CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, NORTHRIDGE

AFFECTING BEHAVIOR THROUGH

THE VALUE-CLARIFICATION PROCESS

A project submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in

Educational Psychology

by

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LIST OF TABLES</th>
<th>V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

## Chapter

1. **INTRODUCTION** ........................................... 1
   - Rationale of the Study ................................ 2
   - Hypotheses of the Study ............................... 3
   - Definition of Terms ...................................... 4
   - Delimitations of the Findings ......................... 11
   - Preview .................................................. 12

2. **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE** ....................... 13
   - Role of the Teacher .................................... 18

3. **DESIGN OF THE STUDY** .................................. 23
   - Selection of the Subjects ............................. 23
   - Identification of the Control Group .................. 23
   - Background of Instruments Used ....................... 24
   - Description of the Value-Clarification Approach .... 25
   - Strategy Purpose Chart ................................ 28
   - Account of Statistics ................................... 30

4. **PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS** ....................... 31

5. **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS** ........ 42
   - Summary ................................................ 42
   - Conclusion ............................................. 42
   - Recommendations ....................................... 45
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BIBLIOGRAPHY</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Identification Instrument</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Instrument</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's Form</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iv
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Number of Students Exhibiting Flightiness in the Experimental Group</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Number of Students Exhibiting Dissension in the Experimental Group</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Number of Students Exhibiting Uncertainty in the Experimental Group</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Number of Students Exhibiting Flightiness in the Control Group</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 Number of Students Exhibiting Uncertainty in the Control Group</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 Number of Students Exhibiting Conformity in the Control Group</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

AFFECTING BEHAVIOR THROUGH
THE VALUE-CLARIFICATION PROCESS

by

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Master of Arts in Educational Psychology

June, 1973

The value-clarification theory originally developed by Louis E. Raths and in recent years further implemented by Sidney B. Simon, Merrill Harmin, Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschenbaum was the focal point of this present study. During the course of the school year 1972-1973, numerous activities and strategies directly related to clarifying values were used with a class of thirty-three eighth graders. These students exhibited behavior characteristic of value-related problems. It was hypothesized that as the investigator worked in the classroom to try to clarify values there would be fewer students at the end of the study exhibiting behavior associated with lack of value clarification.

Three criteria were used to select the students exhibiting particular behaviors. The variables of flightiness, uncertainty and dissension were the predominant behaviors in the pre-test and post-test used with the experimental group.
Identical testing was used with a neighboring eighth grade class. The behavior variables of flightiness, uncertainty and conformity were predominant with the control group.

The first hypothesis relating to the experimental group cannot be rejected totally. There was a significant difference at the .05 level in the variable of flightiness. However, the variables of uncertainty and dissension were not significant at the .05 level.

The second hypothesis relating to the control group cannot be rejected totally. There was a significant difference at the .05 level in the variable of uncertainty. However, there was no significant decrease in the number of students exhibiting the behaviors of flightiness and conformity at the conclusion of the study.

The following conclusions are based on the data collected for this study.

1.) Although not significant at the .05 level, there was a decrease in the number of students exhibiting uncertainty and dissension in the experimental group.

2.) In the control group, there was an increase in the number of students exhibiting flightiness.

3.) There was no difference in the control group with the number of students exhibiting the behavior of conformity.

4.) Although the first hypothesis was rejected in part, this investigator has profound respect for the value-clarification process.

5.) Although the first hypothesis was rejected in part, the investigator has concluded that students in this study can no
longer be described as leaderless, lacking self-direction and over-conforming to the peer group beliefs, opinions and standards.
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

There is a freshness, an exuberance among new teachers preparing to meet for the first time the challenge and the awesome task of working consistently with a group of youngsters for a long period of time. These same qualities of freshness and exuberance also characterize both very young children starting school and a small minority of older students. With the passage of time and experience, however, a gradual reversal of attitude toward education and learning seems to result among teachers and students alike. Teachers, too, often tend to forget they are teaching persons, not textbook information. Students' interest and enthusiasm wane; they, too, often become disenchanted with school and teachers and exhibit unacceptable behavior. Some of the questions arising from these conditions seem to be: Is this reversal of attitude toward education and learning a result of conditions in our society today? What kinds of reasons for these situations can be determined? Are educators involved in developing and guiding students to act positively, proudly and enthusiastically regarding themselves and their world? Is the confusion of society today reflected in the attitudes, actions and beliefs of today's students? What are some definite steps being taken to develop positive attitudes in students toward themselves and their world? Raths, Harmin and Simon express their concern in the following quote taken from their book entitled Values and Teaching.
Could it be, that the pace and complexity of modern life has so exacerbated the problem of deciding what is good and what is right and what is worthy and what is desirable that large numbers of children are finding it increasingly bewildering, even overwhelming, to decide what is worth valuing, what is worth one's time and energy? Life is certainly less neat and simple than it was even a few generations ago. (Raths, 1966, p.7)

The theory of these authors states that young people today are confused with what they see and hear in the world around them. They are, therefore, confused about what should be valued and cherished in their own lives. This confusion is often exhibited in unacceptable behavior patterns. The theory further hypothesizes that through a clarification of their values students will act more positively, proudly and enthusiastically regarding themselves and their lives.

This valuing process, it would appear, is one of the positive humanistic approaches gaining importance among educators today. Flighty, apathetic, dissenting students today may well be enthusiastic, committed leaders in their world tomorrow.

Indeed, observations of children who have learned to be rationally self-disciplined suggest that value-clarification approaches, based as they are on individual responsibility, are more likely to produce lawful and orderly environments than are approaches for transmitting values, which too often leave students feeling confused and valueless. (Harmin, 1971, p. 696)

Rationale of the Study

This study concerns itself specifically with a group of eighth grade students who, in the observation of the investigator, exhibited a minimum of self-directed behavior which was seen as an impediment to their total growth and potential as individuals. From
observing, as a teacher, these students, both formally and informally as the seventh grade class the previous year, the following was formulated as descriptive of the group:

1. Not one person seemed to function with positive leadership qualities.
2. There was a large group of conformists to the peer group beliefs, opinions, and standards.
3. There was a great deal of peer criticism.
4. Active class participation was offered by the same few students.
5. Discipline problems were frequent and fairly acute.
6. The learning process was often interrupted with behavior problems.

This study was an attempt to assist these students to look at their own personal decisions, choices and beliefs through the process of value-clarification. It is believed that through consistent exposure to this value-clarification process, students with specific behavior problems will display these unfavorable characteristics less frequently because they are more clear about what they prize, cherish and hold dear. They will be more certain in their actions, act more purposefully and positively because they will be given the opportunity to search out and publicly affirm their own beliefs. They will have the opportunity to be accepted in a nonjudgmental atmosphere in the classroom situation. They will be encouraged to think independently and to take a minority stand when they feel that is their true position. Their individual responses will be respected and they will be allowed to raise and answer questions of both a personal and a social concern.

Hypotheses

In order to study the effectiveness of the value-clarification
process the following hypotheses will be tested:

As students have opportunities to become clearer about their values, there will be a significant decrease in the number of experimental students exhibiting unacceptable value-related behaviors at the conclusion of the study. The Chi-Square Test of significance at the .05 level will be used to determine if the difference is significant. There will be no significant difference in the number of students in the control group exhibiting unacceptable value-related behaviors at the conclusion of the study.

Definition of Terms

Value-Clarification Approach

The value-clarification approach is based on the approach formulated by Louis Raths, who in turn built upon the thinking of John Dewey. Its goal is to help students utilize the seven processes of valuing in their own lives; to apply these valuing processes to already formed beliefs and behavior patterns and to those still emerging.

Value; Process of Valuing

For a value to result all of the following seven requirements must apply:

CHOOSING: (1) freely
(2) from alternatives
(3) after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

PRIZING: (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
(5) willing to affirm the choice publicly
ACTING: (6) doing something with the choice
(7) repeatedly, in some pattern of life.

These processes collectively define valuing. Results of the valuing process are called values.

Value Indicators

Value indicators are things that could indicate the presence of a value but are different from a value. Goals or purposes, aspirations, attitudes, interests and feelings, beliefs and activities are examples of value indicators.

Value-Related Behavioral Problem Types

1. The apathetic, listless, disinterested child
2. The flighty child
3. The very uncertain child
4. The very inconsistent child
5. The drifting child
6. The overconforming child
7. The overdissenting child
8. The role-playing child

These types of behavior, occasionally typify most students, but some students seem to be almost chronically so typified. This latter group, Raths, Harmin and Simon believe, might well be provided special help in clarifying their values.

Value-Rich Areas

Value-rich areas are some typical areas where confusion and conflict in values may be experienced. Some of these are:

| politics | culture (art, music, etc.) |
| religion | personal tastes (clothes, etc.) |
| work | aging, death |
| leisure time | health |
| school | race |
| love, sex | war, peace |
Clarifying Response

A clarifying response is a way of responding to a student that results in his considering what he has chosen, what he prizes, and/or what he is doing. It stimulates him to clarify his thinking and behavior and thus to clarify his values; it encourages him to think about them. Specific examples have been included in the design of the study in Chapter 3.

Value-Clarifying Strategies

Value-clarifying strategies are the various techniques used by the teacher with the students in order to provide the students with opportunities to experience the process of choosing, prizing and acting which will help the students build the seven valuing processes into their lives.

The following definitions explain the value-clarification strategies used in this study.

Value Sheet

The value sheet consists of a provocative and value-laden opening statement followed by a series of thought-provoking questions. Students write out their answers.

Value Continuum

The value continuum is a "value-line" with two polar positions on a particular issue identified. Each student marks his
position on the line to correspond to his position regarding the issues.

Thought Sheet

Each week a student turns in a single sheet upon which he has written some thought of importance to him. It is written after due reflection and indicates something of the quality of living or thinking in the preceding week.

Values Voting

Voting is a special technique, much like the public interview, that brings to the verbal level issues and ideas that might otherwise be difficult to make public. After the teacher reads a question, students take a position on each issue by either raising their hands, pointing their thumbs down or folding their arms.

Rank Order

Students are first asked questions which will require them to make a value judgment. Secondly, three or four possible choices for answers are given the students. Students make choices by ranking answers, e.g., which would you rather be?

- an only child
- the youngest child
- the oldest child

Twenty Things You Love To Do

After students have made the list of twenty things they love to do, students are directed to code the list. Some of the symbols for coding are a dollar ($) sign, A for those things he prefers to do alone, P for things he prefers to do with people, etc.
Either-or Forced Choice

Students must take a stand on one of the two choices asked. For example: Are you more of a saver or a spender? Students move to either side of the classroom indicating their choice and discuss their reasons for two minutes with one other person.

Forced-Choice Ladder

This ladder is a series of eight to sixteen steps drawn on paper by each student. The teacher presents a series of statements or describes a situation which calls for value judgments. The student then writes the key word from the statements on one of the steps of the ladder according to the strength of his feelings, pro or con, about that statement. The ladder measures intensity only from weakest feeling to strongest.

Value Whips

The teacher or student poses a question to the class and provides a few moments for the students to think about their answers. The teacher then "whips" around the room calling upon students to answer as briefly as possible.

Public Interview

A student volunteers to sit in front of the room and the teacher moves to the back of the room and asks the questions from there. The teacher asks questions regarding any aspect of the student's life and values. The student must answer honestly or he may pass. At the end he can ask the teacher any one of the questions he asked him.
I Learned Statements

Samples of these unfinished sentences are as follows: "I learned that I ...", "I re-learned that I ...", "I discovered that I...", "I was displeased that I ..." After a values activity or discussion the students express their feelings orally and/or in written form.

I Wonder Statements

These statements are used after a values activity just like the "I Learned Statements". Some are stated as follows: "I wonder if...", "I wonder how come...", "I wonder why..."

Privacy Circles

Each of the five concentric circles refers to part of the student's life which he shares with others. The outermost circle is the least intimate (labeled strangers) and goes to the center core (labeled self) through three others (labeled acquaintances, friends, and intimates.) As the teacher reads items following the statement "to whom would you tell....", the students indicate their choice by writing the key word from the statement in the appropriate circle, e.g. "To whom would you tell the story of your first love?" (Key word: Love)

Pages for an Autobiography

These pages recall certain events from the students' past. They examine these experiences to see if they can detect important patterns. Then the students judge which of these life patterns have been formed out of conscious choice and which are the result of
outside pressures or of inner compulsions.

**Personal Coat of Arms**

Students draw a facsimile of a coat of arms which they divide into six sections. Six questions such as "What do you regard as your greatest personal achievement to date?" are answered by drawing a picture design or symbol in each of the six sections.

**The Fall-Out Shelter Problem**

This is a simulated problem-solving exercise where groups of six or seven students must decide which six people out of the ten will be allowed to stay in the shelter. There are ten people in the shelter but there is only enough space, air, food and water for six people.

**The Cave-In Simulation**

The students sit close together in a corner of a dark room, on the floor, with one lighted candle in the center of the group. The students and teacher simulate the possibility that they are trapped hundreds of feet below the ground by a cave-in. There is a narrow passageway leading up and out of the cavern. Night is coming fast and they try to work their way out by forming a single file line. Since there is always a chance of a rock slide, those in the front of the line have the best chance for survival. Each student gets a chance to offer his reasons for being the first in line after serious reflection.
Alligator River

This story told by the teacher involves five characters, all of whom are offensive in some way. Each student after hearing the story decides how he would list the five characters from the most offensive character to the least offensive.

Two Ideal Days

Students are asked to project themselves into the future and fantasize whatever they would want for a time limit of forty-eight hours. These ideas are presented in a written composition form.

Delimitations of the Findings

An attempt will be made to give students a process of value clarification as well as assist them to clarify their values. It is hypothesized that as a result of this project, non-value related behavior patterns will be less frequent. There are, however, certain delimitations of the findings of this project on value-clarification.

First, the Catholic population will be one delimiting factor. It is assumed that all children from Catholic homes will possess common values to some degree because of the shared traditional religious environment. They will, therefore, at least have a similar foundation from which to begin clarifying.

Second, the teacher directing this project is a Catholic Sister, a member of a religious community. She, therefore, "preaches" by her life some specific values which could also be responsible for influencing the students and subsequently some of the findings.

Third, the school is a private one in which a religion course
is taught as part of the daily curriculum. This factor could, like-
wise, tend to influence the results.

Fourth, the natural process of maturation could tend to
influence behavior patterns and thus be a delimitating factor. As
students mature, they often become more self-directed persons.

Fifth, the small number of students which is not a random
sampling of the population would negate the possibility of general-
izing to all groups with a similar description.

Sixth, the brevity of the project with the students could
delimit the results although the suggested time of three or four
months was allowed.

Seventh, the three instruments used to determine non-value
related behavior patterns have not been proven statistically valid or
reliable.

Preview

In Chapter Two a survey will be made of the recent literature
relating to values. In addition to comparing and contrasting programs
of Fannie and George Shaftel, Hilda Taba and Louis E. Raths, the
value-clarification theory will be contrasted with Lawrence
Kohlberg's levels of moral development. Chapter Three will elaborate
on the design of the study including the selection of the subjects
and the control group, an explanation of the instruments used, a
description of the value-clarification process and an account of the
statistics to be used. The findings of the study will be reported
in Chapter Four. A summary, conclusions and recommendations will be
presented in Chapter Five.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this Chapter is to review literature related to value education. Some of the programs in education which have been developed and are being used by teachers to assist students to acquire and/or clarify their values will be reviewed. These programs, where applicable, will be reviewed in the light of changing undesirable behavior.

Lawrence E. Metcalf reflects the thinking and beliefs of many educators including Lawrence Kohlberg (1972), Victor B. Lawheed (1964) and Robert D. Barr (1971) when he states "the time is overdue when an all-out effort must be made to find productive approaches to value education and conflict resolution." (Metcalf, 1971, p.10)

Reference has already been made in this study to the problems and challenges of America's pluralistic society. The effect of society's diverse value system upon today's youth is a frequent and popular topic of many educators. Some educators who realize how difficult it is for youth to relate to this inconsistent world have taken positive steps to develop programs which provide experiences of decision-making, of conflict confrontation, and processes of value clarification.

The objective of providing these various experiences expressed in the following three programs is to assist youth first, to be more positive in their human relations and second, to feel more positively
toward themselves. It will be noted this behavior just described is one of the main variables of this study.

The approach of Fannie and George Shaftel explained in their book, *Role-playing for Social Values: Decision Making in the Social Studies*, is a result of twenty years of study at Stanford University. Through the process of story-telling and role-playing the students are involved in decision making which necessitates choices. It is these choices the students make in the group inquiry process which reveal and help clarify their values in terms of behavior.

The problem stories are focused on personal-social decisions which reflect the American culture and the value choices which press upon children in the process of growing up in our society today. Explored through role-playing, under the guidance of skillful teachers, it is hoped that such problem confrontations can help children and youth develop the integrity that comes with value clarification and the group responsibility that results from sensitivity to the human consequences of the choices we make. (Shaftel, 1967, p. 14)

Louis E. Raths and his colleagues of the value-clarification process report data that agrees with Shaftel's studies that out of the gradual clarification of values the quality of inner-directedness emerges, i.e., the individual's ability to act despite outside pressures, in the light of ideas he respects. (Shaftel, 1967)

One specific experiment relating to behavior change and the value-clarification process will be explained here. This study was undertaken by James Raths in 1960 and dealt with underachieving secondary school students and their acquisition of values.

It was hypothesized that as efforts are made to clarify attitudes, purposes, aspirations, feelings, interests, and beliefs, underachievement patterns will wane. This idea suggests that getting good grades is not a genuine aspiration of the underachieving intelligent
student, but a goal imposed upon him by his parents, teachers and, perhaps, society. It was assumed that as attitudes and goals of great concern to students are clarified and as values are developed, students will find new purposes in their school work. As a result, they will see achievement as a personal goal and will strive toward it." (Raths, 1961, p. 423)

Thirteen pairs of students were matched according to sex, grade in school, previous rank-in-class, social class, and I.Q. Using random selection methods, six pairs were chosen and one of each pair was selected as an experimental student. The value-clarification process of Louis E. Raths and colleagues as described in this present study was employed. Each student, however, met with the experimenter a minimum of twelve times during the semester.

At the close of the study it was concluded that the clarifying procedure was consistently associated with an increase in the achievement level of the students in the experimental group.

Hilda Taba, another renowned educator, spent many years in the field of intergroup relations. In her study of students in grades 7, 9, and 11, she and her colleagues found the students did not know how to handle conflicting values, how to solve conflicts with peers, parents, or siblings, or how to meet rejection and rebuff. (Taba, 1952) Of the many kinds of activities she experimented with, group discussion, observation of procedure, and role-playing were the most valuable. Hilda Taba found that through these activities pupils were able to experiment with real situations involving human relationships.

Programs of Fannie and George Shaftel, Hilda Taba and Louis E. Raths, et al., have been developed in the social context of our lives. Indeed, Robert R. Smith would applaud such programs since it
is his belief that "the value premises by which we live are learned in the social context of our lives, and should be refined and made explicit through education directed to that end." (Smith, 1964, p.184.

Gaining recognition among educational psychologists and classroom teachers today is the name of Lawrence Kohlberg from the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Kohlberg's theory is best described as a cognitive-developmental theory. He bases his work partly on the work of Piaget, but has greatly elaborated it in a number of ways. Through years of research he has established six stages of moral thinking. For fourteen years he and his colleagues studied the development of the moral thinking of a group of seventy-five boys. Observations were made at three-year intervals from early adolescence through manhood. At the start of the study the boys were aged 10 to 16; they are now 24 to 30. They found that changes in moral thinking progress step by step through six qualitatively distinct stages. The three major stages are clearly explained by Barbara Biber in the following quote:

His theory postulates that the child has qualitatively different bases for making moral judgments at successive stages. Independent of the specific values involved, there is a three-step sequence from the first, preconventional stage, in which good and bad are judged by consequences in terms of punishment, rewards, exchange of favors; to a second, conventional, conformist stage, in which the importance of maintaining and justifying existing rules is the basis of judgment; and, finally, to a third, postconventional stage, in which the individual works with self-chosen universal principles such as justice, reciprocity, equality of human rights, respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals, and so on. (Biber, 1972, p.48)
Each stage of moral development of the subjects was determined by presenting him with eleven moral dilemmas and asking him to resolve these problems. (Kohlberg, 1971b)

Kohlberg's work concerns itself with the cognitive processes of making moral decisions. At the present time there is no reference to either the emotions or to behavior change. It would seem, however, in his techniques of individual story telling and questioning, that the emotions must be involved.

In the role-playing and decision-making situations expressed in the first three programs, both the cognitive and emotional levels are involved. The value-clarification theory according to Louis Raths combines cognitive activity (such as choosing) and emotions (such as cherishing).

In a unique exchange of opinions between Kohlberg and Simon, (Gray, 1972a) both men think the Raths-Simon strategies help to stimulate the progression in levels of moral thinking that Kohlberg has defined. "Kohlberg's criticism of the Raths' construct is that it advocates a relativist ethic. That is, it does not define either more advanced or less advanced processes of thinking about moral issues." (Gray, 1972a, p. 19)

All four theories stress the importance of the teacher concentrating in the areas of conflict and confusion in people's lives. These areas are numerous and have been specifically described by Raths-Simon. They include politics, religion, work, leisure time, school, love and sex, family, material possessions, culture (art, music, literature), personal tastes (clothes, hair style), friends,
money, aging and death, health, race, war and peace, rules and authority.

Role of the Teacher

Crucial to the success of the value-clarification approach is the teacher and the classroom atmosphere she creates. Her role is neither that of preacher nor that of passive listener. Instead, the teacher strives to establish a climate of psychological safety. This is best described by James Raths (1964) as a climate of non-judgmental attitudes, of manifestation of concern, of opportunities for the sharing of ideas. The teacher acts somewhat as a catalytic agent in the process. The teacher behavior described by the Shaftels is a nonevaluative position and a supportive attitude. The goal is to create an open, non-threatening, creative relationship rather than to coerce the child into socially acceptable behavior. (Shaftel, 1967)

From Kohlberg's writing (1966) it would appear that he, too, agrees with the above descriptions of the teacher's role when he says that the teacher must become concerned about the child's moral judgments rather than about the conformity of the child's behavior or judgments to the teachers' own. In other words much of what students learn comes from the moral environment in the classroom and in Kohlberg's definition this is a just classroom environment. The teacher's authority comes from the conflict situations. Like Simon and Shaftel, Kohlberg has found that "moral development is facilitated in open, informal classrooms where there is a great deal of interaction among children and where the teacher
is concerned with developing patterns of cooperation among the children." (Kohlberg, 1972a, p. 14)

Data from studies conducted on a kibbutz showed a class of 11- and 12-year olds who met once a week for three months to discuss moral dilemmas to have moved ahead almost one full stage. A follow-up study a year later showed the advance was permanent.

The successful teacher is described by Hilda Taba in an action research project with eighth grade students from lower socio-economic background. During the one-year study the teacher showed interest in the students and their welfare. The classroom was run along fairly permissive lines and the demands were not beyond the capacity of these students to accomplish. One of the concluding observations was that it was possible for the teacher to modify deviant behaviors considerably without arousing antagonism because she had a permissive and understanding attitude toward individuals who represented behavior problems. (Taba, 1955)

In discussing the teacher's role in value education, the topic of value content must arise. Neither Raths and Simon nor Kohlberg would have educators teach students what to believe. Rather they are concerned, as are Fannie and George Shaftel, with allowing students to make their own mistakes. The students must be led to discover their own attitudes and values based on alternatives and consequences. It is part of their general position that children do not simply absorb values from people, but arrive at their own values by interaction with the demands and expectations of all groups of people. In addition, Kohlberg's position is that conflicts in
values may stimulate moral growth as a means of coping with these conflicts.

In Deborah Elkins' action research with the aforementioned eighth grade class, teaching and transmitting American democratic values tended to be a held belief of the experimenters. However, the study itself describes ways members of the peer group were helped to incorporate important democratic values into their way of life instead of teaching them directly.

Thus far in this chapter on related literature, specific programs and research, applicable to the study, in the field of values education over the past twenty years have been compared and contrasted with regard to theory, behavior change, role of the teacher and method of acquiring and/or clarifying values.

In this final section research studies using the Raths-Simon value-clarification method as it affects change in behavior will be described. The majority of the original studies are in unpublished dissertations. The research in this important field is limited and students interested in the subject of values clarification often face problems with regard to accessible, valid and reliable instruments. Thus far, behavioral observations mainly through rating scales have been used. More adequate exploration into the measuring devices of peer ratings, projective techniques, sociograms, etc. is still needed.

Of the three research studies to be reviewed in this final section, Jonas (1961) and Machnits (1961) investigation purposes were parallel to one another and in several areas to this present study with eighth graders. These researchers studied the
relationship of behavior of children to emotional needs, values, and thinking. They hypothesized first that as the investigator worked in the classroom to try to clarify values, children's behavior associated with lack of value clarity would become less acute and less frequent. Behaviors included apathy, flightiness, indecisiveness, over-conformity, dissension, and inconsistency.

They further hypothesized to meet emotional needs of children and that characteristics of children's behavior such as aggression, submission and withdrawal would become less acute and less frequent. Finally they hypothesized that no loss in normal academic achievement would occur.

Students were identified through classroom observation, past records, parent conferences, previous teachers, and ratings on an Acuteness and Frequency Scale by a teacher.

Jonas's procedure of using the Raths-Simon clarifying response and teaching strategies was conducted with elementary school children in the classroom one period a day for seventy-five days.

Machnits conducted his investigation for five months in a New York City suburb with middle grade children.

Based on the data of the studies, the investigators concluded that, as the teacher used the procedures of this study, behavior associated with unmet emotional needs in the experimental group became less acute and less frequent. This is an interesting conclusion, since all the literature by Raths-Simon discourages educators from expecting results from the value-clarification process with emotionally disturbed children.
The investigators further concluded that behavior associated with unclear values became less acute and less frequent. Further behavior associated with faulty patterns of thinking became less accurate and less frequent. Finally there was no loss in normal academic achievement. By the end of the studies very few of the control group children showed behavior change.

In 1965, A. Lawrence Gagnon conducted an investigation to:
1.) help upper elementary teachers assist their students in learning how to think and clarify valuing and, 2.) to extend Raths' work in another direction and, 3.) to evaluate the consequences.

Teachers were introduced to the clarifying process, especially the clarifying question in in-service sessions. At the conclusion of the study, Gagnon had three findings. First, in-service was needed to learn how to ask probing, thinking and value-type questions. Second, as teachers attempted to ask more clarifying questions, they appeared to ask more and talk less. Finally, teachers using the methodology in their classrooms were usually able to demonstrate positive changes in their pupils' potential thinking as measured by thinking tests at the .09 level.

These three studies relating specifically to behavioral change through the value-clarification methods conclude this chapter which attempted to explore programs and research of renowned educators in the field of value education.
Chapter 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter contains an explanation of the procedure used in this project. This will include identification of the subjects, identification of the control group, background on the instruments used for the pre-test and the post-test, a description of the value-clarification strategies and an account of the Chi Square used in determining the statistical significance of the experimental group.

Selection of the Subjects

This study was done with an entire class of thirty-three eighth grade students in a Catholic elementary school of two hundred and sixty students in East Oakland, California. The students ranged in age from twelve to fifteen years, with a median I.Q. of 108. The majority of the students had attended the school since grade one. The classroom was self-contained with a teacher's aide assisting in the morning. The majority of the students were from lower-middle and lower income homes in which both parents were working as skilled laborers. Thirty-one of the students were Catholics. The group was composed of five cultures: Mexican-American, Filipino, Caucasian, Black, and Oriental. The female students outnumbered the male students two to one.

Identification of the Control Group

A neighboring Catholic elementary school was selected as the control school. The description of the thirty-eight eighth grade
students was similar to the experimental group, in age, ability, and socio-economic status, and racial composition. However, classes were departmentalized; i.e., students had different teachers for most subjects. Female and male students were equally distributed and the control group was one of the two heterogeneously composed classes on the same grade level. The school size was double that of the experimental school, i.e. approximately five hundred and fifty students composed the student body.

Background of Instruments Used

Three steps were taken simultaneously at the beginning of the school year 1972-1973 in order to identify students with the most significant value-related behavioral problems.

The first step was to have the experimental group and the control group rank themselves on a paper that described the eight value-related behaviors in eight paragraphs. Two non-value-related types, good-looking and well co-ordinated, were added as control items which helped disguise the nature of the instrument somewhat (See appendix, figure 1):

The second step was to have the experimental group and the control group rank their peers on a similar paper describing the eight behaviors and the two control items (See appendix, figure 2).

The third step was to have the classroom teacher observe the students for a week and then identify on a special form (see appendix, figure 3) the degree to which students in her class manifested value-related behavior problems.

From the data received from these three instruments, those
behaviors were selected that had a significant number of students identified with each behavior. Selection of students was made on the basis of these criteria:

1. Students who ranked themselves as having those characteristics described and who were also ranked high on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale for that student by the teacher.

2. Students who ranked themselves as having those characteristics described and who were also ranked frequently by peers on those characteristics.

3. Students who were ranked high on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale by the teacher and were also ranked frequently by peers.

Twenty-five per cent or more of the class was the figure used in order to qualify for peer ranking, i.e., a student's name appeared eight or more times on the peer instrument under one specific characteristic. A rating of five or above on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale by the teacher indicated a high ranking.

Description of the Values-Clarification Approach

The value-clarification method was employed in this study as a means of changing behavior. As has been stated earlier, it was hypothesized that as students became less confused about the world around them and more clear about what they prized and cherished, they would behave more purposefully, enthusiastically and positively.

The values-clarification approach "focuses on the process of valuing, not on the transmission of the "right" set of values. It is based on the premise that none of us has the "right" set of values to pass on to other people's children." (Simon, 1971a, p. 902)

It is believed that values are neither taught nor caught; they are learned. Central to Louis E. Rath's theory are the processes
of choosing, prizing, and acting which collectively make up the 
criteria for valuing. There is a total of seven criteria (listed in 
Chapter 1) and it is necessary that all seven be present in order for 
a value to result. In the book, Values and Teaching by Raths, Harmin 
and Simon, this theory is explained in great detail in Chapters 2, 3 
and 4.

"It should be increasingly clear that the adult does not 
force his own pet values upon children. What he does is create 
conditions that aid children in finding values if they choose to do 
so." Raths, L., 1966, p. 47)

The value-clarifying method which was used with these thirty-
three eighth graders consisted in using numerous strategies among 
which was the clarifying response. These responses consisted in 
questioning the students individually in a way that required them to 
consider what they had chosen, what they prized and what they were 
doing. It allowed the student the opportunity to clarify his 
thinking and behavior and thus to clarify his values. Some of the 
clarifying responses used were: 1.) Are you glad about that? 
2.) How did you feel when that happened? 3.) Was that something 
that you yourself selected or chose? 4.) Can you give me some 
examples of that idea? 5.) Where would that idea lead; what would 
be its consequences? 7.) Are you saying that... (repeat)? 
8.) What other possibilities are there?

It must be remembered that an accepting and non-judgmental 
mood is vital for the valuing process. The clarifying response is 
essentially an individually-focused strategy. The vast majority of
the strategies, however, which were used in this study focused on the group. A detailed description of all the strategies used in this study appear in two books. The first already mentioned is entitled *Values and Teaching* by Raths, Harmin and Simon. The second is entitled *Values Clarification* by Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum. I have chosen, therefore, to list many of these strategies along with their purpose in the chart following.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>PURPOSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Value Sheets</td>
<td>1. To carry students through value-clarification process with that issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Completion of a play,</td>
<td>2. To elicit values in a very systematic way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>movie or story</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Role-playing</td>
<td>3. To use clarifying responses in the discussion that follows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Thought Sheet</td>
<td>5. To generate ideas and issues students identify as important to them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Open-ended questions</td>
<td>6. To reveal some of the students' attitudes, beliefs, activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Public Interview</td>
<td>7. To demonstrate that one can talk honestly about one's thoughts and experiences with a group that is supportive and nonjudgmental.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Voting</td>
<td>8. To open up issues and questions, often dramatically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Twenty Things You</td>
<td>9. To help students examine their most prized and cherished activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love To Do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Alligator River</td>
<td>10. To reveal students' values for them and, in examining their reactions to the characters, become more aware of their own attitudes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Rank Order</td>
<td>11. To provide practice in choosing from alternatives and in publicly affirming and defending their choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Either-or Forced Choice</td>
<td>12. To compel students to make a decision between two competing alternatives and to examine their feelings, self-concepts and values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Forced-Choice Ladder</td>
<td>13. Same as above</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. Two Ideal Days  
14. To learn more about what students really love in life.

15. Values Whip  
15. To provide a means for students and teacher to see how others react to various issues and questions dealing with one of the seven valuing processes.

16. I Learned Statements  
16. To provide the group and the teacher with feedback about the previous activity; to help clarify and reinforce what the students have learned.

17. I Wonder Statements  
17. To provide opportunity to ask questions in order to stimulate probing, critical attitudes.

18. Privacy Circles  
18. To encourage students to think more about their pattern of self-disclosure and self-containment in relation to their feelings, opinions and actions.

19. Pages for an Autobiography  
19. To develop an awareness of life patterns through specific recall of both important and seemingly inconsequential events in students' past.

20. The Cave-in Simulation  
20. To encourage students to think about what they want to get out of life and what they have to contribute to their world.

21. Personal Coat of Arms  
21. To help students think about such questions as "What am I doing with my life?" "Am I simply settling?" "Am I just reacting to others or am I in control of the direction of my life."

22. Fall-out Shelter Problem  
22. To assist students to work through in a rational manner numerous value issues.
Account of Statistics

According to the hypothesis there will be a significant change in the number of experimental students exhibiting unacceptable value-related behaviors at the conclusion of the study. The Chi Square Test of significance at the .05 level will be used to determine if the difference is significant.

There will be no significant difference in the number of students in the control group exhibiting unacceptable value-related behavior at the conclusion of the study.
Chapter 4

PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The following analysis of the data is presented in this chapter: (1) a Chi-square test of significance for each variable determined critical for the experimental group; (2) a Chi-square test of significance for each variable considered critical within the control group.

The three criteria below were used to select the behavior variables critical for the experimental group and the control group.

1. Students who ranked themselves as having those characteristics described and who were also ranked highly on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale for that student by the teachers.

2. Students who ranked themselves as having those characteristics described and who were also ranked frequently by peers.

3. Students who were ranked highly on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale by the teacher and were also ranked frequently by peers.

Twenty-five per cent or more of the class was the figure used in order to qualify for peer ranking; i.e. a student's name appeared eight or more times on the peer instrument under one specific characteristic.

A rating of five or above on the Frequency-Acuteness Scale of the teacher indicated a high ranking.

In the pre-tests some of the experimental students were identified as exhibiting each of the eight behaviors described on each of the three instruments in the appendix of this paper. However,
three behavior variables were considered critical for the experimental group. They were flightiness, dissension and uncertainty.

The flighty child is interested in almost everything but just for a fleeting moment. He is characterized by quickly shifting interests. He seems to have no stable interests. His attention span is short and he rarely follows through with something begun. (Raths, L., 1966, p. 175)

Table 4.1 attempts to provide data on the variable of flightiness. The expected frequency shows five students exhibiting the behavior variable of flightiness in the pre-test and twenty-eight students not described as flighty. The observed frequency shows no flighty experimental students in the post-tests.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the variable of flightiness was 5.89. The variable of flightiness was statistically significant at the .05 level. See table 4.1.

The dissenting child does not seem to be a rational dissenter, although he will very often be very skillful at making up arguments when he needs them. The dissension seems irrational. It almost seems as if he likes to be different and thrives on contention. It's as if, not having a value pattern of his own, he gets his identity by opposing others, and especially those in authority. 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. (Raths, L., 1966, p. 176)

Table 4.2 attempts to provide data on the variable of dissension. The expected frequency shows four students exhibiting the behavior variable of dissension in the pre-test and twenty-nine students not described as dissenters. The observed frequency shows three dissenting students in the post-test and thirty non-dissenting students.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the
variable of dissension was .29. See Table 4.2.

Some children seem unable to make up their minds, not sometimes, but almost always. Simple choices throw such a child into a quandary. He takes a long time with decisions. He seems to be in doubt about what he wants and what he likes. He often prefers that others make decisions for him and he almost always is reluctant to be involved in decision-making situations. (Raths, L., 1966, p. 175)

Table 4.3 attempts to provide data on the variable of uncertainty. The expected frequency shows four students exhibiting the behavior variable of uncertainty in the pre-test and twenty-nine students not described as uncertain. The observed frequency shows three uncertain students in the post-test and thirty not described as uncertain.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the variable of uncertainty was .29. See Table 4.3.

Although there was a decrease of one student in each of these two latter variables of dissension and uncertainty, there was no statistically significant difference indicating change of behavior.

In the pre-tests students in the control group were also identified as exhibiting each of the eight behaviors described in the three test instruments. The same three criteria explained at the beginning of this chapter were used to determine the behaviors critical for the control group. They were flightiness, uncertainty and conformity.

Table 4.4 attempts to provide data on the variable of flightiness. The expected frequency shows six students exhibiting the behavior variable of flightiness in the pre-tests and
thirty-three students not described as flighty. The observed frequency shows seven flighty students in the post-tests and thirty-two not flighty.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the variable of flightiness for the control group was .20. See Table 4.4.

Table 4.5 attempts to provide data on the variable of uncertainty for the control group. The expected frequency shows six students exhibiting the behavior variable of uncertainty in the pre-tests and thirty-three students not described as uncertain. The observed frequency shows one uncertain student in the post-tests and thirty-eight not uncertain.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the variable of uncertainty for the control group was 4.93. The variable of uncertainty is statistically significant at the .05 level. See Table 4.5.

It is interesting to note that of the eight value-related behavioral types, two out of three considered critical were identical for both the experimental and control groups. However, in contrast to the experimental group the third variable critical for the control group was conformity.

The overconforming child will expend great efforts in trying to conform to what he perceives as the norm or the power position. Sometimes he will say or write what the teacher or other grownups want him to say or write, but sometimes he does just the opposite when the peer group is perceived as dominant. The overconforming child seems to have no positions or ideas of his own. He takes his cue from others. Left alone, he often feels lost and anxious, He needs to get direction from others." (Raths, L., 1966, p. 176)

Table 4.6 attempts to provide data on the variable of
conformity. The expected frequency and the observed frequency resulting from the pre-tests and post-tests respectively both show three overconforming students and thirty-six students not exhibiting this behavior.

The Chi-square test of significance when applied to the variable of conformity for the control group was zero. See Table 4.6.

There was no statistically significant difference indicating change of behavior between the variable of flightiness and conformity.
Table 4.1

Number of Students Exhibiting Flightiness in the Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nonvariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed (fo)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected (fe)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 5.89^* \]

* Significant difference above the .05 level.

fo = Observed Frequency
fe = Expected Frequency
\( \chi^2 \) = Chi-Square
Table 4.2

Number of Students Exhibiting Dissension in the Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Nonvariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed (fo)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected (fe)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = .29^* \]

* No significant difference

\( fo \) = Observed Frequency  
\( fe \) = Expected Frequency  
\( X^2 \) = Chi-Square
Table 4.3

Number of Students Exhibiting Uncertainty in the Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Nonvariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed (fo)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected (fe)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 29^* \]

* No significant difference

fo = Observed Frequency
fe = Expected Frequency
\( x^2 \) = Chi-Square
Table 4.4

Number of Students Exhibiting Flightiness in the Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Nonvariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed ((fo))</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected ((fe))</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 20^* \]

* No significant difference

\( fo = \) Observed Frequency
\( fe = \) Expected Frequency
\( X^2 = \) Chi-Square
Table 4.5

Number of Students Exhibiting Uncertainty in the Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Nonvariable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed (fo)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected (fe)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 4.93^* \]

* Significant above the .05 level.

fo = Observed Frequency  
fe = Expected Frequency  
\( X^2 \) = Chi-Square
Table 4.6

Number of Students Exhibiting Conformity in the Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>36</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observed (fo)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected (fe)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 0^* \]

* No significant difference

fo = Observed Frequency
fe = Expected Frequency
\[ x^2 \] = Chi-Square
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The value-clarification theory originally developed by Louis E. Raths and in recent years further implemented by Sidney B. Simon, Merrill Harmin, Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschenbaum was the focal point of this present study. During the course of the school year 1972-1973, numerous activities and strategies directly related to clarifying values were used with a class of thirty-three eighth graders. These students exhibited behavior characteristic of value-related problems. It was hypothesized that as the investigator worked in the classroom to try to clarify values there would be fewer students at the end of the study exhibiting behavior associated with lack of value clarification.

Three criteria were used to select the students exhibiting particular behaviors. The variables of flightiness, uncertainty and dissension were the predominant behaviors in the pre-test and post-test (see appendix) used with the experimental group.

Identical testing was used with a neighboring eighth grade class. The behavior variables of flightiness, uncertainty and conformity were predominant with the control group.

Conclusion

The first hypothesis relating to the experimental group cannot be rejected totally. There was a significant difference at the .05
level in the variable of flightiness. However, the variables of uncertainty and dissension were not significant at the .05 level.

The second hypothesis relating to the control group cannot be rejected totally. There was a significant difference at the .05 level in the variable of uncertainty. However, there was no significant decrease in the number of students exhibiting the behaviors of flightiness and conformity at the conclusion of the study.

The following conclusions are based on the data collected for this study:

1.) Although not significant at the .05 level, there was a decrease in the number of students exhibiting uncertainty and dissension in the experimental group.

2.) In the control group, there was an increase in the number of students exhibiting flightiness.

3.) There was no difference in the control group with the number of students exhibiting the behavior of conformity.

4.) Although the first hypothesis was rejected in part, this investigator has profound respect for the value-clarification process. The majority of the students appeared to be seriously involved in the numerous strategies used. There seemed to be genuine learning taking place as well as enjoyment both among the students themselves and between the students and the teacher. It is believed that learning coupled with enjoyment is the goal of education and in the case of value clarification this tended to be accomplished.

5.) Although the first hypothesis was rejected in part this investigator has concluded that students in this study can no longer
be described as leaderless, lacking self-direction and over-
conforming to the peer group beliefs, opinions and standards.

The class tends to be more sensitive to each other, more
willing to speak honestly about their personal problems, and more
open to the possibility of alternative solutions.
Recommendations

As a result of the study the following recommendations have been made:

1.) Valid and reliable test instruments should be devised before further research is undertaken. To the authors of value clarification, values are part of a person's behavior patterns and it seems extremely difficult to measure such behavior on a paper-and-pencil instrument.

The authors have further stated that additional improvements in the consistency and reliability of the particular rating scales used in this study are needed.

2.) Teachers should continue to use the value-clarification method to change student behavior. Students need specific opportunities to examine their own values in relation to the confused society around them. As has been previously explained in the preceding chapter, improved classroom behavior was definitely observed.

3.) Although this study was undertaken with a particular group of students in mind, other educators should attend the clarification workshops directed by Sidney and Marianne Simon and should then undertake similar value education studies with all students.

4.) Longer than four months, indeed, the entire school year should be designated as time needed for the value-clarification process in order to further test its importance according to the goals of the program.

5.) The entire faculty of this school should employ the value-clarification activities and strategies in order to further test their importance against the goals of the program.
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Raths, Louis E., Merrill Harmin and Sidney B. Simon. Values and Teaching, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I do not seem to be interested in anything. I sit quietly, dully, passively,</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored much of the time in school and out of school. I don't care one way</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or the other. I am disinterested.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am flighty. I am interested in a lot of things, but only for fleeting</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moments, then I get interested in something entirely different. I get</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>started, but I don't seem to follow thorough. I am attracted to a million</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>things, but I don't stick with anything long enough to do something about</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it. I fly rapidly from this to that.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am considered good-looking. I look like people in movies or in pictures.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some people might call me handsome or beautiful.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It's hard for me to make up my mind. I take a long time to make decisions.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am full of doubts. I am often very uncertain.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very inconsistent. Today I may be for something, but tomorrow I may be</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against it. It's hard to tell what side I will be on. I say this, but I do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that. Or sometimes I say one thing and then, later, say just the opposite.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I just seem to drift. I go from here to there without having much to do</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with it. And I don't care much. I go the way events take me. I don't</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struggle. Some people might call me a drifter.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am well co-ordinated. I may not be strong, but I can control my motions</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and can play sports very well. Some people say I am graceful. I am not at</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all clumsy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. I like to conform to what is expected of me. I may conform to what a grown-up wants. I may conform to what other kids want. I may have one person to follow and I do whatever that person wants. But I don't much want to be independent. I like to follow someone else's lead.

9. I am just the opposite of a conformer -- I like to dissent, to argue with anyone and everyone, to take the opposite point of view. I seem to be against most everything. I like to argue, complain, dissent.

10. I like to make believe that I am somebody else. I often play roles, pretending that I am somebody different, right in the classroom or outside. I like to act even when there is no play.
WHO IS LIKE THIS???

THIS PAPER IS KEPT CONFIDENTIAL. NO ONE BUT THE TEACHER WILL BE PERMITTED TO READ IT, SO PLEASE BE AS HONEST AS POSSIBLE. YOU ARE ASKED TO WRITE NAMES OF PERSONS IN THE CLASS WHO MATCH THE DESCRIPTIONS BELOW.

1. I do not seem to be interested in anything. I sit quietly, dully, passively, bored much of the time in school and out of school. I don't care one way or the other. I am disinterested.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

2. I am flighty. I am interested in a lot of things, but only for fleeting moments, then I get interested in something entirely different. I can get started, but I don't seem to follow through. I am attracted to a million things, but I don't stick with anything long enough to do something about it. I fly rapidly from this to that.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH LIKE this?

3. I am considered good-looking. I look like people in movies or in pictures. Some people might call me handsome or beautiful.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

4. It's hard for me to make up my mind. I take a long time to make decisions. I am full of doubts. I am often very uncertain.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?
b. What students are SOMEWHAT like this?

5. I am very inconsistent. Today I may be for something, but tomorrow I may be against it. I am full of doubts. It's hard to tell what side I will be on. I say this, but I do that. Or sometimes I say one thing and then, later, say just the opposite.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

b. What students are SOMEWHAT like this?

6. I just seem to drift. I go from here to there without having much to do with it. And I don't care much. I go the way events take me. I don't struggle. Some people might call me a drifter.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

b. What students are SOMEWHAT like this?

7. I am well-co-ordinated. I may not be strong, but I can control my motions and can play sports very well. Some people say I am graceful. I am not at all clumsy.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

b. What students are SOMEWHAT like this?

8. I like to conform to what is expected of me. I may conform to what a grown-up wants. I may conform to what other kids want. I may have one person to follow and I do whatever that person wants. But I don't much want to be independent. I like to follow someone else's lead.
   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

b. What students are SOMEWHAT like this?

9. I am just the opposite of a conformer. I like to dissent, to argue with anyone and everyone, to take the opposite point of view. I seem to be against most everything. I like to argue, complain, dissent.
10. I like to make believe that I am somebody else. I often play roles, pretending that I am somebody different, right in the classroom or outside. I like to act even when there is no play.

   a. What students are VERY MUCH like this?

   b. What students are SOMewhat like this?
Figure 3 - Teacher's Form

FORM FOR MEASURING THE DEGREE OF VALUE-RELATED BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Student name ___________________________

DIRECTIONS: Please rate the above student on the frequency and acuteness with which he exhibits each of the eight types of behaviors listed below. Use the scale provided for your ratings. An elaboration of the meaning of each type of behavior is available if you would like.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Acuteness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apathetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flightiness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drifting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role-playing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Perhaps every few months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Monthly, on the average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Several times monthly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Weekly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Several times weekly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Daily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Several times daily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Hourly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Constantly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Acuteness Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acuteness</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Extremely mild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relatively acute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Acute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Extremely acute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>