in that context. He or she blows hot and cold; seems regularly and persistently to take positions and engage in behaviour that is inconsistent. Sometimes the child says one thing but does another. Sometimes it is just that no views, preferences, or opinions are repeated.

\* Adapted from Rath, et al., 1966, pp. 175-176.

## 5. **The drifting child**

Some people seem to drift through life. No purposes seem to guide them. They seem not even bothered by worries. Nothing seems very important. They take what comes without trying to change things or themselves. They respond, but not with gusto. They almost never get deeply involved. They don't seem to expect much and they don't seem to give much. Their manner is typically lackadaisical and it seems appropriate to refer to them as "drifters".

## 6. **The overconforming child**

This type of child will expend great efforts in trying to conform to what is perceived as the norm or the power position. Sometimes the child will say or write what the teacher or other grownups want said or written, but sometimes will do just the opposite when the peer group is perceived as dominant. Overconforming children seem to have no positions or ideas of their own. They take their cues from others. Left alone the child often feels lost and anxious, often needs to get directions from others.

## 7. **The overdissenting child**

Most children dissent sometimes, but some children seem to be persistent, nagging dissenters, finding fault whenever they can, picking and complaining at all but invisible stimuli. This type of child does not seem to be a rational dissenter, although he or she will oftentimes be very skillful at making up arguments when needed. The dissension becomes irrational. It is as if, not having a value pattern of his or her own, this child gets identity by opposing others, and especially those in authority. This kind of nagging dissenter is not a very pleasant person with whom to deal.

## 8. **The role-playing child**

finally we note the poseur, the child who searches for his or her identity by pretending to be someone else. He or she may be the class fool; may be the stoic, or the romantic lover, or use an ever-changing variety of roles. This child often seems to be acting, and in an unreal and immature way. The roles seem contrived, not really the person at all. Perhaps the child mimics other children and sometimes the teacher.

APPENDIX B

Rating Instruments:

Adult Verbal Interactions



B. Instruction Sheet: Coding Teacher Verbal Responses

1. To indicate commencement of a response, draw a horizontal line across a five-column (minute) sector at the time in seconds of onset.
2. To indicate category of response\* draw a vertical line down the column which matches the appropriate category, for the duration of the response. This vertical line indicates the length of time of the verbal response.
3. To indicate completion of the response draw a horizontal line across the five-column sector in use at that time.
4. If there is a perceptible pause in the teacher response simply lift the pencil, and continue drawing the vertical line when the response commences.
5. When any full minute elapses, simply move to the top (0") of the adjacent column to the right.
6. When you have coded for six minutes, begin another "coding grid" sheet.

\* Refer to Appended Sheet C for response descriptors.

C. Descriptors for Response Category Discrimination

After: Clarifying Responses: Louis E. Rath  
 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 question form.



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

Agreeing/disagreeing with the student.

Leading/manipulating 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.

Teacher accepts the student's idea.

Teacher "manages" the session.

Teacher invites responses from other students.

Teacher interacts to manage student behaviour.

Other unrelated responses.

APPENDIX C

Clarifying Program Evaluation Forms, Group I and II  
and Verbal Evaluations, Group II

Final Evaluation Sheet, Group I

HELP TO RELATE THE DIFFERENT TOPICS

Name

\_\_\_\_\_

If you think the topic was

Put the number

EXCELLENT . . . . .	4
GOOD. . . . .	3
OKAY. . . . .	2
NOT VERY GOOD . . . . .	1

CHOOSING THE TOPICS FOR PROJECT WORK \_\_\_\_\_

- Doing title page \_\_\_\_\_
- Doing resources list \_\_\_\_\_
- Doing outline \_\_\_\_\_
- Doing brief notes \_\_\_\_\_

DOING PROJECTS WORK \_\_\_\_\_

NEWS AND SHARING TIME \_\_\_\_\_

DRAWING \_\_\_\_\_

FREE READING OR HOMEWORK \_\_\_\_\_

SHARING OUR PROJECTS \_\_\_\_\_

DOING DAILY PLAN SHEETS \_\_\_\_\_

DISCUSSIONS

a) Sharing money \_\_\_\_\_

b) Adults being fair \_\_\_\_\_

ANY IDEA YOU REMEMBER \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

On the back, tell why you came to the group.

Final Evaluation Sheet, Group II

HELP TO RATE THE DIFFERENT TOPICS

If you think the topic was \_\_\_\_\_ put the number

EXCELLENT . . . . .	4
GOOD. . . . .	3
OKAY. . . . .	2
NOT VERY GOOD . . . . .	1

beside it.

MY FAVOURITE PERSONAL QUALITIES \_\_\_\_\_

CHOOSING TOPICS -- \_\_\_\_\_

Animal experiments, money for African relief, money  
for our school

KIDS AND MONEY \_\_\_\_\_

NEWS \_\_\_\_\_

CHOOSING TOPICS -- \_\_\_\_\_

Cheating, loyalty to friends, chores, doing boring  
school work.

WHAT BUGS ME AT  
SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

PRACTICAL JOKES \_\_\_\_\_

WHAT WE DID ON  
THE WEEKEND \_\_\_\_\_

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS \_\_\_\_\_

TALKING ABOUT  
MOVIES \_\_\_\_\_

FRIENDSHIP being a good friend \_\_\_\_\_

PEACE AND WAR \_\_\_\_\_

ANIMAL KILLING \_\_\_\_\_

ANY DISCUSSION THAT YOU REMEMBER \_\_\_\_\_

What was it? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Students' Evaluative Responses: Group II

WHAT I LIKED ABOUT THE GROUP:

- Student 1: "... when talking and when building spaceships."
- Student 2: "... got to sit where we wanted to."  
"... got to dress up and goof around."
- Student 3: "... when everyone was discussing and listening."  
"... we could sit where we want."
- Student 4: "... wool fights."  
"... sometimes when we had good discussions."  
"... when making chairs [e.g. spaceships] and stuff."  
"... when fooling around."
- Student 5: "... castles on chairs."  
"... threw wool."  
"... we didn't have anything to worry about when we did what we wanted -- no detentions."
- Student 6: No data available.

WHAT I DISLIKED ABOUT THE GROUP:

- Student 1: "... sheets ... I thought they were dumb."  
"... everything we said kind of had to turn into a topic."  
"... when kids gang up to tease and pick on one another."  
"... when it was chaos and no one would pay attention."
- Student 2: "... sheets. They are too dumb."
- Student 3: "... when people were goofing off and not listening (to the leader)."  
"... when people interrupted when I was talking."  
"... when charging around class with the chairs."
- Student 4: "... when people fooled around when we wanted to have a discussion."
- Student 5: "... when I was ready, or the whole class was, and others were yelling at the top of their lungs and stuff."  
"... when everyone had a place but not me."
- Student 6: No data available.

APPENDIX D

Task-Work Self-Evaluation Form, Group I  
Self-Evaluation Tasks, Group II

Task-Setting and Self-Evaluation Form. Group I

The project work that I am going to do today is:

---

---

---

How much did I get done today of what I wanted to get done?  
(put a check mark beside the words that describe how much I did)

- All or nearly all \_\_\_\_\_
- Some, or quite a bit \_\_\_\_\_
- Not so much, or only a little \_\_\_\_\_

The work that I did today was:  
(put a check mark beside the one sentence that describes your work today)

- Some of my best work \_\_\_\_\_
- Some of my good work \_\_\_\_\_
- Some of my OK work \_\_\_\_\_
- Some of my not-so-good work \_\_\_\_\_

Group II: Evaluating Participation

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Today's Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Today's Discussion Topic Was:  
\_\_\_\_\_

When I was discussing the topic:

I shared some of my best ideas	_____
I shared some good ideas	_____
I shared some OK ideas	_____
I shared some not-so-good ideas	_____
I did not share ideas	_____

When I was listening to other kids' ideas:

I did some of my best listening	_____
I did some of my good listening	_____
I did some of my OK listening	_____
I did some of my not-so-good listening	_____
I did not listen	_____

I helped the group to decide the next topic:

A lot	_____
Somewhat	_____
A little bit	_____
I was not able to help	_____



Group II: Self-Evaluation Tasks

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Today's Date: \_\_\_\_\_

I help the group think of topics to discuss:

All or most of the time	_____
Some of the time	_____
Now and then	_____
Hardly ever, or never	_____

When I share my ideas in discussion, they are:

Usually some of my best ideas	_____
Usually some of my good ideas	_____
Usually some of my OK ideas	_____
Usually some of my not so good ideas	_____
Usually I do not share my ideas	_____

When other kids share their ideas my listening is:

Excellent	_____
Good	_____
OK	_____
Not So Good	_____
I Don't Listen	_____

In my opinion,  
the best discussion topic so far is:

---

In my opinion,  
the worst discussion topic so far is:

---

Group II: Self-Evaluation Task

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Today's Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Today's Discussion Topic:

The Topic Is: \_\_\_\_\_

I think the topic is:

Excellent:	_____	Really Interesting:	_____
Good:	_____	Interesting:	_____
OK:	_____	A Bit Interesting:	_____
Bad:	_____	Not Interesting:	_____

I would rather talk about:

\_\_\_\_\_

And I would also like to talk about:

\_\_\_\_\_

Group II: Self-Evaluation Task

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Today's Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Today's Discussion Topic is:  
\_\_\_\_\_

(Put a check mark in the box that describes your opinion.)

1. My opinion about the topic is:

I agree, Yes	_____
I don't agree, No	_____
Maybe, Yes	_____
Maybe, No	_____
I don't know, or can't decide	_____

2. Some of my own ideas about the topic are:  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_3. Some reasons for my ideas are:  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

4. My opinion of today's topic:

Really interesting	_____
Fairly interesting	_____
OK, or a bit interesting	_____
Not interesting, or boring	_____

5. My opinion about my discussing is:

I shared some of my best ideas	_____
I shared some good ideas	_____
I shared some OK ideas	_____
I shared some not-so-good ideas, or did not share	_____

6. My opinion about my own listening to other kids ideas:

Some of my best listening	_____
Some of my good listening	_____
Some of my OK listening	_____
Some of my not-so-good; or I did not listen	_____

7. I was able to help the group to decide a discussion topic for next time:

A lot	_____
Somewhat	_____
A little bit	_____
I was not able to help	_____

8. An idea I would like the group to discuss is:

---

APPENDIX E

Parent and Student Consent Forms

Dear Parent,

A small but important research project is taking place in your child's school. We are seeking effective ways of assisting children to be more effective learners. This project is under the supervision of Simon Fraser University's Faculty of Education. The faculty's ethics committee, and the Vancouver School Board, have approved the project.

We would like all children in the project to complete a few simple questionnaires. In addition we will invite some children from your child's class to participate in small group activities (six children per group). An experienced teacher/researcher will supervise at all times.

The group's activities will consist of regular academic work, or discussions. Groups will meet regularly for two 40-minute periods each week for the next four months. The children will not lose any curriculum-task opportunities by participating.

We will audiotape the group meetings, and videotape them once per week. The tapes will not be heard or seen by any school personnel and can be destroyed at the end of the research period.

Please sign the consent form below and return it to the school with your child. If you have any further questions, please call the school at 738-7147, or call Harold McAllister at 291-3395 (Simon Fraser University), or 732-9591 (home), or leave him a message at the school.

Thank you for your kind assistance and cooperation with this project.

Yours very truly,

Harold McAllister  
Teacher/Researcher

Marian Reid  
Principal

---

I give my child \_\_\_\_\_ permission to participate in the research project, including the small group activities if he/she is invited to take part.

Signature of parent or guardian

---

Permission Form for Children

I know Harold McAllister is doing a project with my class.

I know he will be doing the following activities with children in the class:

- get us to fill out a short question sheet for ideas we have about ourselves.
- ask some kids to take part in 2 groups, by pulling names from a hat.
- the groups will meet 2 periods a week, until May.
- one group will meet to work on regular assignments such as math, social studies, and language arts, with Mr. McAllister supervising.
- one group will meet to talk about ideas of their own -- interests, concerns, beliefs, goals -- and Mr. McAllister will be supervising.
- he will tape-record the meetings, and make a video of 4 of them.
- he will not play anything on the tapes for any teacher or any parent or for any other person in the school, nor tell anything I said.
- he can destroy the tapes after the project is over and he has used them to analyze his own talking.

I fully understand that I can choose not to take part, and that it is perfectly OK, and will not be bad for my marks, or report card. And, I can stop taking part any time I want.

I am willing to take part in the activities.

Signed

---

Child's Name

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