

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE



National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

0-315-06043-3

 National Library of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Canadian Theses Division / Division des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

53963

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

• Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur

KUPCHENKO IAN M.

Date of Birth — Date de naissance

Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance

15/05/51

CANADA

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe

2432 - 106 ST.
EDMONTON, ALBERTA
T6J-4K5

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

The Development of a Values Materials Analysis System

University — Université

University of Alberta

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

M. Ed.

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade

Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse

1981

JAMES PARSONS

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date

07/10/81

Signature

I.M. Kupchenko

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

The Development of a Values Materials Analysis System

by



Ian M. Kupchenko

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER
OF EDUCATION

IN

SECONDARY EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1981

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR .. Ian M. Kupchenko

TITLE OF THESIS .. The Development of a Values Materials
Analysis System

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED .. Master of Education

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED .. 1981

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) *I.M. Kupchenko*

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

2432 - 106 St.
Edmonton, Alberta
T6J-4K5

DATED *October 1* 1981

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled The Development of a Values Materials Analysis System submitted by Ian M. Kupchenko in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

J.P. Parsons
.....
Supervisor

W. Hagen
.....

Therese Craig
.....

Date *October 1, 1981*
.....

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop a values materials analysis system which could be applied to social studies materials in order to determine the value approach or approaches contained. First, to develop the analysis system, this study examined those authors who are concerned with values as they relate to society and the educational system. Second, five theories which attempt to account for the origin and development of an individual's values were examined. Third, the study examined the educational value typologies which have been developed in order to provide some order or classification to the various approaches used to teach values and valuing. As a consequence of these activities, a new typology was developed by the writer of this thesis, to include another value education approach developed in Britain.

Using this new typology as a base, the distinguishing characteristics of each approach were identified and explained. From the detailed explanations a summary chart was developed to enable one to compare the characteristics of the various approaches. These detailed descriptions of the distinguishing characteristics became the base from which the questions in the Values Materials Analysis System were developed.

Before developing the instrument, this study examined the three most common modes of textbook analysis. Of these three the combined mode of analysis was chosen as the most suitable form to follow in the development of the Values Materials Analysis System. The study then identified the distinct role of the analyst using the Values Materials Analysis System. A set of directions for the use of the system and the actual ma-

materials of the Values Materials Analysis System are set forth.

The study continued by applying the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?. The results of the analysis indicate that the approach used in the kit is primarily the Analysis approach with features of the Clarification, Action-Learning and Incultation approaches also included. The analysis indicated that the Values Materials Analysis System does identify the value approaches contained in instructional materials.

Acknowledgments

The writer wishes to express his gratitude to Dr. James B. Parsons, advisor to this study, for his assistance, encouragement and direction of this investigation. Thanks are also expressed to Dr. William Hague and Sr. Theresa Craig for their comments and suggestions and for serving on the Thesis committee.

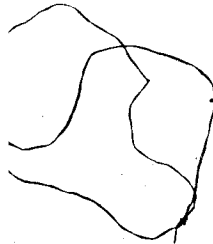
The writer is indebted to his wife Elizabeth and to Dr. Gordon L. Mowat for their encouragement, advice and help.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
	Introduction	1
	Need for the Study	2
	Statement of the Problem	4
	Purpose of the Study	4
	Significance of the Study	5
	Delimitations of the Study	6
	Limitations of the Study	6
	Definition of Terms	8
	Summary of Following Chapters	10
II	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	12
	Introduction	12
	1. Values Education	13
	Values	13
	Modification and Transmission of Values	16
	Psychoanalytical Development Theory	16
	Social Learning Theory	17
	Cognitive Development Theory	18
	Cognitive-Dissonance Theory	21
	Cognitive-Decision-making Theory	28
	2. Educational Value Typologies	32
	Bond's Typology	32
	The Universal School	33

The Decisional Value School	33
The Fact-Value Separation School	34
The Analytical Valuation School	34
The Value Understood as Feelings School	35
The Value as Preference School	35
The Values as Subjects for Limited Analysis School	36
Values in Hierarchical Arrangement	36
The Contextualist School	37
The Psycho - Acculturation School	37
Stewart's Typology	38
Traditional-Authoritarian Values	38
Cultural-Relativist Values	38
Absolute-Relativism	38
Structural-Organismic-Developmental Education	39
Hodgkinson's Typology	39
Superka's Typology	41
Behavioural Modification	41
Value Inculcation	42
Value Analysis	42
Value Evocation	42
Moral Reasoning	43
Value Clarification	43
Value Reconstruction	44
Value Individuation or Union	44

	Superka's Revisions	44
	Summary of the Chapter	48
III	APPROACHES TO VALUE EDUCATION	49
	Introduction	49
	Inculcation Approach	51
	Rationale and Purpose	51
	Valuing and Values	52
	Teaching Methods	53
	Instructional Model	55
	Roles of Student and Teacher	56
	Characteristics of Materials	58
	Illustrative Learning Activity	59
	Moral Development Approach	62
	Rationale and Purpose	62
	Valuing and Values	64
	Teaching Methods	65
	Instructional Model	67
	Roles of Student and Teacher	68
	Characteristics of Materials	69
	Illustrative Learning Activity	70
	Analysis Approach	74
	Rationale and Purpose	74
	Valuing and Values	75
	Teaching Methods	77
	Instructional Models	77
	Roles of Student and Teacher	82
	Characteristics of Materials	83



Illustrative Learning Activity	84
Clarification Approach	88
Rationale and Purpose.	88
Valuing and Values	89
Teaching Methods	90
Instructional Model	91
Roles of Student and Teacher	92
Characteristics of Materials	92
Illustrative Learning Activity	93
Action Learning Approach	95
Rationale and Purpose.	95
Valuing and Values	96
Teaching Methods	98
Instructional Model	99
Roles of Student and Teacher	99
Characteristics of Materials	101
Illustrative Learning Activity	102
Emotional-Rational Approach	107
Rationale and Purpose	107
Valuing and Values	109
Teaching Methods	110
Instructional Model	110
Roles of Student and Teacher	114
Characteristics of Materials	116
Illustrative Learning Activity	116
Summary of the Chapter	120

IV	SYSTEM OF EDUCATIONAL MATERIAL ANALYSIS	125
	Introduction	125
	Analysis Systems	125
	Checklist Mode	126
	Descriptive-Narrative Mode	127
	Combined Mode	128
	Values Materials Analysis System	129
	Format	130
	Role of the Analyst	131
	Framework	132
	Directions for Use	132
	The Instrument	134
	Summary of the Chapter	151
V	APPLICATION OF THE VALUES MATERIALS ANALYSIS SYSTEM	152
	Introduction	152
	Directions for Use	153
	The Instrument	155
	Summary of the Chapter	175
VI	SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION	176
	Introduction	176
	Summary of Chapters	177
	Review and Discussion of the Analysis	180
	Review and Discussion of the Instrument	182
	Other Uses of the Values Materials Analysis System	183
	Suggestions for Further Research	185

In Retrospect	187
BIBLIOGRAPHY	188

CHAPTER I

Statement of the Problem

Introduction

In his book, Future Shock, Alvin Toffler noted that the rapid acceleration of change is one of the major features of our society. This accelerated rate of change, Toffler notes, has resulted in even a greater diversification of values. As a result of this rapid change and the greater diversification of values, the individual in society suffers from a state of "values vertigo" - a state of confusion over which values to adopt.

This state of "values vertigo" is of particular significance to the schools. In recent years students have been faced with more and more options relating to their futures and, at the same time, have been given more opportunities to make their own decisions. In this age of multiple alternatives, a number of powerful forces; particularly the revolution in science and technology, the media, social change and environmental problems have contributed to the value dilemmas, the value conflicts and the complicated decision areas that surround today's youth. Because many social and personal problems found in our society are partially rooted in confusion about the values involved, the schools should play a large role in helping students to identify and clarify their values and to make and act upon their value choices.

Controversial and value-laden topics have always been a part of social studies and currently values education is one of the most provocative new developments in education. It has attracted the interests and involvement of not only teachers and students, but also psychologists, philosophers, sociologists, political scientists, and educational

theorists. Michaelis and Keach (1972) noted this renewed interest in the study of values and value approaches in curriculum by social studies educators.

Keen interest has been generated in the issue of what to do with values and the process of valuing in social studies. A few individuals take the position that maximum attention should be given to the conceptual or cognitive side of the social studies. Others agree that values are a significant part of the instruction in the social studies and should be given major attention along with cognitive elements. The trend is clearly toward the inclusion of values and valuing in the instructional process. Special attention is being given to the process that will help students clarify their own values as well as understand those of others. (p. 241)

Literature predicts that values will play an important part in social studies education for the next several decades. Exactly how this will be evidenced remains to be seen since there are numerous questions about values, value approaches, and value conflicts that remain unsolved.

This study will concern itself with the examination of various educational value approaches as they are expressed in instructional materials.

Need for the Study

In the midst of wide ranging activities taking place in this field, values education is beset by several interrelated problems. The difficulties involved were brought forth by Superka (1975) when he listed the eight major problems faced by the field.

The major problems include (1) confusion ... about the meanings of key terms ... ; (2) ... doubts ... concerning the role of the school ... ; (3) classroom norms among students that discourage open, trusting value activities; (4) uncertainty of teachers ... ; (5) a general inade-

quate level of teacher training in values education; (6) a(n) ... influx of ... inexperienced persons conducting workshops and development materials; (7) lack of ... evaluation procedures and instruments ... ; and (8) ... overwhelming amount of ... materials ... (p. V)

A major contributing factor to the confusion in this field lies in the sheer multiplicity of approaches and the overwhelming amount of instructional materials.

As a result of various scholarly works, numerous theoretical, educational approaches have been developed that deal with values and valuing. The major approaches are: Inclusion, Moral Development, Value Clarification, Value Analysis, Value Action Learning and Emotional-Rational Valuing (Superka, 1975). Each approach has a different rationale and purpose, and different instructional models and teaching methods. Each approach makes different assumptions about the nature of man and the nature of the world he lives in.

Within the last two decades there has been a tremendous influx of instructional materials including textbooks, films, simulations and multi-media kits, all embodying the various value education approaches mentioned above. There are at present over one hundred different series of instructional materials listed in Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom (Superka - 1976). As a result of this plethora of instructional materials it has become exceedingly difficult for educators to make intelligent and systematic choices as to which materials they should use in their school system and which value approach best suits their skills, needs, and philosophy.

This problem is partly caused by the lack of a method by which the value approach or approaches being used within these instructional

materials can be identified or analyzed. Many instructional materials may overtly express the use of one approach within the teachers' guide or preface to the students' textbook. However, it is hypothesized that there could exist many other approaches which are not overtly expressed and are "hidden" within the instructional materials.

Statement of the Problem

The problem which this work will address is: Can one determine, by the development and application of a values materials analysis system, which value approach or approaches are used in Social Studies instructional materials?

Purpose of the Study

This study will focus on the following objectives:

1. the identification of the approaches to teaching values suggested by leading social studies educators.
2. the identification of the teaching models within the various approaches which have been developed to teach values and valuing.
3. the examination of the various teaching models to determine the rationale and purpose, the definition of valuing and values, the teaching methods and instructional models, the role of the student and the teacher and the type of content required for each approach.
4. the development of a Values Materials Analysis System. The analysis system will be developed by using the information gathered from the examination of the various teaching models. The data from the analysis system would allow an analyst to determine which values

approach or approaches are used within a specific set of materials.

5. the application of the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting.

6. the analysis of the Values Materials Analysis System data from the Kanata Kit to determine which values approach or approaches are used within this specific set of materials.

Significance of the Study

The task of those who must select values related to instructional material is difficult, not only because of the vast and complex nature of the field, but also because of the increasing volume of values materials from which they must choose. These materials are of increasing complexity and sophistication. The development of a Values Materials Analysis System is significant, therefore, for it would greatly assist in the process of selecting values instructional materials. Using such a system an educator would know which values approaches are inherent in materials, and could decide if they were appropriate and desirable.

Other possible uses of the Values Materials Analysis System emphasizing the further significance of the system are:

1. general library use: to help teachers and university students to become acquainted quickly with the materials in a curriculum library.
2. curriculum use: to assist classroom teachers to understand the approaches in new materials that have been selected for use.
3. in-service education: to stimulate teachers through application of the analysis system, to become acquainted with new materials and various approaches used in teaching values and valuing.

4. curriculum development: to suggest to curriculum developers dimensions of values education that they might take into consideration in their work.

5. university curriculum and instruction: to acquaint students with a broad range of curriculum materials through the study of analysis done by others, to introduce students to the dimensions of values curriculum construction and to acquaint students with materials analysis by having them perform a values materials analysis of their own.

The development of the Values Materials Analysis System is significant not only as an analytical decision-making instrument but also as a teacher-training tool.

Delimitations of the Study

1. This study restricts the development of the Values Materials Analysis System to the value educational approaches identified by Superka (1975) and by the author of this thesis.
2. This study limits the application of the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting.
3. This study examines only the rationale and objectives, written content and the suggested methodologies provided in the Kanata Kit student booklet and the teachers' guide.

Limitations of the Study

It is the author's belief that every human endeavor involves some basic assumptions and values. Thus, no claim will be made that this work has been produced in an assumption-free, value-free atmosphere.

The author must interpret meaning and make assumptions when analyzing theoretical works dealing with the various value approaches. These interpretations and assumptions will be used in developing the Values Materials Analysis System. Also various interpretations and assumptions will be made when examining the Kanata Kit. These interpretations and assumptions may differ from those that would be made by other persons.

The author holds the following assumptions about values and valuing:

1. Values have a conceptual element. They are more than just feelings, emotions or needs: they are concepts which give meanings to one's life.
2. A value is a standard or yardstick to guide not only actions, but attitudes, comparisons, evaluations and justifications.
3. Values are important in our lives since they possess strong motivational components, as well as cognitive, affective and behavioural components.
4. There must be the criterion of free choice in valuing. Choice implies that there be alternatives from which to choose.
5. Values organize action. Values are not the concrete goals of action, rather, they are the criteria by which goals are chosen and judgements made.
6. Individuals are continually involved in the process of developing and acting upon their values. Value development and reaffirmation is a lifelong process.

Definition of Terms

Probably the most persistent and compelling problem in comprehending the literature on values is the widespread confusion and conflict over terminology. There appears to be little agreement on the definition of the terms "values" and "valuing". Most authors who write for periodicals do not even define these terms. As Bond (1970) states:

... it is because so much has been written about values that many contributors to the periodical literature apparently assume there is wide agreement on the meaning of the concepts "values" and "valuing". The fact of the matter is, there is very little agreement ... (p. 9)

Among those who do specify meanings, there appear to be as many definitions as there are writers. Superka (1973) noted that among the social studies educators "values" have been defined as: standards (Douglas, 1967), criteria (Shaver and Morrisett, 1966), feelings (Estvan, 1968), assertable beliefs about the worth of an object (Bond, 1970), preferences (Brackenbury, 1964), universal oughts (Millis, 1958), and ideal types of behaviour (Joyce, 1972). They have also defined "valuing" as: the act of making value judgement (Massialas and Cox, 1966), the act of determining the worth or goodness of phenomena (Bond, 1971), the process of acquiring or internalizing values (Krathwohl et al., 1964), the process of needing, wanting, deciding and choosing (Higgins, 1968), and the process of choosing, prizing, affirming, and acting (Raths, et al., 1966) (pp. 16-17).

Despite their diversity, most of the definitions incorporate the notions of "values" as criteria for determining levels of goodness, worth or beauty that guide the thoughts, feelings, and actions of people. Most of the definitions also incorporate the general idea of "valuing"

as the process of developing or actualizing values.

In order to apply these two terms to each of the value education approaches and to the Values Materials Analysis System the following general definitions will be used.

1. Values - the criteria for determining levels of goodness, worth or beauty that guide the thoughts, feelings and actions of people.
2. Valuing - the process of developing or actualizing values.
3. Values education - the explicit attempt to teach about values and/or valuing.
4. Values education approach - a general orientation towards teaching about values and/or valuing.
5. Instructional materials - student and/or teacher resources explicitly designed to be used in the classroom.
6. Values Materials Analysis System - a system of selected questions, analytical in nature, that, when answered, will result in statements that reveal values approaches used in instructional materials.
7. Values typology - a schema used to list the characteristics of a specific educational values approach.
8. Values model - a specific teaching methodology used to teach about values and/or valuing.

Summary of Following Chapters

Chapter II will review the literature concerning values education. This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section will examine those authors who are concerned with values as they relate to society and the educational system. In addition, this section will examine five theories which attempt to account for the origin and development of an individual's values. The second section will examine the educational value typologies which have been developed to provide some order and classification to the various approaches used to teach values and valuing. This section will also present a new typology of six value approaches, developed by the writer of this thesis, which will include an educational approach developed in Britain.

The six educational value approaches identified in Chapter II will be examined in Chapter III. To identify its distinguishing characteristics, each approach will be explicated in the following manner.

1. The rationale will be identified and the nature of man as viewed by the proponents of the specific approach will be explained.
2. The purpose, the specific skills and the attitudes that the approach is trying to achieve, will be explained.
3. The process of valuing will be explained, as will the nature and source of values and the fundamental or ultimate values that the approach sets forth.
4. The teaching methods will be identified, as will the instructional model.
5. The roles of the teacher and the student that the approach dictates will be identified.

6. The characteristics of the teaching and learning materials will be identified.

7. An illustrative learning activity will be provided for each approach.

A summary chart will be provided at the end of this chapter, to enable one to compare easily the characteristics of the various approaches.

Chapter IV is divided into two sections. The first section will examine the three most common modes of textbook analysis. The second section will present the Values Materials Analysis System. This section will identify the system's specific questions. The format of the system, and a summary checklist will be provided. As well, this section will provide a set of directions for the analyst and it will define the role of the analyst using the Values Materials Analysis System.

Chapter V will apply the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?. The characteristics of the approaches identified in Chapter III will be used as a reference to determine which approaches are contained in the analyzed materials.

Chapter VI will begin with a re-statement of the basic problem of this thesis, and will summarize each of the preceding chapters. A review and a discussion of the analysis will be given and a number of alternative uses of the Values Materials Analysis System will be presented. Finally, a number of suggestions for further research projects arising from this study will be made.



CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

A review of the literature concerning values education is broad, complex, and difficult to organize. The task of comprehending the periodical literature is difficult due to the widespread confusion and conflict over terminology. There appears to be little agreement on the definition of the terms "values" and "valuing". The task of surveying the periodical literature has become increasingly large. The current index of journals in education file (CIJE) and the research in education file (RIE) in Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) lists over 3,000 articles on values. The research literature is no less staggering. An examination of the indices of the Dissertation Abstracts International dramatically demonstrates the recent upsurge of research interest in values. The cumulative index (ranging from the 1940's to 1969) catalogues approximately 80 dissertations on values, the vast majority in the last decade of that period. The indices from 1970-1979 list an average of 13 references each month - over 150 dissertations on values during each of those years.

The field of values, however, can be divided into two main groupings: (1) those which are concerned with the transcendental aspects of human values, and (2) those which are concerned with society and the educational system. Although the first group is not less important, this review of the literature concerns itself with the second group only, for the aim of this study is to examine only the practical applications of various educational value approaches.

The literature relevant to this thesis is reviewed in two sections: (1) values education and (2) educational value typologies.

1. Values Education

From Plato to the present, teachers have viewed values as an important educational concern. Interest in values education has not been limited just to teachers however, but also philosophers, anthropologists, political scientists, psychologists and sociologists.

This section of the review of the literature identifies major authors concerned with values education.

Values

Margaret Mead conducted one of the earliest examinations of values in society as they relate to education (1946, 1951). From her cross-cultural anthropological observations, she postulated three distinct value orientations among teachers. These are:

1. an emphasis on conservatism and the preservation of tradition,
2. an emphasis on the immediacy of the present and
3. a stance towards the future.

Mead related these categories to the appropriate teacher roles in different societies. In the first the teacher has the "grandparent role", which is suitable for the stable preliterate society. In the second, the teacher has the role of "nurse". Often this role is intrusted to siblings who preserve and protect the young from the harsh adult realities. In the third, the teacher has the role of "parent", preparing the youth for the future and exposing them to rapid changes in society.

Florence Kluckhohn (1953) supported the three classifications made by Mead. In addition she suggested that the (social) upper classes are relatively past-oriented, the middle classes are future-oriented and the lower classes are present-oriented.

Spindler (1955) was concerned with the findings of Mead and Kluckhohn in connecting social structures and time perspectives with values. He developed a definitive set of values in two categories, traditional values and emergent values. Spindler's traditional values are those of puritan morality, the work success ethic, individualism, achievement and delayed gratification. His emergent values are sociability, relativistic morality, altruism, conformity to the group and hedonistic existentialism. Spindler's analysis went on to identify a shift in value orientations from traditional to emergent values.

Spindler's analysis serves as a useful conceptual tool in studying values education or values in education. Of particular relevance to this study, however, is his discussion of teachers as focal points of value conflicts. Thus he contends:

...teachers typically are drawn from the middle and lower classes and further ... within these classes the teaching occupation is selective of the more puritanical element, of those who emphasize self-denial, altruism, and a moralistic self concept - all adding up to a strong commitment to traditional values. But in their training, teachers encounter a new culture with a strong press toward emergent values, and they experience a discontinuity in their acculturation process.

The value conflict which ensues in teachers has one of the three consequences: ambivalence, compensation, and adaption. The ambivalent teacher is one prone to vacillation in matters of classroom discipline and authority, vacillation between laissez-faire and authoritarian relations with pupils. The compensating teacher goes to either the emergent or the traditional extreme in his classroom performance. At the emergent extreme are those thoroughly committed to the social adjustment movement and the "group-think" cult; at the traditional extreme are those teachers who are down right authoritarian in their dominance over pupils and enter into formal rigid relations with them. The adaptive teacher is one who manifests either of the preceding mechanisms of conflict resolution but in far less severe form. (p. 154 - 155)

Spindler's diagnosis of a shift of value orientations, and of conflicts arising from these shifts, has been supported in different terms by other authors. Popular chroniclers of the 60's and 70's, Roszak (1969), Reich (1970), Toffler (1970), and Lasch (1979), have brought home the point that orientations are shifting and as a result of these shifts individuals within society are facing value conflicts.

Harold Laswell (1948) extended study of examining values in society by identifying universal values. According to Laswell, the needs and wants of an individual or a group, when determined to be desirable or of importance, become lasting values. He developed a framework of universal values which, he contended, are prized in all cultures and groups. Laswell identifies eight value categories which were based on cross-cultural, psychological and historical data.

Respect refers to the degree of recognition given to, or the degree of discrimination against, people in their capacity as human beings; it includes concern for authority, country, peers, adults and self.

Wealth is the ability to provide for one's needs adequately; to develop talents that increase one's productivity; to appreciate and care for material objects with which one comes into contact.

Power refers to participation in decision-making that affects self and group values; it refers to development of leadership and fellowship talents.

Enlightenment is the process of improving one's ability to make intelligent decisions in a problem - solving situation, of understanding abstractions, and mastering problem - solving techniques.

Skill is the development of potential talents in social, communicative, physical, mental and aesthetic areas.

Rectitude is the degree of concern one has for the welfare of others and the degree of responsibility one has for his own conduct in association with others.

Well-being refers to the mental and physical health of the individual, and to his attitude towards fitness and ability to participate effectively in physical activities.

Affection is liking others, being liked, and feeling love and friendship for persons in primary and secondary relationships. In this context, primary relationships are those involving one another; secondary relationships are those between an individual and an institution or group. (pp. 243 - 244)

These eight categories provide an holistic framework within which various social, economic, political and personal value systems can be understood. Laswell's list of categories is by no means the only useful schema for classification. It is used, however, by the majority of social scientists, for its contextuality, economy of terms, and precision in isolating fundamentally human goals.

Modification and Transmission of Values

Perhaps equally important as the research into the nature and orientation of values is the research into the manner of their modification and transmission. Several different theories attempt to account for the origin and development of an individual's values. The five most common theoretical approaches to the study of moral/values development contend that values result from: (1) psychoanalytical development, (2) social learning, (3) cognitive development, (4) cognitive - dissonance and (5) cognitive - decision making, respectively.

1. Psychoanalytical Development Theory. According to the Psychoanalytical Development theory, the development of values is a result of the establishment of the superego, "an unconscious conscience". A

child's superego is developed adequately when he has identified and internalized the values of his parents and society. The process of identification is exhibited by resisting temptation or by the arousal of guilt and shame whenever a moral rule is violated. An individual will act "morally" to avoid the feelings of guilt and shame, thus developing and internalizing values.

The Psychoanalytical Developmental approach has been developed in the work of psychologists such as Eric Erikson. In his book, Children and Society (1973), he suggests that our closest associates - parents, relatives and later peers - serve as templates. Through observation and mimicry over the years, we learn such characteristics as basic trust or mistrust of other individuals, autonomy or dependency, and responsibility or irresponsibility. Thus, Erikson states, children develop through a series of psychological stages related to their physical maturation. Each stage is characterized by central concerns or conflicts particular to that stage. Erikson identified eight stages of ego characterized respectively by:

basic trust vs. basic mistrust
 autonomy vs. shame/doubt
 initiative vs. guilt
 industry vs. inferiority
 identity vs. role confusion
 intimacy vs. isolation
 generativity vs. stagnation
 ego integrity vs. despair
 (pp. 247 - 74)

2. Social Learning Theory. The main concept of the social learning theory is that the development of values and moral behaviour is a learning process. The acquisition of a value is learned by the direct positive or negative reinforcement of a behaviour. The process of social

learning for values development is the shaping of an individual's behaviour in a desired direction. According to other authors, such as Bandura and Walter (1963), parents play a crucial role in this process. They shape their children's values in three ways: (1) by punishing them, (2) by rewarding them, and (3) by setting an example for them. The modeling process, however, may not be restricted to parents; it may include a teacher, a popular hero or a peer-group member. Social learning theorists maintain, moreover, that the values-behaviour of a child or student adopted in his early years tends to persist into his adult life (pp. 1-32).

3. Cognitive-Development Theory. The Cognitive-Development theory was originally developed by Piaget (1965) and later refined and expanded by Lawrence Kohlberg (1972). Kohlberg made an intensive longitudinal, cross-cultural study and formulated a three-level, six stage theory of moral development.

PRECONVENTIONAL LEVEL - At this level the child is responsive to such rules and labels as good or bad and right or wrong. He interprets these labels in purely physical or hedonistic terms: If he is bad, he is punished; if he is good, he is rewarded. He also interprets the labels in terms of the physical power of those who enunciate them - parents, teachers and other adults. The level comprises the following two stages:

Stage 1: punishment and obedience orientation.
The physical consequences of action determine its goodness or badness regardless of the human meaning or value of these consequences. Avoidance of punishment and unquestioning deference to power are valued in their own right, not in terms of respect for an underlying moral order supported by punishment and authority, the latter being stage 4.

Stage 2: instrumental relativist orientation.

Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. Human relations are viewed in terms similar to those of the market-place. Elements of fairness, of reciprocity and equal sharing are present, but they are always interpreted in a pragmatic way. Reciprocity is a matter of "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours," not of loyalty, gratitude or justice.

CONVENTIONAL LEVEL - At this level maintaining the expectations of the individual's family, group or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right, regardless of immediate and obvious consequences. The attitude is one not only of conformity to the social order but of loyalty to it, of actively maintaining, supporting and justifying the order, and of identifying with the persons or group involved in it. This level comprises the following two stages:

Stage 3: interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation. Good behaviour is that which pleases or helps others and is approved by them. There is much conformity to stereo-typical images of what is majority or "natural" behaviour. Behaviour is frequently judged by intention: "He means well" becomes important, and one earns approval by "being nice".

Stage 4: "Law and order" orientation.

Authority, fixed rules and the maintenance of the social order are valued. Right behaviour consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the social order for its own sake.

POSTCONVENTIONAL LEVEL - At this level there is a clear effort to reach a personal definition of moral values - to define principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of groups or persons and apart from the individual's own identification with these groups. This level again has two stages:

Stage 5: social-contract legalistic orientation.

Generally, this stage has utilitarian overtones. Right action tends to be defined in terms of general individual rights and in terms of standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the importance of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis on procedural rules for reaching consensus. Other than that which is constitutionally and democratically

agreed upon, right is a matter of personal values and opinion. The result is an emphasis both upon the "legal point of view" and upon the possibility of making rational and socially desirable changes in the law, rather than freezing it as in the "law and order" stage 4. Outside the legal realm, free agreement is the binding element of obligation. This is the "official" morality of the U.S. government and the Constitution.

Stage 6: universal ethical-principle orientation. Right is defined by the conscience in accord with self-chosen ethical principles, which in turn are based on logical comprehensiveness, universality and consistency. These principles are abstract and ethical (the golden rule, the categorical imperative); they are not concrete moral rules like the Ten Commandments. At heart, these are universal principles of justice, of the reciprocity and equality of human rights; and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons. (Kohlberg, 1972, pp. 11-12)

In order to clarify the differences among his stages, Kohlberg gave an explanation of how a child at each stage would define the concept of the "value of a human life".

- Stage 1: The value of human life is confused with the value of physical objects and is based on the social status or physical attributes of its possessor.
- Stage 2: The value of a human life is seen as instrumental to the satisfaction of the needs of its possessor or of other persons.
- Stage 3: The value of a human life is based on the empathy and affection of family members and others toward its possessor.
- Stage 4: Life is conceived as sacred in terms of its place in a categorical moral or religious order of rights and duties.
- Stage 5: Life is valued both in terms of its relation to community welfare and in terms of life being a universal human right.
- Stage 6: Belief in the sacredness of human life as representing a universal human value of respect for the individual. (1966, P. 8-9)

Kohlberg contends that individuals progress from a lower to a higher stage and that individuals can comprehend new moral statements at a level just above or just below the stage of development they have achieved. If the moral statement is two stages below, however, it becomes "babyish" to the individual. Likewise, if the moral statement is two stages above, it becomes incomprehensible to the individual. Kohlberg states that most individuals, at a particular time, are basically at one stage, although some may have a mixture of stages. He also claims that individuals can improve their moral decision making, rising to a higher stage, if they are given sufficient and proper instruction.

4. Cognitive-Dissonance Theory. The Cognitive-Dissonance theory of value development has been developed by Milton Rokeach. In his books, The Open and Closed Mind (1960), Beliefs, Attitudes and Values (1968), and The Nature of Human Values (1973), he provides not only an explanation of the theory but also a well structured analysis of the concepts of beliefs, attitudes and values.

4.1. Beliefs. Rokeach began his analysis by identifying five types of beliefs. (1) Primitive beliefs (100 per cent consensus) are learned by direct experience and are reinforced by unanimous social agreement. Examples are: I believe this is a table and I believe my name is _____. (2) Primitive beliefs (zero consensus) directly involve existence and personal experimental encounters with the object of belief, but they are unsupported by social consensus. Examples are phobias, hallucinations or delusions. (3) Authority beliefs are non-primitive beliefs resulting from

selective attention to conflicting persons in authority. These authority beliefs are changeable from time to time depending on the perceived positive or negative authority position of the reference group or persons. An example is: Santa Claus comes down the chimney every Christmas. (4) Derived beliefs are those accepted because they came from an authoritative source, e.g., the New York Times or the Edmonton Sun. They are changeable depending on the amount of authority one attributes to the source of information. Derived beliefs form one's institutionalized ideology and, along with authority beliefs and identifications with reference sources, provide a sense of group identification. An example is: Smoking will lead to cancer. (5) Inconsequential beliefs refer to matters of individual taste and are least important to people. An example is: Steak is better rare (1968, pp. 6-11).

In examining beliefs Rokeach makes three assumptions: "First, not all beliefs are equally important to the individual. ... Second, the more centered a belief, the more it will resist change. ... Third, the more central the belief change, the more widespread the repercussions in the rest of the belief system" (1968, p. 3).

Beliefs, to Rokeach, are interconnected. Changes in one set of beliefs hold implications for other beliefs held by the individual. He proposes four criteria of connectedness. (1) Beliefs that directly concern one's existence and identify are assumed to be functionally important. (2) The importance of existential beliefs is enhanced if they are shared with others. (3) Beliefs resulting from personal experience are more significant than those

derived from reference sources. (4) Non-arbitrary beliefs are assumed to be more important (1968, p. 5).

4.2. Attitudes. From beliefs, Rokeach moves on to examine attitudes. His definition of an attitude is:

... a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. (1968, p. 112)

He related beliefs to attitudes as follows:

Each belief within an attitude organization is conceived to have three components: a cognitive component, ...; an affective component, because ... the belief is capable of arousing affect of varying intensity ...; and a behavioural component, because the belief, ..., must lead to some action when it is suitably activated. (1968, p. 113-4)

4.3. Values. To Rokeach attitudes were packages of beliefs. Attitudes and values are related; however, values are distinct from attitudes in that:

Values ... have to do with modes of conduct and end-states of existence. ... Once a value is internalized it becomes, consciously or unconsciously, a standard or criterion for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward relevant objects and situations, for justifying one's own and other's actions and attitudes for morally judging self and others, and for comparing with others. Finally, a value is a standard employed to influence the values, attitudes and actions of at least some others - our children's, for example. (1968, p. 160)

Rokeach classifies values as being instrumental or terminal. He states that instrumental values can be distinguished as those words or phrases which could be inserted in the following sentence: "I believe that (for example: honesty, courage) is personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects."

Terminal values, he states, can be distinguished as words or phrases that can be meaningfully placed in the following sentence. "I believe that (for example: a world at peace) is personally and socially worth striving for." (1968, p. 160-1). He implies, therefore, that instrumental values are means to ends, while terminal values are ends.

Rokeach identified 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values found throughout society:

Instrumental Values

Ambitious
Broadminded
Capable
Cheerful
Clean
Courageous
Forgiving
Helpful
Honest
Imaginative
Independent
Intellectual
Logical
Loving
Obedient
Polite
Responsible
Self-controlled

Terminal Values

A comfortable life
An exciting life
A sense of accomplishment
A world at peace
A world of beauty
Equality
Family security
Freedom
Happiness
Inner Harmony
Mature Love
National security
Pleasure
Salvation
Self-respect
Social recognition
True friendship
Wisdom

(1968, pp. 60-61)

Rokeach completes his study by outlining a theory of change for a value-attitude system. His two postulates are that a system seeking balance is motivated for a consistency primarily with self-esteem, and secondly with logic and reality. In other words an individual is continually striving to maintain consistency between his value - attitude system and his actions.

A state of inconsistency, according to Rokeach, can be induced if any of the following occur: (1) A person may be forced to engage

in behaviour that is inconsistent with his attitudes and values. (2) A person may be exposed to new information from a significant other than is inconsistent with information already represented within his value-attitude system. (3) A person may be exposed to information about states of inconsistency already existing within his own value-attitude system (1968, pp. 167 - 168).

Rokeach distinguishes his theory conceptually from other approaches on four counts.

1. Conception of Inconsistency. .. imbalance, ... dissonance or incongruity. ... (T)wo or more cognitive elements, X and Y, ... are said to be in some inconsistent or imbalanced relation to one another ... X refers to a cognition about oneself, and Y refers to a cognition about one's performance in a given situation. ...
2. From Attitudes to Values ... (T)he present focus is on the concept of values and on a theory of value change ... A shift from attitudes to values becomes scientifically possible only if clear conceptual and operational distinctions can be made between the concepts. ...
3. Short-term and Long-term Cognitive Change ... (T)he present theory attempts to address itself to long term ... as well.
4. Behavioural Change following Cognitive Change ... The present formulation suggests that as long as the values underlying a changed attitude remains intact, there is no compelling theoretical reason why a short-term attitude change should lead to behavioural change. (1973, p. 230-2)

Basically, Rokeach's theory postulates that the psychological state of self-dissatisfaction with one's attitude-value system is the central mechanism that triggers cognitive and behavioural change.

Rokeach notes that his theory is supported by McGuire's (1969) review of several hundred attitude change studies. McGuire's study showed that virtually all attitude changes could be dichotomized

according to the procedure employed to induce attitude change. Either "(1) A person may be exposed to information about the cognitions or behaviour of a significant other that is discrepant with his own cognitions or behaviour." or "(2) A person may be induced to engage in behaviour that is discrepant with his own cognitions." (1973, p. 233)

Rokeach goes on to explain how his comprehensive theory ties in with the works of Maslow (1954).

Many of our findings are consistent with Maslow's hierarchical theory of human motivation (1954). If we assume that lower-order safety and security needs are reflected in a higher regard for values concerning material comfort, conventional forms or religion, and conformity, then our findings suggest that such lower-order needs are more important to the poor and uneducated. In contrast, the affluent and educated typically regard values reflecting safety and security needs as relatively unimportant, not so much because they are not valued but because they are taken for granted. Taking such values for granted frees the affluent and educated to place greater emphasis on higher-order values, for instance love, competence, and self-actualization. (1973, p. 327)

Rokeach's work considering attitude, values and personality development is also related to the studies completed by Erikson.

The data ... show a continual development of values from early youth to old age, a finding that is more in accord with Erikson's (1950) than with Freud's view of personality development. Further research is now needed to describe more clearly the value systems that are characteristic of Erikson's eight identity stages and to determine the precise nature of the value-changes that accompany change in stages of identity. (1973, p. 327)

Rokeach's theory is very deterministic in outlook. His theory, in which the individual goes through self-confrontation procedures in analyzing his own attitude-value system and affirming his mental states and feelings, is very different from the information persuasion and

behaviour modification of Skinner.

Social scientists of all theoretical persuasions, from Skinner ... to Freud ..., have long agreed that human behaviour is determined by genetic endowment and by environmental circumstances.

Contrary to Skinner, however, I have argued that humans, determined though as they all are, vary in how much they care about freedom, dignity, and other values; that they can indeed be said to possess values; that values determine behaviour; and that value changes leads to attitudinal and behaviour changes.

...Moreover, man has been seen as one capable of feeling satisfied and dissatisfied with himself as he becomes aware of discrepancies that implicate self-conceptions, and such awareness and associated feelings have been seen as having cognitive and behavioural consequences. (p. 338)

Rokeach's work has very obvious implications for values education. According to his theory, dramatic changes in attitudes and values will occur when individuals are confronted by inconsistencies between what they say they value and what they actually value as evidenced by their behaviour. Rokeach states that this confrontation related directly to Dewey's observations that all education begins with a felt difficulty.

This "felt difficulty" is a more or less consciously experienced affective state of self-dissatisfaction, a dissatisfaction arising from some cognitive discrepancy between self-conceptions and performance in a given situation ...

It is such an affective experience rather than a cognitive contradiction per se that is postulated here to be the basic motivation for cognitive or behavioural change. (1973, p. 226)

5. Cognitive Decision-Making Theory. The Cognitive-Decision theory proposed by John Wilson, in his books Introduction to Moral Education (1967) and A Teaching Guide to Moral Education (1973), proposes that values are learned and modified through a decision making process. In his complex system, value/moral decisions are arrived at by a variety of both affective and cognitive processes.

In examining moral/value decisions, Wilson states that there are five features essential to morality.

1. ... A moral action is connected with intentions and with acting for a reason: so that we have to know, not just what people do, but why they do it.
2. Only certain kinds of reasons will count as good reasons. We can't say 'Any reason will do, so long as they lead to the right action' ...
3. Good moral reasons must be based on a rational consideration of other people's interests: authority ... or selfish desire ... won't do by themselves.
4. A 'rational consideration' does not necessarily involve a great deal of conscious deliberation, but it involves such things as regarding other people as equals, knowing what their feelings are, respecting logic and the facts, not being deceived by linguistic confusion, and having moral rules or principles based on all these.
5. ... (A) man must have the ability to act on his moral principles: ... (1967, pp. 191-2)

To further explain and to provide specific curriculum objectives, Wilson analyzed the "educated morally mature" person. To understand this type of individual necessitates being aware of the difficulties involved in understanding what makes up morality. Wilson states that the problem is that:

... Our emotions and prejudices create in us certain pictures or fantasies about morality, ...

The reason why we must discuss these fantasies is that, however much we may try to make sense of morality intellectually, the fantasies will persist unless they are recognized for what they are. (1973, p. 4)

Wilson determined that there were basically five components to morality. To solve the problem of emotion and prejudice, Wilson used neutral classical Greek abbreviations to represent them. Without these classical Greek abbreviations, no neutral intellectual assessment could take place, according to Wilson, for the model would then be "deeply embedded in the language and moral judgements of our society" (1973, p. 9).

Wilson's components of an "educated morally mature" person are:

1. PHIL (Greek: Philia - concern or loving friendship). PHIL is an attitude or frame of mind involving a belief that other people have equal rights with oneself. This attitude is detected and verified by the way in which a person thinks in his everyday life. PHIL has two important dimensions: (1) scope, which is roughly how many other people a person is prepared to include in his attitude or equality and (2) degree, which is the intensity of the feeling. It is possible for a person to have this attitude but not act on it - perhaps because he does not know how to, or because he is frightened, or for some other reason.
2. EMP (Greek: Empatha - awareness or empathy). EMP is an ability to know what other people are feeling in a particular situation. It includes also being able to predict the feelings of those whom one has

never met. By peoples' feelings, Wilson means not just sensations but emotions. These feelings can be detected by what a person says he feels, by characteristic symptoms, by characteristic actions, and by characteristic circumstances. It is possible for a person to have a high degree of EMP but not actually use his ability. This may be due to the fact that he is too nervous about people; hence too frightened to observe them or is too lazy to bother.

3. GIG (1) (Greek: Gignoskein-knowledge or to know). GIG (1) is the knowledge of the facts relevant to a moral situation. - GIG may be divided into two areas. These two areas are knowledge of laws, rules and contracts in a given society and knowledge of what things are dangerous to people in a given society.

GIG (2) is a knowledge of social skills. It is concerned with the knowledge and ability to perform effectively in social contexts. Basically it is concerned with the person's knowledge and ability to be proficient in social skills, to give orders, to take orders and to be able to discuss among equals, either singly or in groups.

4. DIK (Greek: Dikere - to say, related to justice). DIK is the rational formation of principles concerning other people's interests. DIK has two important dimensions: right reasons and sincerity of decisions, on the basis of other people's interests. The dimension of "right reasons" is the individual making a moral decision on the basis of other people's interests. Very often individuals use non-DIK reasons such as: guilt-feelings, obedience to authority, or conformity to one's

social group as the basis for making moral decision. "Sincerity of decision" is the commitment individuals make to their decision. Very often, individuals say that certain things would be right or wrong but in making these judgements they do not sincerely commit themselves. Individuals with DIK will, therefore, not just evaluate moral decisions by referring to other people's interests, but will actually make and commit themselves to those decisions.

5. KRAT (Greek: Kratein - control or to decide). KRAT is the behavioural traits necessary for morality. It is concerned with action and behaviour. Two basic KRAT traits are necessary for a person to enter into a moral action. First, the person must have the alertness and sensitivity to actually use the other components of his moral thinking. Second, when the person does reach a rational moral decision, he must have the motivation and resolution to translate the decision into action. In addition, four other traits are necessary. (1) A person should have sufficient sentiment or love for other people to enable him to think and act in a moral crisis. (2) A person should have a settled disposition to think and act in a rational manner. (3) A person must possess independence of judgement and sufficient courage to act on his judgements. (4) A person must be reflective enough not to be carried away by a specific situation. A person may fail to take action on a moral decision because he is fearful, incompetent, forgetful, tired or many other reasons. Wilson points out that these reasons would not be called moral failings, therefore KRAT should not be considered just a matter of willpower.

Wilson's five components of morality PHIL, EMP, GIG, DIK, and KRAT become the basis of his program of moral assessment and his moral/values education program. The major task for the teacher, according to Wilson, is to use the components as educational objectives, teaching the students the needed knowledge and skills. The program should not aim primarily to impart specific content or to indoctrinate students, but rather to give them a method of making reasonable moral decisions and acting upon them.

2. Educational Value Typologies

There has been a plethora of ideas, theories, strategies and philosophies regarding values and how they can be taught. In an attempt to provide some order to the field, a number of typologies have been developed that identify the major theories in the field of values education.

This section of the review of the literature reviews the major educational value typologies.

Bond's Typology

Bond (1971) investigated the different ways that social studies educators claimed values should be taught. To carry out the study, he constructed ten theoretical categories or classifications. The "purpose was to identify the major theories around which social science

educators have grouped themselves; to sort out what appear to be major value teaching proposals for which there is some support among educators" (p. 19). Bond labeled and defined the ten classifications or categories of teaching values as follows:

Category	I:	The Universal School
Category	II:	Decisional Values School
Category	III:	The Fact-Value Separation School
Category	IV:	Analytical Valuation School
Category	V:	Values Understood as Feelings School
Category	VI:	Values as Preferences School
Category	VII:	Values as Subjects for Limited Analysis School
Category	VIII:	Values as Hierarchical Arrangement
Category	IX:	The Contextualists School
Category	X:	The Psycho-Social Acculturation View School

(p. 16)

A brief overview of these ten value categories follows:

1. The Universal School. This school of thought can be distinguished from the other nine in the belief that students should come to adopt a number of basic conclusions about what is good. The conclusions are selected and incorporated into the curriculum by the educational institution and presented in much the same way one presents school rules which govern student conduct. Adherents to this line of thought such as Estvan (1968), Drummond (1957), Gayer (1964) and Wimpey (1961) customarily propose a list of generalizations, or "universals", stated, depending on the educator, in varying degrees of generality. Not infrequently, the list consists of concepts such as "honesty" with the implication that one is to teach (or learn) the conclusion that "Honesty is good" (pp. 20A - 23).

2. The Decisional Values School. This school is characterized by the belief that students ought to be free to make their own value decisions. Proponents of Category II identify sets of values; however,

they emphasize the position of providing students with decision-making freedom. Bond identifies authors such as Fenton (1968), Jeffreys (1961), and Wells (1956) as being interested in providing students with opportunities for deciding whether or not a particular value is desirable; for example, is it good to be honest? (honesty vs honesty) (pp. 24 - 29).

3. The Fact-Value Separation School. This school which believes that students should be free to make their own decision, derives partly from the point of view that there is a difference between "fact" and "value". This school believes that there is no logical, empirical procedure for validating value judgements. The gap between what "is" and what "ought to be" cannot be closed by reason, and statements about what "ought to be" do not logically or empirically derive from statements about "what is". Bond identifies as adherents to this view such people as Feigl (1967), Goldmark (1968) and Sanders (1966). These people, Bond suggests, are inclined to view the world of values as being apart from reality (pp. 30 - 35).

4. The Analytical Valuation School. This school believes that value judgements should not be arrived at subjectively but that the methods of empirical and logical analysis should be applied to questions of value. Value conflicts can be resolved in substantially the same way that strictly empirical claims are resolvable. This school believes that value judgements are verifiable, even though some, for lack of evidence, have not yet been verified. As well, the distinction between facts and values can only be made in specific problem contexts. This view maintains that most value problems in the social sciences are not personal or subjective. Rather they are properly subject to open,

scientific investigation. According to this view, valuation is not decisional. That is, determining the value of some phenomenon no more requires a decision than does adding numbers. One calculates the sum of a series of numbers and one analyzes and evaluates a value claim. Bond indicates that proponents of this view such as Arnet (1958), Beck (1967), and Hannaford (1962) are relatively few in number (pp. 36-43).

5. The Values Understood as Feelings School. This school sees valuing as essentially a personal, private operation. Values are primarily a function of feeling, rather than thinking. Values are indices of emotion rather than products of reasoning. According to this view, it makes little sense to measure a value for empirical or logical validity. Rather, measuring a value consists of assessing the strength of a feeling or set of feelings. Bond identifies Krathwohl (1964), Estvan (1968) and Meek (1965) as the major authors of this school (pp. 44 - 49).

6. The Values as Preference School. This school views values are not much different from those who contend that values consist of feelings (Category V). But this point is not clarified by this group of educators. They are not explicit about the relationship of "preferring" to either the cognitive or affective domain and one is left to speculate about its relation to other mental and emotional functions.

According to Bond, members of this school of thought believe that phenomenon X has value if and only if someone prefers it. The value of phenomenon X is not to be found in one's relation to it, or in the phenomenon itself, but is defined as one's preference for it. There seems to be no way of determining whether adherents to this view have inadvertently reversed the relationship between "valuing" and "preferring".

That is, instead of valuing something because one finds oneself preferring it, one ought to prefer it because it has value. Bond identifies Brackenbury (1964) as the major author in this school of thought (pp. 50 - 51).

7. The Values as Subjects for Limited Analysis School. This school is a hybrid of several other categories and is the middle ground between two opposing positions: subjectivism, in which it is held that independent analytic procedures have no bearing on value questions and analytical ethics, in which it is argued that only analytic procedures have a bearing on questions of value. Members of this school believe that students should learn how to analyze value problems because there is a factual component in value issues which make them suitable for analysis. Members of this group do distinguish between facts and values and, at the same time, argue that values can be based on facts. According to this view values themselves cannot be verified through logical or empirical analysis, but the facts upon which the values rest are properly subject to such investigation. Bond identifies Oliver and Shaver (1966) and Fraenkel (1969) as the major authors of this school of thought (pp. 52 - 59).

8. Values in a Hierarchical Arrangement. People in this category believe that one's value system can be understood as a hierarchically arranged set of beliefs, feelings or attitudes. According to this view, value conflicts can be resolved by (1) identifying the various values involved in the conflict, and (2) locating their positions on the hierarchy. Issues are decided in favor of the higher ranking values. Because these beliefs are so common and because all major authors agree

upon this point, Bond feels that this category cannot be classified as a separate school (pp. 60 - 61).

9. The Contextualist School. This school believes that value problems cannot be intelligently solved and that values (such as honesty or generosity) cannot be completely understood in the abstract. It makes no sense to resolve an anticipated conflict between generosity and honesty except in very specific situations. The major authors of this school are Hunt and Metcalf (1968), Rich (1968), and Fraenkel (1969) (pp. 62 - 64).

10. The Psycho-Social Acculturation School. This school's view is that values are acquired through processes other than direct, conscious analysis and evaluation. The values a person holds are acquired through subtle influences in the social environment. With this belief, the major job of education is to discover ways in which the process can be made more efficient. The major authors Bond identifies are Getzel (1957), Engbretson (1959) and Lodge (1958) (pp. 65 - 69).

Bond's ten categories represented the major ideas and philosophies of social studies educators that pertain to the field of values education. Bond's typology was supported by various writers in the field. It should be noted that Bond's schema represented the first attempt to categorize the mass of diverse and disjointed ideas, philosophies, theories and concepts about values education. The significance of Bond's work was that it provided a starting point for the development of further typologies.

Stewart's Typology

Stewart (1974) adapted Bond's original classification categories to fit his axio-epistemological theory criteria. Under this criteria, Stewart's typology consisted of four value educational approaches; Traditional-Authoritarian, Cultural-Relativist, Absolute-Relativist and Organismic-Structuralist-Developmental. A brief summary of Stewart's four approaches follows:

1. Traditional-Authoritarian Values. Traditional-Authoritarian values education is characterized by the following attitudes and practices.

- (a) the teacher knows and the students are taught;
- (b) the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;
- (c) the teacher thinks and the students are thought about;
- (d) the teacher talks and the students listen meekly;
- (e) the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined;
- (f) the teacher chooses and enforces his choices, and the students comply;
- (g) the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the actions of the teacher;
- (h) the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it;
- (i) the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the student;
- (j) the teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects. (p. 59)

Stewart interprets this style in terms of Freudian internalization of parental values and in terms of psychological environmentalism, naming Skinner and Gagne (pp. 55 - 60).

2. Cultural-Relativist Values. Cultural-Relativist values education is a modified form of the Traditional-Authoritarian attitude. It is a less authoritarian, halfway stage between indoctrination-autocratic and laissez-faire values education (p. 60).

3. Absolute-Relativism. Absolute Relativism is an educational approach which condones and encourages extreme individualism. This has been

exemplified for Stewart most recently in Simon's value clarification. Stewart's critique of this approach stands as an example of academic overkill. "Illogical, superficial, eclectic and absolutely relativist values clarification may well be useful ... A lot of what they call values clarification is what other people would call psychologic education" (p. 63).

4. Structural-Organismic-Developmental Education. This is what Stewart describes as a transactional-democratic-developmental approach. In this category Stewart combined the "problem-posing" approach to education of Freire, Dewey's emphasis on democracy and interaction with the environment, and the stage-development theories of Piaget and Kohlberg (p. 64 - 68).

Stewart's typology identifies three categories which he feels are "enemies" to values education: Traditional-Authoritarian, Values Clarification and the hybrid of the two. His typology and discussion is basically designed to support his fourth category, which is his ideal "catch-all" approach. His categories do not lead to a model which can be used to clearly identify educational value approaches found in students' learning materials, and have not been used as such.

Hodgkinson's Typology

Hodgkinson (1974) developed a typology of six value educational methodologies. He derived this typology from practical teaching experience and from observation of teachers. Hodgkinson lists his six methodologies as:

1. Direct Induction: Emphasis was placed on the fact that for success this method implies and necessitates some form of social consensus and individual commitment. It is the classical mode of doctrinaire values education, and it is quite effective when prerequisite contextual conditions are present.
2. Clarification and Analysis: This is the method currently popular in the literature on values education, and it tends to address, in our terms, not moral but values education.
3. Modeling: The inevitability and unconscious nature of this mode were emphasized, together with the possibility of negative outcomes. The teacher is in fact a model and values educator, ...
4. Moral Reasoning: This method ... is the mode of dialectic and persuasion. Kohlberg's work in this methodology is classic.
5. Dissatisfaction Induction: This is the method expounded and elaborated by Milton Rokeach. He argues that if a student can be shown discrepancies between his self-concept and his declared values, his values will change permanently, so as to eliminate the discrepancy.
6. Concurrent Teaching: This means teaching for values as well as for concepts and facts in the ordinary course of daily classroom work. It is argued that every subject can be presented in some way so that it will relate to effect and ego, and thus become a component of values education. (p. 49 -50)

The major purpose of Hodgkinson's study was to determine to what extent value orientations are an effective measurement of teacher receptivity to educational innovation. He developed the typology to categorize teachers as to their values methodology rather than to categorize educational value approaches.

Difficulties would arise if Hodgkinson's typology was used as the basis for the analysis of student learning materials, because:

1. Direct Instruction and Modeling would not be easily discernable as separate and distinct categories in written materials.
2. Dissatisfaction Induction of Rokeach is more a theory of value change than an educational value approach, and
3. Concurrent Teaching is more a comprehensive curriculum approach than a distinctive values teaching method or an educational values approach.

Superka's Typology

Superka (1973) made an extensive analysis of the major valuing theories (conceptions of the process of valuing development) and the educational values approaches (general methods of teaching for value development). Using Bond's earlier work he refined the typology into eight easily identifiable categories. They are:

- 1) Behavioural learning and behavioural modification.
- 2) Psycho-social acculturation and values inculcation.
- 3) Rational-empirical and values analysis.
- 4) Subjective-affective and value evocation.
- 5) Cognitive-developmental and moral reasoning.
- 6) Humanistic-organismic and value clarification.
- 7) Social-Psychological interaction and value reconstruction.
- 8) Ontological-interaction and value reconstruction. (p. 8)

A brief overview of these eight educational values approaches follows.

1. Behavioural Modification. This is an approach of behavioural psychologists. The aim is the development of consistent patterns of behaviour through suitable reinforcement of stimulus-evoked responses. Values have no meaning in any abstract sense. Methods are those of conditions and of behavioural psychology. The foremost modern names listed by Superka are Bandura (1969) and Skinner (1972). Specific educational applications are those of Sayre (1972) and Sulzer (1972) (pp. 30 - 36).

2. Value Inculcation. This is an approach which seeks to instill certain desirable and pre-chosen values into students. Valuing is considered a process of identification and socialization. Students are not encouraged to make free choices, but to act according to pre-specified values. Sample methods are modeling and positive and negative reinforcement. Inculcation can be direct and systematic, as in behaviour modification, or indirect and subtle, through a teacher's style or information bias. Superka relates this approach to Freud's psychoanalytic psychology (1935) and Parsons' structuralist functional sociology (1951). Educational expressions are found in Fenton (1975) and Shaftel and Shaftel (1967) (pp. 37-43).

3. Value Analysis. This is an approach which stresses rationality. The aim is to help the students use logical thinking and scientific procedures in dealing with values and value-laden issues. Valuing is conceived of as being the rational process of determining the goodness or worth of a phenomenon. Methods used are group and individual study of social value issues, library and field research, and discussion. Fundamental processes are of the empirical scientific method. Superka indicates that the major social studies and value education exponents are Oliver and Shayer (1966), Massialas and Cox (1966), Hunt and Metcalf (1968) and Nelson and Michaelis (1972) (pp. 43 - 48).

4. Value Evocation. This is an approach which helps students express their values or personal moral feelings, genuinely and spontaneously, without thought or hesitation. The process of valuing is one of feeling or emoting. Teaching methods would provide an environment allowing the students maximum freedom of expression. This approach can

can be traced to the influence of Rousseau and the modern expression of these ideas can be found in Rogers (1969) and Brown (1971) (pp. 48-52).

5. Moral Reasoning. This is the cognitive-developmental approach which would stimulate students into reasoning at higher and more complex levels. Students are encouraged and helped to advance to higher levels by role playing dilemma discussion.

Various developmental continua have been evolved, of which Kohlberg's (1973) elaboration on Piaget's (1965) successive stages is the best and most widely known according to Superka. Kohlberg's six stages are presented as three two-stage levels: pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional. The pre-conventional stages are a punishment-and-obedience orientation and an instrumental-relativist orientation. The conventional stages are stereotypical conformism and a "law and order" orientation. The post-conventional stages are the social-contract, legalistic mentality, followed by a universal ethical principle orientation. Kohlberg also hypothesizes a seventh or cosmic-perspective stage. Superka summarized moral development as the reconstruction of more and more adequate conceptions of justice (pp. 52-61).

6. Value Clarification. This aims at helping students to use both rational thinking and emotional awareness to examine personal behaviour patterns and clarify and actualize values. Students are encouraged to uncover and resolve value conflicts. Methods are varied and include self-analysis, listening techniques, examination of dilemmas and various creative tasks.

The core of this approach is the notion of a seven-step process of value development. These steps are:

1. choosing from alternatives,
2. choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative,
3. choosing freely,
4. prizing, being glad of one's choice,
5. prizing, being willing to affirm publically one's choice,
6. acting upon one's choice repeatedly, over time.

The authors Superka identifies as the major contributors to this approach are Raths, Simon and Harmin (1965). Simon, in collaboration with Kirschenbaum and Howe (1972), has been given credit for popularizing the approach (pp. 61 - 62).

7. Value Reconstruction. This provides specific opportunities for students to engage in personal and social action in relation to their values. Previously mentioned analysis and clarification approaches are advanced to the stage of community involvement and commitment. John Dewey is recognized as the initiator of this approach and Newman (1975) is the most recent exponent of this approach presently (pp. 67 - 75).

8. Value Individuation or Union. This approach aims at enabling students to situate themselves in a larger-than-self universe, such as the human race, earth or the cosmos. Experiences are provided to facilitate the perceptions of body-soul, consciousness-unconsciousness and personal-environment relationships. Methods used include prayer, worship, meditation or drugs. The proponents of this approach range from fundamentalists to exotic mystics. Superka identifies Watts (1967) and traditional religious educators as proponents of this approach (pp. 75 - 83).

Superka's Revisions

Superka reasoned that, when examining instructional materials, one could not easily distinguish between his original first two categories. He therefore made a number of revisions to his original 1973 typology making it more concise and practical, that is, more useful to educators. Superka's criterion for the revisions to the typology was that instructional materials must exist for the various theoretical value approaches. He therefore collapsed (1) Behavioural learning and behavioural modification and (2) Psycho-social acculturation and values inculcation into one category, now called Inculcation. The original category (5) Cognitive-developmental and moral reasoning became simply Moral Development. He renamed category (3) Rational-empirical and values analysis simply Analysis. The original category (6) Humanistic-organismic and value clarification became simply Clarification. Category (7) Social-psychological interaction and value reconstruction received a new title, Action Learning. The other two categories were not included in the typology for they were insufficiently represented in the curriculum materials. They were however listed as valid alternatives by Superka; Category (4) Subjective-affective and values evocation became Evocation and category (8) Ontological-integrative and value individuation became Union (1975, pp. 1 - 6).

The new typology now consisted of five categories: (1) Inculcation, (2) Moral Development, (3) Analysis, (4) Clarification and (5) Action Learning.

In summary, the revisions Superka made are as follows:

Original 1973 Typology	Revised 1975 Typology
1) Behavioural learning and behavioural modification 2) Psycho-social acculturation and values inculcation	1) Inculcation
5) Cognitive-developmental and moral reasoning	2) Moral Development
3) Rational-empirical and values analysis	3) Analysis
6) Humanistic-organismic and value clarification	4) Clarification
7) Social-psychological interaction and value reconstruction	5) Action Learning
4) Subjective-affective and values evocation	Evocation
8) Ontological-integrative and value individuation	Union

Superka's revised categories provide a framework within which the mass of curriculum materials and values related literature may be grouped and classified, and have been recognized as an acceptable typology upon which research into educational values may be based. The advantages of this typology over others are:

1. the comparative ease with which one category can be distinguished from another,
2. the broad scope of the categories which cover more completely the present field of values literature, and

3. the basing of each category in existing curriculum materials, makes the typology more practical and more useful than others.

As Hunkins (1977) stated, "Superka's categories are discernible ... now providing a unified perspective ... Superka's typology has recently been confirmed as an adequate organization of the field" (p. 40).

Superka's criteria for development of the revised typology was that curriculum materials must exist for the various theoretical approaches. Since the development of Superka's revised (1975) typology, curriculum materials have been produced which would fit into his Emotional-Rational approach (Evocation). Startline (1978), developed in Britain by McPhail, is one of the new curriculum materials using the Emotional-Rational approach. Maintaining Superka's rationale, his typology must now be expanded to six categories, to include the Emotional-Rational (Evocation) approach in order to constitute an adequate basis for the analysis of values approaches inherent in present-day curriculum.

Because of the advantages Superka's modified categories hold over other systems of classification, it is selected as the best typology upon which to base research into or analysis of values materials.

Summary of the Chapter

In recent years the need to deal with values inside or outside the school setting has become apparent to a significantly large number of educators. Efforts have now been channeled away from explaining how they should be "taught" to explaining why values should be "taught". As a result an enormous mass of educational literature, much of which involves suggestions and materials for "teaching" values, has been produced in the last two decades.

In the preceding chapter attempts were made to review the significant, ground-breaking work of Mead, Kluckholm, Spindler, and Laswell. The discussion also reviewed the major value development theories: Psychoanalytic development, social learning, cognitive-development, cognitive dissonance and cognitive-decision-making. Bond's, Stewart's, Hodgkinson's and Superka's attempts to develop various typologies - the theoretical grids through which the many confusing ideas concerning values and valuing could be sifted - were also presented.

Superka's revised 1975 typology is the most applicable to use as a basis for the development of a values materials analysis system. Superka's typology must be expanded, however, to include his emotional-rational (evocation) category so that the recent curriculum materials, such as those developed by McPhail may also be analyzed. Therefore, the typology adopted as the basis of further work in this thesis includes six approaches to the teaching of values, as follows:

Revised Superka Typology

1. Inculcation
2. Moral Development
3. Analysis
4. Clarification
5. Action Learning
6. Emotional-Rational

CHAPTER III

Approaches to Values Education

Introduction

In the previous chapter, a typology of six value education approaches was identified. This typology is the base from which the values materials analysis system is developed.

To create an analysis system, which is necessary to determine which of the six approaches to teaching values development are included in a set of curriculum materials, one must first identify the distinguishing characteristics of each approach. Each of the six approaches is based on a distinct view of human nature and the nature of person-environment interaction. Each reflects a definite conception of the nature of the process of valuing. In most cases, approaches embody agreement by their proponents on the nature and source of values and seem to imply certain fundamental or ultimate values. Furthermore, each approach uses different teaching and learning methods, dictates specific roles which the student and the teacher must adopt, and uses characteristic teaching and learning materials.

This chapter identifies the distinguishing characteristics of the six approaches: inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, action learning, and emotional-rational. To accomplish this, each approach will be explicated in the following manner:

1. The rationale of the approach will be identified and the nature of man as viewed by proponents of the approach will be explained. The specific objective that the approach is trying to achieve will also be identified.

2. The process of valuing will be explained as seen in the approach. The nature, source, and fundamental or ultimate values which the approach implies will be set forth.
3. The teaching methods that are used to achieve the specific purpose of the approach will be identified and explained.
4. An instructional model(s), a system(s) of procedures used by teachers to actualize the approach, will be delineated.
5. The roles of the student and the teacher dictated by the approach will be identified and explained.
6. The characteristics of the teaching and learning materials will be identified.
7. An illustrative learning activity, a specific lesson that is designed to actualize one or more aspects of the approach, will be provided.

Inculcation Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the values Inculcation approach is to instill certain desirable and prechosen values into students. Regardless of the particular values being instilled, proponents of this approach perceive that man is a reactor to his environment and society is viewed as the dominant active force operating in his environment. As Superka (1973) noted, "extreme advocates of inculcation tend to perceive society as a system whose needs and goals transcend and even define the needs and goals of individuals" (p. 37).

According to Krathwohl (1964), the central purpose of this approach is to activate the identification/socialization process in order that certain social, political, moral, or cultural values are inculcated in increasing levels of interiorization (attending, valuing, organizing, and characterization of a value system). Students are not encouraged to make free choices, but to act according to pre-specified values (pp. 270 - 274).

A secondary purpose of the Inculcation approach may involve meeting the individual's needs of insecurity and competence, or the need to dominate. For example, inculcated values may set bounds of behaviour for students. By acting within these set bounds, the student's feelings of insecurity and inadequacy may be decreased. By inculcating students with his values, a teacher could meet his need to dominate and might relieve feelings of inadequacy or insecurity.

Valuing and Values. From the point of view taken by the values Inculcation approach, valuing is considered to be a process of identification and socialization. An individual, sometimes unconsciously, is inculcated with the standards or norms of another person, group, or society and, hopefully, incorporates them into his own value system.

Values, from this perspective, are usually conceived to be standards or rules of behaviour whose source is the society or culture. A wide range of values can and have been transmitted through the socialization/identification process. In the political arena, there have been the socialization of autocratic values, ranging from absolute state control to individualism. In the social sphere, the emphasis would be on a fundamental commitment to whatever values best maintain and develop the health and stability of society and foster the adjustment of individuals to that society. In the personal or moral realms, standards of behaviour such as honesty or charity can be internalized through the socialization process.

Although values may change, they are sometimes considered to be universal and absolute. The traditional Western churches' concept of values having their source in God would be one example of this orientation. Some social studies educators, such as Oliver and Shaver (1966), have expressed a similar position.

For us the most basic values of the (American) Creed, as they relate to the function of the school in society, are to be treated as more than psychological facts. They describe certain potentially universal characteristics of man, which, at least from our particular cultural frame of reference, make him "human" --such as a quest for self-respect, a sense of sympathy and love, a concern for fairness and justice in his dealings with others. (p. 26)

Teaching Methods. Joyce and Weil (1972) and Superka (1975) have identified a variety of teaching methods that can be used to accomplish the goal of inculcating values. Several examples include explanation, manipulation, positive and negative reinforcement and modeling. These methods can be used separately or in combination with one another to inculcate specific values or to modify a behaviour.

Perhaps the most common method used for inculcation is explanation. Teachers very often simply tell students what they should believe and how they should behave. Explanations or threats are given to promote and justify, to the students, why certain values or behaviours are appropriate.

The manipulation method consists of the teacher manipulating the environment or the experiences to which the students are exposed. Often techniques such as role playing or games and simulations are used. This manipulation takes place to promote certain value outcomes.

One of the most widely used and, according to Superka, the most effective method for inculcation is positive and negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement includes such actions as a teacher praising a student for behaving in accordance with a particular value. Negative reinforcement includes actions such as the teacher punishing a student for behaving contrary to a certain desirable value. It is assumed that when students are punished for infractions of rules and praised for obedience they will take on the values associated with the desired behaviour. It is very difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to avoid some form of reinforcement. Often merely a gesture, smile or frown will tend to reinforce certain values. Reinforcement, however, can be applied in a conscious and systematic fashion, as it is in behaviour modification.

Behavioural modification requires that the teacher analyze a given situation to determine the goals and purposes of activities and the appropriate methods needed to produce a desired behavioural change. Various techniques are used to achieve desired value outcomes. The most widely used technique involves the use of "tokens". Students are provided with "tokens", such as play money, time off from class, or grade points for doing desirable tasks such as helping other students, remaining quiet in class or completing an assignment.

Modeling is another effective method of inculcating values in students. Students are given examples of exemplary behaviour and desirable values and encouraged to duplicate the models. Instances of modeling behaviour may be drawn from history, literature, legends or, more directly, from examples set by teachers and students. The teacher is a model, in many cases, simply by personifying in the classroom whatever values he holds such as punctuality, enthusiasm for learning, or caring for others. Students often assume modeling roles, setting both positive and negative examples. When a teacher asks a student to read his or her essay to the class, the student is assuming a positive modeling role. The student's work is being singled out as an example to be followed by other students. The praise and recognition the student receives for his work instill in other students the desire to produce similar essays and may inculcate the values of learning and hard work.

Students can be negative models as well, such as when a teacher asks a poorer student to read his or her essay to the class. The student's work is being singled out as an example not to be followed by

other students. The criticism and embarrassment the student receives for his work instill in other students the desire to or fear to produce better essays and may inculcate the values of learning and hard work.

Instructional Model. A systematic approach to the inculcation of values is possible. Superka, Johnson, and Ahrens (1975) developed a rigorous and detailed instructional model for teaching values using the Inculcation approach. The authors combined the taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain developed by Krathwohl (1964) with a system of behaviour modification adapted from Sulzer and Mayer (1972). The resulting synthesis is outlined below.

- 1) Determine the value to be inculcated -- choose the value to be instilled in the students (perhaps in cooperation with students and parents)
- 2) Identify the level of internalization desired -- select the degree of internalization that will be sought:
 - a) RECEIVING
 - (1) Awareness -- learner (or valuer) takes into account that a phenomenon exists
 - (2) Willingness to receive -- learner is willing to listen to stimulus
 - (3) Controlled or selected attention -- learner selects and responds to favored stimuli
 - b) RESPONDING
 - (1) Acquiescence in responding -- learner complies with requirements
 - (2) Willingness to respond -- learner volunteers to exhibit an expected behaviour
 - (3) Satisfaction in response -- learner's reaction is associated with enjoyment
 - c) VALUING
 - (1) Acceptance of a value -- learner's response shows consistent identification with a class or phenomena
 - (2) Preference for a value -- learner seeks out a particular value because he is committed to it
 - (3) Commitment -- learner displays conviction or loyalty to a cause
 - d) ORGANIZATION
 - (1) Conceptualization of a value -- learner begins to relate one value to other values by means of analysis and synthesis
 - (2) Organization of a value system -- learner begins to integrate a complex of values into an ordered relationship

- e) CHARACTERIZATION BY A VALUE OR A VALUE COMPLEX
- (1) Generalized set -- learner orders the world around himself with a consistent and stable frame of reference
 - (2) Characterization -- learner formulates a code of conduct and a value system and they are completely internalized
- 3) Specify the behavioural goal -- specify the behaviour and the level of performance required to indicate attainment of the value at the particular level of internalization: this behaviour could be in the form of an overt action (such as working for a political candidate) or a certain response to an item on a value or attitude questionnaire.
 - 4) Select an appropriate method -- choose a procedure appropriate to the type of behavioural change desired:
 - a) Increase a behaviour -- positive reinforcement, provision of a model, removal of interfering conditions, games and simulation, role playing
 - b) Teach a new behaviour -- shaping, chaining, response differentiation, games and simulation, role playing
 - c) Maintain a behaviour -- one or more of several schedules of intermittent reinforcement
 - d) Reduce or eliminate undesirable behaviour -- withdrawal of reinforcement, punishment, stimulus change
 - 5) Implement the method:
 - a) Determine the baseline by measuring the dependent behaviour (the behaviour that is to be changed) before applying the inculcation method.
 - b) Apply the method and measure and record the change
 - c) Conduct a probe to determine what factor was responsible for the behavioural change by not applying the behavioural procedures for several days
 - d) Reapply the behavioural procedures
 - e) Maintain the behavioural change
 - 6) Graph and communicate the results -- collate the recorded data, graph the data, make inferences concerning internalization of values, and communicate the results to appropriate persons. (Superka, et.al. pp. 10 - 12)

Roles of Student and Teacher. From the perspective taken in the

Inculcation approach, it is intended that students take a passive learning role. Students are to follow the teacher's instructions, answer the questions and modify their behaviour, acting in accordance with pre-specified values. In this approach students rarely, if ever, are allowed to make free value choices or to initiate learning activities.

57

The teacher's role is that of leader and initiator of learning experiences. He structures and manages classroom activities, and acts as questioner and clarifier of students values with the intent of inculcating a specific set of values. These values, however, are not always established by the teacher. Developers of instructional materials using the Inculcation approach frequently have already made the educational decisions related to values and thus explicitly dictate the role of the teacher. Simpson, for example, in his textbook Becoming Aware of Values: A Resource Guide in the Use of Value Games (1972), outlines the role that the teacher must take.

Value Category

Role of the Teacher

Affection

Provide a climate supporting acceptance, trust, emotional security, love congeniality, friendship, and intimacy.

Respect

Provide an atmosphere in which each individual may achieve identity, a recognized social role, and self-esteem without fear of undeserved deprivation or penalties from others.

Skill

Provide opportunities for each student to develop his/her talents to the limits of his/her potential.

Enlightenment

Provide experiences for awareness and openness and encourage students to find their own truth in every issue without losing sight of their social norms and the significant events of human achievement.

Power

Provide situations in which the student will have opportunities to participate in making important decisions and to exert informal influence according to his/her talents and responsibilities.

Wealth	Provide facilities, materials, and services to promote excellent learning while guiding the student to produce wealth in the form of materials and services to himself/herself.
Well-being	Provide resource and interpersonal relationships which nurture the physical and mental health of each student.
Rectitude	Provide experiences enabling the student to develop a sense of responsibility for his/her own behaviour, consideration for others, and a high sense of integrity. (pp. 14 - 15)

Characteristic of Materials. Materials embodying the Inculcation approach usually contain a combination of both modeling and reinforcement. Texts usually draw examples of exemplary behaviour and desirable values from many sources such as the Bible, literature, legends, and particularly history. Combined with modeling, reinforcement is usually provided within the text of the story or article. Characters who behave in an exemplary fashion are usually rewarded for their actions, thus providing positive reinforcement. On the other hand, characters who adopt negative behaviours are always punished, thus providing negative reinforcement.

Questions and discussion sessions related to the story or article usually re-emphasize the positive modeling behaviour and give explanations as to why such behaviour should be followed. Activities such as role-playing, games and simulations are often used as alternative methods of re-emphasizing the positive values and behaviour.

Illustrative Learning Activity. The Human Values Series developed by Arnsperger, Brill and Rucker (1967) uses Laswell's (1948) eight universal values as a basis for their values inculcation program. In the Teacher's Edition of Values to Learn, specific introductory activities are outlined:

1. The teacher encourages a class discussion by asking students to give examples from their own experiences of thoughtless actions which have caused damage to property of others. (manipulation)
2. The teacher points out to the students that such thoughtless actions may produce temporary enjoyment but no lasting enjoyment can result from a thoughtless action which damages property of another person. (explanation)
3. The teacher points out to the students that thoughtless action may prove to be expensive and dangerous. (explanation)
4. The teacher points out to the students that a person must make amends when he realizes that his thoughtlessness has caused damage. (explanation)
5. The teacher directs the students to read the story "The Big Splash" (pp. 24 - 25).

The Big Splash

The big fort made of wood blocks was almost complete in Ralph's room. Ralph and Scotty were sure that it would keep out the enemy's army. But then it tumbled down. The two boys sat looking at the ruins.

"What went wrong?", asked Ralph.

Scotty looked closely at the fallen blocks. He picked up one of them. "Here it is", he said. "One side of this block is broken."

"I remember now", Ralph said. "It's been broken for a long time. Let's throw it away."

Ralph took the broken block to the window.

Scotty followed him. Both boys stood looking at Mrs. Ronson's fishpond next door.

"I'll make a splash in the pond with this!" cried Ralph. He threw the broken block. The water in the pool splashed high in the sunshine.

"That's fine!" shouted Scotty. "Let's throw some more."

"We'd better not, Scotty," Ralph said. "I don't want to ruin my good blocks. But wait, I have a better idea. Why don't we use those rocks in the front yard that Dad brought to put around the flower beds? They'll splash a lot better than wood blocks, anyway."

The boys ran quickly down the stairs, and Ralph took a pail from the kitchen. Soon they were in the front yard filling the pail from the pile of rocks. Then they carried the pail up to Ralph's room and set it down just inside the open window.

"I'll throw first!" cried Scotty.

Ralph didn't object. He knew that there were plenty of rocks.

For a few minutes the boys watched several large fish swimming in the pond. Then Scotty threw his rock. It went over the pond and landed with a THUMP on the lawn.

Ralph laughed, "Let the expert throw now."

Ralph's rock struck the water - SPLASH! The rock was much better than the wood block. How the water splashed! How the frightened fish darted about the pool!

The rocks were gone quickly. Ralph and Scotty ran downstairs again to the rockpile. Soon they were back at the window and had thrown away all the rocks except two large ones.

"Let's throw these at the same time," Ralph said.

"What a splash they'll make! One, two, THREE!" cried Ralph.

The rocks flew down and struck the pond together. Water splashed, and the boys saw a bright flash. One of the goldfish had been thrown out of the water.

"Quick, let's fill another pail." Ralph said.

As the boys ran out of the house again, Ralph's mother drove up. Mrs. Ronson, who lived next door, was riding with her.

"Ralph, what are you doing with that pail?" asked his mother as she got out of the car.

Ralph answered, "Oh, nothing much."

"Thanks for the ride." Mrs. Ronson was saying "I was out of food for my fish. Guess I'd better hurry and give them lunch." Mrs. Ronson started into her yard, and Ralph and Scotty looked at each other.

"Guess I'll go home." Scotty said, and he scooted down the sidewalk.

Ralph took the pail and put it down quietly in the kitchen. Then he tiptoes upstairs to his room. A moment later he heard Mrs. Ronson talking with his mother downstairs. Her

voice was loud. Ralph could tell that she was angry. He heard her tell about the rocks in the pond.

A moment later Ralph heard his mother call, "Ralph, come down here."

Mrs. Ronson had already gone when Ralph got downstairs. His mother took him by the arm. "Now, you march right over and take those rocks out of the pond," she commanded.

"Scotty did part of it," cried Ralph. "He ought to help."

"Wait a moment," said his mother. She went to the phone and called Scotty's mother, telling her what the boys had done. "Scotty will be right over," she told her son as she hung up the phone.

When Scotty arrived, the boys were put to work. It was no fun at all picking wet rocks out of the pool. And as soon as they had removed the rocks, Ralph's mother put them to work weeding Mrs. Ronson's flower beds.

"We didn't hurt those old flower beds," Ralph whined.

"No, I know you didn't," his mother replied. "But you brave boys killed several of Mrs. Ronson's fish. I think that a few hours of work in the flower beds might pay for them."

It was almost dark when the two tired boys finished weeding the last flower bed. But no one came out to tell them what a good job they had done.

Scotty looked down at the blisters on his hands and groaned. Then he left without saying a word.

Ralph didn't say anything either. He started walking toward his house slowly. He knew that his parents were waiting to talk to him. (pp. 26 - 31)

The authors suggest follow-up activities. The teacher should re-read the story with the students; identify the values involved, and explain and discuss the following:

The fact that Ralph and Scotty played together indicated that they were friends (shared affection). When Ralph threw the broken block into Mrs. Ronson's fishpond, he did not mean to do wrong (deprive himself of rectitude). He only wanted to have fun (well-being indulgence). However, he did not want to deprive himself of wealth by damaging good blocks.

He decided (power indulgence) that it would be better to throw some of the rocks (wealth) his father had collected into the pool. He did not realize that he was depriving both his father and Mrs. Ronson of wealth. The collection of rocks was a type of wealth to Ralph's father and goldfish were wealth to Mrs. Ronson. In his search for amusement (well-being), he failed to consider how his actions would affect others. Thus he deprived himself of rectitude.

Scotty, in going along with Ralph's plan, also deprived himself of rectitude.

The boys developed their skill of accurate throwing, but they failed to consider that the rocks might kill the fish and damage the pond.

When the boys saw Ralph's mother and Mrs. Ronson coming home, they began to realize that what they had done was wrong. At this point in the story, the actions of the boys indicated that they felt guilty.

Ralph could tell that this mother was angry with him. She temporarily withheld affection and respect from him.

Ralph and Scotty both were deprived of well-being temporarily by their mothers. They restored their statuses in rectitude and self-respect by cleaning out the fishpond and Mrs. Ronson's flower beds.

The boys gained enlightenment when they learned by experience that values would be withheld from them when they withheld values from others. (pp. 32 - 33)

The illustrative learning activity exemplifies how the Inculcation approach very often combines the various teaching methods - explanations, manipulation, positive and negative reinforcements, and modeling - into one learning activity. This activity also demonstrates how a lesson can be designed to inculcate particular values in students and to encourage them to adopt them as their own.

Moral Development Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Moral Development approach to values education is primarily to stimulate and assist students in advancing their powers of moral reasoning through a series of increasingly advanced and complex stages. Kohlberg, perhaps the leading proponent of this approach, sees its purpose not as the increasing of students' knowledge of cultural values nor as the instilling of an external value in students, but rather as the encouraging of value patterns towards which the students are already tending (Kohlberg, 1966, p. 19).

Proponents of the Moral Development approach perceive of man as an active initiator. An individual cannot fully change the environment, but neither can the environment fully mold the individual. Although the environment can determine the content of one's experiences, it cannot determine its form. "Genetic structures already inside the person are primarily responsible for the way in which a person internalizes that content, and organizes and transforms it into personally meaningful data" (Superka, 1975, p. 19).

The foundation for the moral development approach was laid by Piaget (1965) and refined and extended by Kohlberg. Within the Moral Development approach, Kohlberg sees moral reasoning as a developmental process over a period of time. As described in Chapter 2, he identifies three levels and six stages of development. The concept of stages of moral development refers to the structure of one's reasoning and implies the following set of characteristics:

1. Stages are "structured wholes", or organized systems of thought. This means individuals are consistent in level of moral judgment.
2. Stages form an invariant sequence. Under all conditions except extreme trauma, movement is always forward, never backward. Individuals never skip stages; movement is always to the next stage up. This is true in all cultures.
3. Stages are "hierarchical integrations". Thinking at a higher stage includes or comprehends within it lower-stage thinking. There is a tendency to function at or prefer the highest stage available. (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1976, p. 116).

A main tenet of the Moral Development approach is that students are attracted to higher levels of reasoning. When a student is presented with arguments both for and against a course of action, the level of the argument determines its effect. Although students at

higher levels can influence the reasoning of those at lower stages, the reverse is not true. Research findings (Turiel, 1973; Blatt, 1969) indicate that students will reject judgements below their own level as inadequate ways of thinking, but will understand and prefer judgements made from the point of view of one level of development higher than their own. The more specific purpose, then, of the Moral Development approach is to create situations in which students are confronted with and interact with instructional materials and other students at a higher stage, in the hope that they will be lifted into that higher stage of "moral development".

Valuing and Values. The Moral Development approach, in contrast to the other six approaches, does not conceptualize a specific process of valuing. It is more concerned with how value judgements are made, rather than why they are made or which judgements should be made. How persons develop values would depend, according to this approach, upon their level or stage of moral development. From this perspective, the common valuing activity is the process of developing more complex moral reasoning patterns through the series of successive stages.

In examining the Moral Development approach, Superka (1973) was unable to find a specific definition for the term "values".

One senses, on the one hand, that they (the moral development authors) would accept the conception of values of any of several other valuing theories ... on the other hand, (there is) some indication - particularly from the content of the tests used in research - that they view values as cognitive moral concepts or beliefs. At any rate, they do seem less concerned with values per se than with the kind of moral reasoning involved in perceiving those values. (p. 59)

From this perspective, when one examines a value or moral concept, the value seems to become quantitatively different from stage to stage. For example, when one examines Kohlberg's six-stage interpretation of the 'value of human life', persons are conceived to hold this value, but for different moral reasons, at each of the six stages. In stage 1, human life is valued because of the physical or social attributes of its possessor. In stage 3, empathy and affection of family members are the bases for holding the value of human life. In stage 6, human life is valued because it is part of the universal value of respect for the individual. One might, therefore, consider the different moral reasons given for holding the value of human life as the "real", core values. The values for stage 1, then, could be social status, for stage 3, empathy and affection for family and, for stage 6, respect for the idea of the individual.

Kohlberg has often affirmed that justice, fairness, equality and a sense of human rights are at the core of moral development. The highest stages of reasoning involve the ability and disposition to make value judgements on the basis of universal principles of justice, that is, "universal modes of choosing which we wish all men to apply to all situations which represent morally, self-justifying reasons for action" (Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971, p. 447).

Teaching Methods. The most characteristic method used to stimulate moral development has been the use of moral dilemmas. Moral dilemmas are those situations in which values conflict, where claims can be made for several choices and where each choice is made at the price of another. Students are asked to think about how the dilemmas should be

resolved, to identify the moral issues involved, and to offer reasons justifying their positions.

The technique most often used to present these moral dilemmas has been the classroom discussion. During the discussion, the teacher encourages students to comment on and challenge each other's reasoning. The main focus is on the students' reasoning rather than the particular choices they make in a dilemma. Kohlberg has identified several conditions which appear to be important in conducting discussions on moral dilemmas in the classroom. They are:

1. Knowledge of the child's stage of functioning.
(Understanding the meaning of the moral judgements made by the child.)
2. Exposing the child to reasoning one stage above the child's own thoughts.
3. Exposing children to problematic situations which pose genuine moral conflicts and disagreement.
(Posing problems and contradictions for the child's current moral structure will lead the child to be dissatisfied with his/her current level.)
4. Creating an atmosphere of interchange and dialogue in which conflicting moral views are compared in an open manner. (The teacher's task here is to help the child see inconsistencies and inadequacies in his/her way of thinking and find ways to resolve such inconsistencies and inadequacies.)
(Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971, p. 461)

Moral dilemmas can also be presented in the form of role-playing exercises, skits, or simulations.

Some additional methods have been suggested by Frank Simon (1976) and Robert Craig (1976). Simon states that the elementary teacher who instructs children at Kohlberg's pre-conventional level should employ motivational activities which appeal to and develop the child's desire for social approval and acceptance. He suggests that children be rewarded (non-materially) for behaviour which indicates assuming responsibility, working well with others, and respecting the

rights of others. The use of punishment is discouraged since it appeals to the lowest stages of development.

Craig urges a method which allows students as much freedom as possible in making decisions. To enable students to develop a sense of justice and reciprocity, he advocates that students help make decisions about classroom procedures and regulations. Here, Craig emphasizes, it is important that students recognize the distinction between procedural rules and moral rules. Finally, he claims that there needs to be a general consistency in the administration of school and classroom regulations.

Instructional Model. While working with the Carnegie-Mellon/Harvard Values Education Project, Jones and Galbraith (1974) created an instructional model for teaching moral development using moral dilemmas. The following instructional model was adapted by Superka, Johnson and Ahrens (1975) from Jones and Galbraith's work and summarized as follows:

- 1) Confronting a moral dilemma
 - a) introduce the dilemma
 - b) help students to define the terms used in the dilemma
 - c) state the nature of the dilemma
- 2) Stating a position on the original or alternative dilemma
 - a) help students establish their individual positions on the action
 - b) establish the class response to the position on the action (if there is not enough conflict, introduce an alternative dilemma)
 - c) help students establish the reasons for their individual positions
- 3) Testing the reasoning for a position on the moral dilemma
 - a) select an appropriate strategy for grouping the students (small groups of students who agree on the action but for different reasons or small groups of students who do not agree on the action)
 - b) help students examine individual reasons with the group or class

- c) ask probe questions to elicit additional reasoning about the moral problem or a similar one or that focus on a particular issue involved in the dilemma
 - d) examine reasons as they relate to the probe questions
4. Reasoning on the reasoning
- a) ask students to summarize the different reasons they have
 - b) encourage the students to choose the reason which they feel represents the best response to the moral dilemma
 - c) ask students if they believe there is a best answer for this problem
 - d) add any additional reasoning which did not occur from student discussions; these should be added not as the "best" reasons but as additional reasons to ponder (p. 20)

Roles of Student and Teacher. In the model just described, students are to take an active learning role. They are to be actively involved in the classroom environment, making decisions and expressing their opinions. Students are required, however, to go beyond the mere sharing of opinions and information. They must reveal their thoughts concerning their basic beliefs.

Self-reflection is a prime requisite of the Moral Development approach. This self-reflection is stimulated by three types of student dialogue: (1) student dialogue with teacher, (2) student dialogue with other students, and (3) student dialogue with self. It is the student's dialogue with him/herself that stimulates reflection upon the student's own thinking process. This leads to a re-evaluation of the student's thinking and, thereby, to the development of higher stages of moral reasoning.

Beyer and Barry (1976) examined the teacher's role in moral development dialogues and suggested that the teacher:

1. Establish a supportive, non-judgemental atmosphere. (It is important to recognize the students' right to hold and express views without sanctioning those views as right or justifiable)

2. Seat students so that they can see and hear each other.
3. Listen carefully to what students say.
4. Ask questions which do not threaten students.
5. Encourage student-to-student interaction.
6. Develop discussion skills in students.
7. Keep the class working constructively by using probe questions, alternative dilemmas, or dilemmas which have been used previously.
8. Plan carefully but remain flexible to cope with substantive diversions. (pp. 194 - 195)

The teacher's role in this approach is to initiate activities which would develop teacher-student, student-student, and student-self dialogues. This does not imply that the teacher is the center and controlling force of the classroom. Rather, the teacher enters the classroom with planned activities and acts as a catalyst whereby dialogues leading to moral development may take place.

Characteristics of Materials. Materials embodying the Moral Development approach are usually based on moral issues or dilemmas. A moral dilemma has five general characteristics:

1. It builds upon work in the course. (Dilemmas may be derived from real-life situations in contemporary society, life experiences of students, or course-related content).
2. It should be as simple as possible, having a central character or primary group or characters.
3. It should be open-minded. (There should be no single, obvious, or culturally approved right answer).
4. It should involve two or more issues that have moral implications.
5. It should offer a choice of actions and pose the question, "What should the central character do?" (This should help the students to engage in moral reasoning about the conflict presented in the dilemma) (Beyer and Barry, 1976, pp. 198)

Dilemmas can be presented in a variety of ways. These include written or oral forms, films, recordings, sound-film-strips, or stories and historical documents. Kohlberg (1976) has suggested that moral dilemma topics should be centered around the following ten universal

moral issues:

1. Punishment
2. Property
3. Roles and concerns of affection
4. Roles and concerns for authority
5. Law
6. Life
7. Liberty
8. Distributive justice
9. Truth
10. Sex

(p. 22)

Illustrative Learning Activity. Moral Reasoning developed by Galbraith and Jones translates Kohlberg's moral development approach into practical activities.

Introductory Activity.

1. The teacher distributes the handout "The Ticket Scheme" to the class. The story is read and the teacher makes sure the students understand the terminology and the nature of the dilemma. (p. 127)

The Ticket Scheme

One of the boys at the hotel whispered to me one night that the only local Negro movie house wanted a boy to take tickets at the door.

"You ain't never been in jail, is you?" he asked me.

"Not yet," I answered.

"Then you can get the job," he said. "I'd take it, but I done six months and they know me."

"What's the catch?"

"The girl who sells tickets is using a system," he explained. "If you get the job, you can make some good gravy."

If I stole, I would have a change to head northward quickly; if I remained barely honest ... I merely prolonged my stay, increased my chances of being caught, exposed myself to the possibility of saying the wrong word or doing the wrong thing and paying a penalty that I dared not think of. The temptation to venture into crime was too strong, and I decided to work quickly,

taking whatever was in sight... I knew that others had tried it before me and had failed but I was hoping to be lucky.

My chances for getting the job were good; I had no past record of stealing or violating the laws. When I presented myself to the Jewish proprietor of the movie house I was immediately accepted. The next day I reported for duty and began taking tickets. The boss man warned me:

"Now, look, I'll be honest with you if you'll be honest with me. I don't know who's honest around this joint and who isn't. But if you are honest, then the rest are bound to be. All tickets will pass through your hands. There can be no stealing unless you steal."

I gave him a pledge of my honesty, feeling absolutely no qualms about what I intended to do. He was white, and I could never do to him what he and his kind had done to me. Therefore, I reasoned, stealing was not of a violation of my ethics of but of his ...

During the first afternoon the Negro girl in the ticket office watched me closely and I knew that she was sizing me up, trying to determine when it would be safe to break me into her graft. I waited, leaving it to her to make the first move.

I was supposed to drop each ticket that I took from a customer into a metal receptacle. Occasionally the boss would go to the ticket window and look at the serial number with the number on the last ticket I had dropped into the receptacle. The boss continued his watchfulness for a few days, then he began to observe me from across the street; finally he absented himself for long intervals.

A tension as high as that I had known when the white men had driven me from the job at the optician's returned to live in me. But I had learned to master a great deal of tension now ...

While I was eating supper in a nearby cafe one night, a strange Negro man walked in and sat beside me.

"Hello, Richard," he said.

"Hello," I said. "I don't think I know you."

"But I know you," he said smiling.

Was he one of the boss's spies?

"How do you know me?" I asked.

"I'm Tel's friend," he said, naming the girl who sold tickets at the movie.

I looked at him searchingly. Was he telling me the truth? Or was he trying to trap me for the boss? I was already thinking and feeling like a criminal, distrusting everybody.

"We start tonight," he said.

"What?" I asked, still not admitting that I knew what he was talking about.

"Don't be scared. The boss trusts you. He's gone to see some friends. Somebody's watching him and if he starts back to the movie, they'll phone us," he said.

I could not eat my food.

"It'll work this way," he explained in a low smooth voice. "A guy'll come to you and ask for a match. You give him five tickets that you'll hold out of the box, see? We'll give you the signal when to start holding out. The guy'll give the tickets to Tel: she'll resell them all at once, when a crowd is buying at the rush hour. You get it?"

I DID NOT ANSWER. I knew that if I were caught I would go to a chain gang. But was not my life already a kind of chain gang? What, really, did I have to lose?

"Are you with us?" he asked.

I still did not answer. He rose and clapped me on the shoulder and left. I trembled as I went back to the theatre. Anything might happen, but I was used to that... Had I not felt it when I walked home from the optical company that morning with my job gone? ... Had I not felt it all a million times before? I took the tickets with sweaty fingers. I waited. I was gambling; freedom or the chain gang. There were times when I felt that I could not breathe. I looked up and down the street; the boss was not in sight. Was this a trap?

The man I had met in the cafe came through the door and put a ticket in my hand.

"There's a crowd at the box office," he whispered. "Save ten, not five. Start with this one."

Should Richard join the ticket scheme to gain money to go North? (pp. 122-126)

Follow-up Activity.

1. If the class agrees that Richard SHOULD participate in the scheme, choose one of the following alternative dilemmas to provoke disagreement.
 - A. Suppose the owner of the theatre has promised Richard a good raise if he works out well in the first month. Should that make a difference in the decision that Richard makes?
 - B. The owner of the theatre has helped Wright's family in the past. Should that make a difference in the decision that Richard makes?

- 2. If the class agrees that Richard SHOULD NOT participate in the scheme, choose one of the following alternatives to provoke disagreement.
 - A. The owner has a policy of charging Blacks more than he does the Whites for admission to the theatre. Should this make a difference in Wright's decision?
 - B. Richard's family needs money to help with some medical bills for his mother who is seriously ill? Should this influence Richard's decision? (pp. 127-128)
- 3. Probing questions for the teacher to ask:
 - A. What obligation does Richard have to the theatre owner?
 - B. Should Richard consider that he has made a pledge to the theatre owner?
 - C. From the point of view of his family, what should Richard do?
 - D. From the point of view of the customers, what should Richard do?
 - E. What is the importance of property rights?
 - F. Should the fact that Richard has experienced much discrimination at the hands of Whites make any difference in his decision? Why?
 - G. Is it ever right to break the law? (pp. 128 - 129)

The dilemma presented in this learning activity contains the five characteristics that are common to most moral development texts:

- 1. a real-life situation
- 2. one central character
- 3. open-ended in nature
- 4. involving two or more issues
- 5. a choice of actions

The lesson also demonstrates how learning materials can be designed so that students are required to confront a dilemma, and to take a stand on the issue involved. By considering the alternative dilemmas, they are required to reflect upon their reasons for a particular stand. This reflection upon their reasoning is where the main learning takes place and where, hopefully, the student will rise to a higher stage of moral reasoning.

Analysis Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Analysis approach to values education is to help students develop logical thinking and to use scientific inquiry procedures in solving value issues. In addition, this approach attempts to help students develop their own values in relationship to value conflicts within society.

According to Superka (1975), the Analysis approach views man as a rational being in the world who can attain the highest good by subordinating his feelings and passions to logic and the scientific method. Only by suppressing his feelings can he resolve value issues according to logic and science. "The philosophical basis for the analysis approach ... seems to be a fusion of the rationalist and empiricist view of human nature" (pp. 24 - 25).

From the perspective used in the Analysis approach, our society is seen as free, democratic and consisting of a plurality of active groups. Oliver and Shaver (1966) have postulated that this plurality is necessary because:

... it is the only natural mechanism that can insure some freedom of choice. Pluralism, as we are using the term, implies the existence of not only different political partisan groups within the society, but of various sub-cultures that claim the mutual respect of one another, at least to the extent that there is free communication among them. (p. 10)

In other words, Oliver and Shaver envision a democratic society as requiring a multiplicity of positions with respect to the important issues in society. Groups which support these various positions must be able to negotiate with one another, rather than confront one another.

The rationale of the Analysis approach involves, therefore, the development of logical thinking and the use of the scientific method so that students can participate in the resolution of the open conflicts between various groups in society. Such a resolution of differences is seen as essential to the continued existence of a free and democratic society.

More specific purposes of the Analysis approach have been outlined by Coombs (1971):

1. Teaching students to rate a value object in a particular way.
2. Helping students to make the most rational judgment they can make about the value object in question.
3. Teaching students to make rational value judgments.
4. Teaching students how to operate as members of a group attempting to come to a common value judgment about some value object. (p. 19)

Valuing and Values. As can be seen above, the Analysis approach conceives of valuing primarily as cognitive or as intellectual inquiry into the goodness or worth of phenomena. Bond (1971) noted that proponents of this approach stress that valuing is "guided not by the dictates of heart and conscience, but by the rules and procedures of logic" (p. 81). The valuing process therefore involves the rigorous application of logic and scientific procedure to an issue.

Valuing and value judgments, therefore, are subject to the tests of logic and truth as much as any other aspect of the real world. Coombs (1971) specified the standards which a value judgment must meet to qualify as being rational and defensible.

1. The purported facts supporting the judgment must be true or well confirmed.
2. The facts must be genuinely relevant, i.e., they must actually have relevance for the person making the judgment.

3. Other things being equal, the greater the range of relevant facts taken into account in making the judgment, the more adequate the judgment is likely to be.
4. The value principle implied by the judgment must be acceptable to the person making the judgment. (p. 20).

Values are based on facts, and as such are verifiable.

Most authors who support the Analysis approach point to survival as the ultimate value, and to constant, rigorous use of reason in the world as the best means to achieve it. Other proponents such as Oliver and Shaver (1966) hold that human dignity is the fundamental value of our society against which all other social values must be measured, "... the multiplicity of purposes in American society can be summarized in one very abstract phrase: to promote the dignity of each individual that lives in society" (p. 10).

Although human dignity is considered to be the most fundamental value of all, Oliver and Shaver prescribe other basic values, called "creed values", to be respected and applied as standards in making value judgments. These include such values as the quest for self-respect, a sense of sympathy and love, a concern for fairness and justice, majority rule and due process. They see the "creed values" as helping to define and suggest means of achieving the more basic value of human dignity (pp. 23 - 28).

The Analysis approach is usually applied to issues involving public policy or social values rather than issues involving personal values. This approach does not focus explicitly on moral issues; however, statements are presumed to be factual statements and thus subject to empirical study.

Teaching Methods. The teaching methods most frequently used in the Analysis approach are: individual and group study of social value problems and issues, library and field research, recitation, and Socratic and seminar class discussions. All of these make use of common teaching techniques in analyzing various social issues like stating or clarifying the issue, questioning or substantiating the relevance of statements, applying analogous cases to qualify and refine value positions, pointing out logical and empirical inconsistencies in arguments, weighing counter arguments and seeking and testing evidence (Newman and Oliver, 1970; pp. 293 - 296).

Instructional Models. There appears to be no single sanctioned instructional model used in teaching value analysis. Rather, several prominent models are frequently used. Most notable are the Reflective - Value Analysis model of Hunt and Metcalf (1968), the Columbia Associates model of Massialas and Cox (1966), the Jurisprudential model of Oliver and Shaver (1966) and Shaver and Larkins (1973), and the Value Inquiry model of Banks and Clegg (1977).

The curriculum model of Hilda Taba (1973) could be included here as it does have an analysis component. However, its rationale and purpose do not fit easily into the analysis approach. Its major emphasis lies in helping students to use categories, thus helping them to improve their ability to categorize. In addition, Taba had specific values in mind that she wished to inculcate in students such as "the capacity to identify with people in different cultures", "self-security", "open-mindedness", "acceptance of changes", "tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity", and "responsiveness to democratic and human values" (Hunt and Metcalf, 1968, p. 134).

The Reflective - Value Analysis model of Hunt and Metcalf emphasizes the analysis of value concepts and the consideration of consequences of value alternatives. Using this model, the students must define value concepts, predict consequences, appraise them using set criteria, and attempt to justify the criteria used. A summary of their model is presented below:

Reflective-Value Analysis Model

- I. What is the nature of the object, event, or policy to be evaluated? This question plainly poses a task in concept analysis. If the students are trying to evaluate the welfare state, they should define this object as precisely and clearly as possible.
 - A. How is the welfare state to be defined intentionally and extensively? By what criteria is it to be defined intentionally?
 - B. If students disagree over criteria, and therefore in their definition of welfare state, how is this disagreement to be treated? Must they agree? Can they agree to disagree? Are there criteria by which welfare state ought to be defined? On what basis can we select among different sets of criteria?
- II. The consequences problem.
 - A. What consequences can be expected or anticipated from the policy in question? Is it true, as some have claimed, that the growth of the welfare state destroys individual incentive? How does one get evidence for answering this kind of question?
 - B. If students disagree in their projection of consequences, how is this difference to be treated? Can evidence produce agreement? What is the difference between a disagreement over criteria and a disagreement over evidence?
- III. Appraisal of consequences.
 - A. Are the projected consequences desirable or not?
 - B. By what criteria are the consequences to be appraised? How do different criteria affect one's appraisal of consequences?
- IV. Justification of criteria.
 - A. Can criteria for appraising consequences be justified? How?
 - B. If students disagree on criteria, and therefore in their appraisal of consequences, how can

this difference be treated? What relationship ought to exist between one's criteria and one's basic philosophy of life?

- C. Are students consistent in their use of criteria?
(Hunt and Metcalf, 1968, p. 134)

The Columbia Associates model of Massialas and Cox (1966) assumes that social issues can be resolved only when a dissenting group of students can identify the basic value involved. When the students have reached agreement on a high-level value, the issue in conflict can be considered in terms of whether it leads to consequences consistent with that value. A scientific method of inquiry can be used to determine which course of action will most likely result in the realization of the higher-level value accepted by the students (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 412 - 413). The authors have summarized their decision-making model by using an example:

Columbia Associates Model

1. What value judgment is made regarding the occupation of persons in the United States?

Given value judgment:

White persons, particularly white Christians, should be given the more skilled jobs, the positions of executive authority in most businesses, high government offices, and professional positions.

2. What opposing value judgment is also made by many persons in the United States which is clearly contradictory to the value judgment given above?
3. If the given judgment were acted upon in the United States, what consequences are predicted in terms of the practices and policies which would be put into effect? What factual consequences would be expected to result if the given value judgment were acted upon?
4. Can you offer any proof that any of the above predictions for the given value judgment would actually take place?

5. If the opposing value judgment were acted upon in the United States, what consequences are predicted in terms of the practices and policies which would be put into effect? What factual consequences would be expected to result if the opposing value judgment were acted upon?
6. Can you offer any proof that any of the above predictions for the opposing value judgement would actually take place?
7. What third value would you propose as being relatively noncontroversial and logically appropriate to use for judging between the given and opposing values?
8. Which of the value judgments, the given or opposing, appears to be more clearly instrumental in achieving the third, relatively noncontroversial value?
9. In a concise statement support your choice of either the given or opposing value by giving the reasons for choosing the one and for rejecting the other.
10. In summary, assuming you have proved your case, state the relationship between the given or opposing value judgment and the third, noncontroversial value in the following formula:
 "If either the given value judgment OR the opposing value judgment - NOT BOTH, then (the third, noncontroversial value) will be achieved."
 (Massailas and Cox, 1966, p. 166)

Oliver, Shaver and Larkins have based their Jurisprudential model on the assumption that public controversy can be resolved through rational discussion. The authors have suggested that public controversial issues involve three components: (1) value issue, (2) a definitional issue and (3) a fact-explanation issue. Strategies which can resolve value issues include: illuminating the relationship between specific and higher order values, determining value conflicts resulting from inconsistencies in personal positions and dealing with incompatible frameworks (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 418 - 420).

The authors have noted the difficulty of conceptualizing their method in terms of an instructional model. However, they have summarized the major intellectual operations as follows:

1. Abstracting General Values from Concrete Situations
2. Using General Value Concepts as Dimensional Constructs
3. Identifying Conflicts Between Value Constructs,
4. Identifying a Class of Value Conflict Situations
5. Discovering or Creating Value Conflict Situations which are Analogous to the Problem under Consideration
6. Working toward a General Qualified Position
7. Testing the Factual Assumptions behind a Qualified Value Position
8. Testing the Relevance of Statements.

(Oliver and Shaver, 1966, p. 166)

The Value-Inquiry model proposed by Banks and Clegg emphasizes the analysis of problem decision-making situations in society. Using this model, students must identify the key concepts of the dispute, recognize values, identify relevant facts, identify and order alternatives and predict consequences (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 433 - 441).

A summary of this model is presented below:

Value-Inquiry Model

1. Defining and recognizing value problems: Observation - discrimination.
2. Describing value-relevant behaviour: Description - discrimination.
3. Naming values exemplified by behaviour described: Identification - description.
4. Determining conflicting values in behaviour described: Identification - analysis.
5. Hypothesizing about sources of values analyzed: Hypothesizing (citing data to support hypothesis)
6. Naming alternative values to those exemplified by behaviour described: Recall
7. Hypothesizing about the possible consequences of the values analyzed: Predicting, comparing, contrasting.
8. Declaring value preferences: Choosing

9. Stating reasons, sources, and possible consequences of value choices; Justifying, hypothesizing, prediction. (Banks and Clegg, 1977, p. 433)

Although each of the models proposed by the above authors differs from the other, each emphasizes the rational analysis of value statements and judgments as well as the resolution of value conflicts. In each of the models students are asked to follow specific steps in their analysis of public or social issues, to come to a decision and to justify that decision.

Roles of Student and Teacher. The Analysis approach requires students to take an active learning role that centers on solving problems of public controversy. This necessitates that students identify types of issues, ask and gather evidence and information, identify inconsistencies in data and in arguments and use and recognize analogies.

Classroom discussions (student - teacher and student - student dialogues) are essential components of this approach. As a result, students are encouraged to listen and respond to different points of view, identify relevant questions and summarize different value positions. They must make decisions and express their opinions.

The teacher's role in this approach is the creation of the proper conditions for the solving of public issues within the classroom. The teacher's major responsibility is to choose appropriate public issues, to provide enough relevant data to begin the discussion process and to construct model analogies from which students may begin to develop their own.

Creating the analogies and guiding the discussion is a complex task for the teacher. Shaver and Oliver (1966) have characterized the

teacher's position in the following way:

The role of the teacher in such a dialogue is complex, requiring that he think on two levels at the same time. He must first know how to handle himself as he challenges the student's position and as his own position is challenged by the student. This is the Socratic role. Second, he must be sensitive to and aware of the general process of clarification or obscuration that takes place as the dialogue unfolds. He must, that is, be able to identify and analyze the complicated strategies being employed by various protagonists to persuade others that a stand is 'reasonable' or 'correct'. Nor is it sufficient for the teacher simply to teach a process of questioning evidence, questioning assumptions or pointing out 'loaded words'. In matters of public policy, factual issues are generally handmaids to ethical or legal stands which cannot be sloughed off as 'only matters of opinion'. Clarification of evaluative and legal issues, then, becomes a central concern. (p. 115)

For vigorous analysis of public issues to take place, the teacher must create a classroom environment which is open and sometimes abrasive. This must, however, be tempered with a good deal of kindness, tolerance and fairness. Individual student's views and opinions are to be equally respected and subjected to scrutiny.

Characteristics of Materials. As with the Moral Development approach, materials embodying the Analysis approach are usually based on moral issues or dilemmas. Issues used have the same five general characteristics as those used for moral development. However, differences exist in that: (1) the issues are always based on social value issues or community problems rather than personal dilemmas and (2) the issues usually embody not only moral or ethical disputes but also factual and definitional (language) disputes.

Textbooks based on the Analysis approach present their issues in the form of short articles and/or stories. Usually a number of these readings are grouped around current topics of public controversy.

Examples include the law and the penal system, the environment, welfare, prejudice and minority rights, foreign policy, women's rights, and the poor.

Questions related to the readings usually direct student to identify the issue, to identify the dispute as ethical, factual or definitional, and to make a decision and justify his/her position. Often questions raise analogies which require students to re-think their initial decisions.

Illustrative Learning Activity. The Analysis of Public

Issues Program developed by Shaver and Larkins (1973) is one of the most comprehensive and detailed Analysis approach programs. The authors developed a kit containing a series of six student topic booklets, transparencies, filmstrips and a large and comprehensive teacher's guide. Following is one small portion of the program that deals with the topic of race relations:

Introductory Activity

1. The teacher distributes the handout "The Lens Grinder" to the class. The story is read and the teacher makes sure that the students understand the terminology.

"The Lens Grinder"

Richard Crane was slightly startled when he saw Mel Jackson standing before his desk.

Mel came straight to the point without waiting for the usual courtesies. "Have you filled the opening for a lens grinder?"

Richard hesitated, then replied, "We haven't made a decision."

Mel snapped impatiently, "Do you intend to hire someone?"

Richard saw that Mel would not let him evade the issue. "Yes, if we can find the right person, we'll hire him."

Mel forced himself to keep his eyes on Richard's face as he asked, "Why wasn't I hired? The job's been open for three weeks. It's been two weeks since you interviewed me. Is there anything lacking in my qualifications?"

There was a note of resignation in Richard's reply. "Three years ago I hired a young Negro as an apprentice in this optical shop. He lasted less than one month. All of my other employees are white and their feelings run strong. They simply made it so uncomfortable for that young man that he left. Put yourself in my shoes. I can't afford to hire you. I'm afraid that hiring a black might ruin what it has taken me fifteen years to build. If it caused my regular customers to take their business elsewhere, or if my skilled white employees were to walk out on me or begin to deliberately turn out inferior work, I'd be finished. Remember that in a free country a man has a right to run his own business as he sees fit. Maybe I'm making a mistake in refusing to hire you, but I have the right to decide who to hire or fire in this company."

Mel's anger was gone. In its place was a familiar dull ache. Before speaking, he slumped in a chair at the side of Richard's desk. His voice was low and tired when he said, "I've been looking for a job for six months. I'm a qualified lens grinder and I need the work. I'm tired of trying to reason with white people. It looks like stronger tactics are called for. I read in the newspaper that your company does a quarter of a million dollars worth of business with the federal government each year. Can you or your white employees afford to lose that business?"

Richard did not reply, so Mel continued. "Your refusal to hire me is a clear case of racial discrimination. I intend to file a complaint charging you with violation of the fair employment practices regulation of the federal government. If you're determined to support your employees' bigotry, I'll see to it that you don't do so with taxpayers' money."

Should the government force Richard Crane to hire Mel Jackson or give up his federal contracts?

(pp. 99 - 100, teacher's guide)

Follow-up Activity.

Recitation Discussion Suggestions

- A. Begin the discussion with some questions to be certain that the students have the case in mind:

1. Who are Richard Crane and Mel Jackson?
 2. Why did Mel come to Richard's office?
 3. What reasons did Richard give for not hiring Mel?
 4. What charges does Mel intend to bring against Richard?
- B. Next, move to identifying the issue or issues posed by the case by asking questions such as:
1. What general political-ethical issue is posed by the case? (Should racial discrimination in employment be allowed?)
 2. What more specific public issue is related to Mel's charges? (Should there be laws forbidding racial discrimination in employment on projects financed with federal tax money? Or, should such a law be enforced?)
- C. Then discuss factual and value questions related to making a decision about the issue:
1. Richard makes some factual claims concerning what might happen to his business if he hires Mel. What are they? (His employees may leave him. His customers may take their business elsewhere. His employees may deliberately begin to turn out inferior products.)
 2. What experience has Richard had with hiring blacks which bears upon the above factual claims? (He hired a black apprentice who was "run off" the job by the white employees.)
 3. How has this affected his frame of reference?
 4. How have Mel's experiences affected his frame of reference?
 5. Suppose that Richard wanted to hire Mel. What factual claim could he make that might cause his employees to agree to the hiring? (If Mel is not hired, the federal contract is likely to be withdrawn and several of the white workers will be laid off.)
 6. Suppose that a person opposed the laws forbidding racial discrimination in employment on federally-financed projects. He might claim that, in the long run, undesirable consequences will follow from enforcing such laws. What are some factual claims that he might make about these consequences? (Employers would no longer hire people on the basis of merit. If two people were competing for the same job, an employer would hire the Negro, even if he were less qualified, rather than face a charge of racial discrimination.)
 7. Suppose that a person who favored the laws forbidding racial discrimination in employment

on federally-financed projects claimed that, in the long run, desirable consequences would follow from enforcing such a law. What are some factual claims that he might make about these consequences? (Black talent, which is now being wasted, would be put to constructive use. The economic condition of blacks would eventually improve. Racial prejudice would lessen as blacks and whites learned to work with each other.)

8. Is there any additional factual information that a person might need before he could reach a rational decision on this case?
 9. What values from the American frame of reference are used by Richard Crane to justify his decision? (Property rights: the right of a businessman to control his own business. Self-preservation: the right to protect what is his.)
 10. What values might Mel Jackson use to support his position? (Equality of opportunity. The right to participate equally in benefits derived from the expenditure of public funds.)
- D. To help the students put the issue in broader perspective, have them think of contrasting situations. (You may want to use the contrasting cases from the socratic discussion suggestions as examples).
1. Can you think of any similar cases that might cause a person to favor laws forbidding racial discrimination in employment?
 2. Can you think of any similar cases that might cause a person to oppose laws forbidding racial discrimination in employment?
- E. In conclusion, ask the students to summarize the points for and against legislation forbidding racial discrimination in hiring practices. You might want to ask whether your state has such a law and what someone for or against such a law should do. Ask what the trend in regard to such laws seems to be (more of them), why (black militancy), and how far such laws should go.
(pp. 92 - 93, Teachers Guide)

Although the illustrative learning activity is an example of the Jurisprudential model of Shaver and Larkins, it contains many features that are common to all the models. The lesson also demonstrates how the Analysis approach attempts to develop students' logical thinking and their ability to use scientific inquiry procedures. Students are

required, consequently, to identify the issue, substantiate the relevancy of statements, to point out logical and empirical inconsistencies in arguments to use analogies and finally, to come to a resolution of the issue.

Clarification Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Clarification approach to values education is to help students to clarify and actualize their personal values. Additionally this approach attempts to help students develop both rational thinking and emotional awareness in order to explain their personal behaviour patterns. To achieve consistency between one's personal behaviour and the values that one holds is the major goal of this approach.

Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966) have indicated that any approach which attempts to impose values is both unethical and unsound. They recommend that students be allowed to create their own value system. The emphasis should be on individual freedom, healthy spontaneous growth, and respect for the values of other people, societies and cultures.

According to Superka (1975), the Clarification approach views man as the initiator of interaction within society and his environment.

Internal rather than external factors are seen as the prime determinants of human behaviour. The individual is free to change the environment to meet his or her needs. In order to achieve this, however, a person must use all of his or her resources - including rational and emotional processes, conscious and unconscious feelings, and mind and body functions. (p. 31)

The more specific purposes of the Clarification approach have been outlined by Simon (1966):

1. Values clarification helps students to "become more purposeful". When a student knows what he wants, he will not fritter away his time on pursuits that seem less beneficial to him (p. 40).
2. Values clarification helps students "become more productive". When a student knows what he wants, he channels all his energies to achieve those goals (p. 41).
3. Values clarification helps students to "sharpen their critical thinking . . . Students who have clarified their values can see through other peoples' foolishness. They seem to get the larger picture of what is good, beautiful, and right, and to know what is wrong" (p.42)
4. Values clarification helps students to "have better relations with each other. When students know what they want, believe strongly, and follow up on commitments; they can be counted on by other students. When conflicts do arise, they know how to work them through" (p. 42).

Valuing and Values. The Clarification approach conceives of valuing as a complex, changing, integrated process which is centered on the individual. The most explicit statement of the valuing process from this point of view is that of Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966). Raths and his associates have formulated a seven-fold outline of the process of valuing. That process includes:

1. Choosing from alternatives.
2. Choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.
3. Choosing freely.
4. Prizing, being glad of one's choice.
5. Prizing, being willing to affirm publicly one's choice.
6. Acting upon one's choice, incorporating choices into behaviour.
7. Acting upon one's choice repeatedly, over time.

(Raths, et al, 1966, p. 259)

Values, as defined by Raths and his associates, are actions which have resulted from the seven sub-processes of valuing. Thus, values are actions which have been reflected upon, freely chosen, internally prized, publically affirmed, and incorporated into behaviour repeatedly over time. According to Raths, values are not needs but are closely associated with basic human needs. They are not merely pre-dispositions to behave but behaviour itself (pp. 27 - 37).

The term "value indicator" is an important concept in values clarification. A value indicator is not a value as it does not meet all seven criteria under Raths' value definition. Rather, it shows what values a person is in the process of forming. Value indicators can be goals or purposes, aspirations, attitudes, interests, feelings, beliefs and convictions, activities, and worries, problems and obstacles (Raths et al, 1966, pp. 30-37).

The most fundamental of the Clarification approach is self-actualization. That which enhances the process is good; that which hinders it is evil. From the examination of Raths' conception of valuing, certain specific process level values stand out. These include thoughtful reflection, free choice, and consistent behaviour. These might represent the ultimate, intrinsic values of the Clarification approach of valuing - those that inevitably lead one to self-actualization.

Teaching Methods. The Clarification approach, more than any other value education approach, utilizes a wide range of teaching methods. Some of these, like role playing, hypothetical, contrived and real value-laden situations, small and large group discussions are used in other approaches. Methods specific to clarification include various forms of self-analysis, listening techniques, games, journals, songs and inter-

views. Due to the work of Simon, the Clarification approach has concentrated on developing these teaching methods into specific valuing strategies which are designed to actualize one or more aspects of the valuing process.

The self-reaction worksheet is the teaching strategy which exemplifies the basic characteristics common to most of the teaching methods used in values clarification. This usually consists of short readings, questions, drawings, or activities designed to stimulate students to reflect on their own thoughts, feelings, actions and values.

Instructional Model. The instructional model of the Clarification approach is based directly on the seven-fold process of valuing developed by Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966). This model, unlike some of the analysis approach models, is not a rigid step-by-step set of procedures, but a flexible set of guidelines. The following instructional model was adapted by Superka, Johnson and Ahrens (1975) from Raths et al (1966) and summarized as follows:

1. Choosing from alternatives--help students to discover, examine, and choose from among available alternatives
2. Choosing thoughtfully--help students weigh alternatives thoughtfully by reflecting on the consequences of each alternative
3. Choosing freely--encourage students to make choices freely and to determine how past choices were made
4. Prizing one's choice--encourage students to consider what it is they prize and cherish
5. Affirming one's choice--provide students the opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices
6. Acting upon one's choice--encourage students to act, behave, and live in accordance with their choices
7. Acting repeatedly, over time--help students to examine and to establish repeated behaviours or patterns of actions based on their choices. (p. 32)

Roles of Student and Teacher. From the perspective taken in the Clarification approach, students are to take an active learning role. Students are active participants in the classroom environment and are often initiators of activities. The approach requires students to clarify their own values and increase their understanding of themselves. To accomplish this task students must participate in the various clarification activities, express their opinions and value stances, listen to other students' opinions and statements, and compare their own perceptions and experiences with those of their classmates.

The teacher's role within this approach is that of a facilitator and a leader. The teacher must create the proper classroom atmosphere and assist students in becoming aware of their own value positions. The teaching process involves several essential elements:

1. The teacher must make efforts to elicit attitudinal and value statements from students.
2. The teacher must accept the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and ideas of students nonjudgmentally, without trying to change them or criticize them.
3. The teacher must raise questions with students which help them think about their values. The teacher is permitted to express his opinions or views, but only as examples of ways to look at things (Raths et al, 1966, pp. 165 - 183).

Characteristics of the Materials. Materials embodying the Clarification approach usually are characterized by a series of group exercises called "strategies". These "strategies" are designed to help students clarify their own values and contain what Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966) call "clarifying responses". "Clarifying responses" may

involve either oral or written exercises which focus on the following questions:

1. Where do you suppose you first got the idea?
2. What else did you consider before you picked this?
3. What would be the consequences of each alternative available?
4. Are you glad you feel that way?
5. Would you tell the class the way you feel sometimes?
6. I hear what you are for; now is there anything you can do about it? Can I help?
7. Have you felt this way for some time?

(pp. 63 - 65)

These questions are linked to the seven-step process of arriving at a value.

Clarification approach "strategies" are designed so that students experience some important and personal aspects of conflict or confusing values. Some typical topic areas of value conflict or confusion found in the clarification materials are: politics, religion, work, leisure time, school, love, sex, money, aging, death, health, race, war-peace, rules and authority.

Illustrative Learning Activity. Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students, developed by Simon, Howe and Kirshenbaum, is a comprehensive book of clarification approach learning activities. The illustrative learning activity presents only one of the many suggested activities contained in the text.

"TWENTY THINGS YOU LOVE TO DO"

Purpose: This exercise attempts to help students look at themselves and their behaviour in order to clarify their values. Students are given some insight into what is important to them by examining their own patterns of behaviour and consistency in actions.

Directions: Students are asked to write down twenty things they like to do. Next, students are asked to code their list using the right-hand columns of their paper. They can put the suggested symbol at the top of each column and proceed to fill out each row according to the following directions.

Symbol	Directions
A/P	Put an A for activities you prefer doing alone, P for activities you prefer doing with people.
\$3	Check each activity that costs more than \$3.
Pub	Check each activity that you would be willing to declare publicly.
2 yrs.	Check those you would list two years ago.
F	Check those your father would put on his list
M	Check those your mother would put on her list
Date	Write the approximate date you last did each activity.
0	How often this year did you do it (never, seldom, often, very often)?
Rank	Number the top five (1-5), the ones you like to do best.

Ask students to review their lists and to write what they learned about themselves. Students are to look at this coded data in the way a natural scientist would. What can the student spot as trends, patterns, or threats? What does the data suggest? (pp. 30 - 34)

Although this illustrative learning activity exemplifies only one of many different types of clarification techniques, it does demonstrate the teaching and learning activities that are common to all the lessons. Students who participate in the Clarification approach are required to use themselves as the major resource, examining their behaviours and attitudes, and hopefully clarifying and coming to an understanding of their own value system.

Action Learning Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Action Learning approach is to develop the students' abilities to act directly in personal and social situations to carry out their personal values. In addition, this approach attempts to enhance the students' sense of community and to develop their abilities to exert influence in public affairs. Superka (1975) claims that the distinguishing characteristic of the action learning approach is that it provides specific opportunities for students to act on their values. It does not confine values education to the classroom or group setting, but extends it to individual experiential learning in the community (p. 35).

It must be noted that action from this perspective is not just the "act of doing". Developers such as Newmann (1975) have carefully defined action as representing "assertiveness as opposed to passivity, a tendency to exert influence on reality, to take some responsibility for rather than be controlled by events" (p. 7). Action is also considered not to be divorced from careful thought and reflection. Newmann (1975) states that, "action presupposes reflection, for in order to act one must have conscious thoughts as to one's aims. Though the quality of reflection may vary, it is impossible to act without reflecting about one's intent" (pp. 19 - 20).

The Action Learning approach perceives man as being interactive, that is, man does not totally fashion his environment, nor is he totally fashioned by it. Man and his environment, from this perspective, are mutual and interactive co-creators. Bigge (1971) clarifies this concept.

The basic principle of interaction is that nothing is perceivable or conceivable as a thing-in-itself; no object has meaning apart from its context. Hence, everything is construed in relation to other objects. More specifically, a thing is perceived as a figure against a background, experienced from a given angle or direction of envisionment. Persons in a given culture have a common social matrix, and a person devoid of a society is a rather meaningless concept. Still, each person is unique in both purposes and experiential background, and the reality upon which he bases intelligent action consists of himself and what he makes of the objects and events that surround him. Thus, in perception, a man and his perceived environment are coordinate; both are responsible for what is real. (p. 40)

Newman (1977) has outlined the more specific purpose of the Action Learning approach. He states that by using it, students will develop competencies to:

1. communicate effectively in spoken and written language;
2. collect and logically interpret information on problems of public concern;
3. describe political-legal decision-making processes;
4. rationally justify personal decisions on controversial public issues and strategies for action with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy;
5. work cooperatively with others;
6. discuss concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues.
7. use selected technical skills as they are required for exercise of influence on specific issues. (p. 6)

Valuing and Values. Proponents of the Action Learning approach view valuing in much the same way as do those who favor the clarification approach. Valuing is conceived of primarily as a process of self-actualization in which students consider alternatives, make choices, and prize, affirm, and act upon them. The Action Learning approach, however, extends the valuing concept in two ways. (1) It places more emphasis on action-taking inside and outside the classroom than is actually reflected in the Clarification approach. (2) It views the process of

self-actualization as being tempered by social factors and group pressures. This second concept draws heavily upon Dewey's theory of valuing.

Dewey viewed valuing as the process of constantly reconstructing values as means to ends. (These new values then become means to other ends.) This process emphasizes the "social" and the "interactive" aspects of valuing. As Dewey (1932) stated; "Valuing is as much a matter of interaction of a person with his social environment as walking is an interaction of legs with a physical environment" (p. 318 - 319).

Two characteristics distinguish the Action Learning approach's concept of the nature of values from those of the other educational value approaches. One is related to the proposed source of values and the other to the instrumental nature of values.

The first distinguishing characteristic is that values, according to this approach, do not have their source either in the person or in the physical or social environment. Their source lies instead in the "simultaneous and mutual interactive" process (Bigge's phrase) between the person and the environment. "Values do not inhere in objects, activities, persons, or anything else; they arise through intelligent relationships of persons with other persons and with objects around them" (Bigge, 1971, p. 64). According to this approach, therefore, the person may be the prime initiator of the process of reconstructing values, but values do not inherently reside inside the person.

This "interactive" source of values leads to the second distinguishing characteristic of this approach's concept of values. The Action Learning approach sees values as experimental and instrumental means rather than absolute ends. Bigge (1971) offers this explanation of means becoming ends.

Even our most basic ideals and ends should be shaped as hypotheses to provide satisfaction for human needs and desires. Values, then, are relative, not absolute; they are relative to developing human needs and desires, reflectively evaluated within an individual-social context. A concept of value confined to any one individual in his several but isolated natures is quite meaningless; values are personal-social, not individual as such. Furthermore, values should be developed through the process of reflective study within which all considerations, scientific or otherwise, pertinent to the matter at hand and obtainable under the prevailing circumstances are taken into account. (p. 64)

Values, then, are instrumental, not final; they are exposed to a continuous test of experience. The appropriateness of an act is dependent, not on some absolutistic standard, but upon the individual and group purposes and foresights which are involved in it. Through intelligent valuation, the means by which we make a living is transformed into ways of making a life that is worth the living. (p. 50)

Values, then, from the action learning perspective, are instrumental criteria for determining goodness and worth in varying situations. The specific values that are most frequently mentioned in this approach are: democracy, freedom, equality, justice, peace, happiness, survival, rationality, efficiency, truth, self-determination, and human dignity (Newmann, 1976, p. 14).

Teaching Methods. The Action Learning approach utilizes many of the teaching methods that are applied in the Moral Development, Analysis, and Clarification approaches. These methods include individual or group study of social issues, the exploration of moral dilemmas within the issue, value clarification activities related to the social issue, role playing, sensitivity and listening techniques, simulations and games, and small group or entire class discussions.

Two teaching methods are unique, however, to this approach. The first technique involves skill development in group organization and

interpersonal relations, either with the student body or with the community at large. The second involves action learning activities that strive for social change within the community by having students engage in political or legislative experiences.

Instructional Model. The action learning instructional model is conceived of as circular rather than linear. That is, one may enter into the model at several points and move backward or forward through the various steps. The following instructional model was taken from Superka, Johnson and Ahrens (1975).

1. Becoming aware of a problem or issue--help student become conscious of a problem troubling others or oneself
2. Understanding the problem or issue and taking a position--help student to gather and analyze information and to take a personal value position on the issue
3. Deciding whether or not to act--help student to clarify values about taking action and to make a decision about personal involvement
4. Planning strategies and action steps--help students to brainstorm, and organize possible actions and provide skill, practice and anticipatory rehearsal
5. Implementing strategies and taking action--provide specific opportunities for carrying out one's plans either as an individual working alone or as a member of a group
6. Reflecting on actions taken and considering next steps--guide students into considering the consequences of the actions taken for others, oneself, and in relation to the problem; also, guide students into thinking about possible next steps.(p. 37)

Roles of Student and Teacher. As can be seen in the above instructional model, students are to take a very active learning role. Students are active participants not only in the classroom environment but also in the community. Instruction begins with a problem or issue which is meaningful to the student. Once the student properly identifies the problem he is required to identify the conflicting values

involved, analyze the significant information, plan strategies for taking action, and take appropriate action to cause social change. Finally, he must reflect upon his action to determine whether further action is necessary or if a different "plan of attack" should be adopted. The student, from this perspective, determines whether he will develop, learn, and become responsive and responsible to himself and the community or not.

The teacher's role within this approach is that of a leader and an assistant, a person who is engaged in mutual interaction with his students. This means that the teacher must be sensitive to the direction that the student wants to go and must structure the learning experiences along the lines indicated by the student. If the student has stopped progressing, the teacher must provide some kind of stimulus and then try to determine the goals the student is trying to achieve. The teacher is required by this approach to assist students in defining the social issue and in clarifying their values in relation to the issue. The teacher must provide students with or direct them to significant information and assist them in gathering and analyzing the data. He must advise the students on appropriate social action and in some cases provide some supervision and guidance when the action is taken. Finally, the teacher must plan activities which would cause the students to reflect on the action that was taken.

It must be noted that, although the student is the initiator of specific activities, the teacher has the role of choosing topics or areas of study and through his suggestions may influence the specific activities. Above all, this approach demands that the teacher do all he possibly can to be in close interaction with his students.

Characteristics of Materials. Since the students have such an active role in determining the activities in action learning, classroom materials embodying this approach are characterized by their great diversity in both topics and activities. Many of the materials are characterized by a list of suggested projects that the student may attempt. These projects in many cases do not suggest specific activities but are used as a stimulus for students to develop their own action learning activities. Examples of four action learning projects that have been developed by Newmann (1972) are:

1. Group A wishes to protect land surrounding a glacial pond from development into a high-rise apartment complex. The developer, who has already purchased the land, has requested that the city council change the zoning from single family to high-rise apartments so that construction may begin. Group A decides to do all it can to prevent this change in zoning.
2. Group B wants to help students in trouble with the law. After visiting various juvenile detention facilities, it decides to make weekly visits to a state detention center for boys, spending an hour playing cards, dancing, and talking.
3. Group C wants to form a Black Students' union to increase communication and a sense of community among Blacks scattered in four different high schools. They decide to publish a student newspaper and to promote a cultural festival. They want to attract more Blacks into their organization and to learn of their heritage through films, speakers, and books which have not been previously available in school.
4. Mike, a high school student, wants to learn something about the courts and the legal profession. He arranges an internship with the clerk of a local judge. Mike spends several hours each week observing courtroom procedures, discussing this with the clerk, and occasionally with the judge. The clerk helps to explain the operation of the system and reasons for the judge's decision. (p. 1)

Materials may, however, take forms very different from those suggested by Newmann. Kirschenbaum (1975), for example, has developed what he terms "sensitivity modules". These activities are designed so

that students can have short experiences to increase their awareness of social issues. Some of the suggested activities are:

1. Wear old clothes and sit in the waiting room of the State Employment Office. Listen, observe, talk to some of the people sitting next to you. Read the announcements on the bulletin board, etc.
2. Go to an inner-city elementary school and read a story to a child in kindergarten or first grade. The child must be held in your lap.
3. Spend a few hours in a patrol car traveling with a team of police. Listen to the squad car radio. Ask questions. If police park and walk a beat, walk with them.
4. Live for three days on the amount of money a typical welfare mother receives to feed a son or daughter closest to your age. (p. 316)

Barr (1976) suggested an even broader range of activities which would encourage teachers and students to move beyond the classroom to school-based and community-based learning activities.

1. Outdoor Learning Programs: with emphasis on rigorous programs of hiking, back-packing, canoeing, etc.
2. Cross-Cultural Exchange Programs: which enable students to have in-depth "immersion" experiences in cultures different from their own.
3. Service Programs: which enable students to provide volunteer service to local community agencies.
4. Internship Programs: which enable students to have extended experiences with leaders in private business, government, social agencies, cultural agencies, etc.
5. Travel Programs: which enable students to combine academic study with on-site visitations and experiences. These often involve cross-cultural experiences, historical studies, and scientific investigations. (p. 107)

Illustrative Learning Activity. Finding Community: A Guide to Community Research and Action, developed by Jones (1971), is a comprehensive book of action learning activities. The following lesson could be used if students, when studying community problems, expressed a concern about living costs of the poor. This activity is designed to convert the students' expressed concern into a workable action problem.

Living Costs of the Poor

1. The teacher directs students to use the following "retail price survey" sheet and the "credit practice" information sheet to gather data and to diagnose the real-life situation of the poor in their community.

Retail Price Survey

To compare retail mark-ups on merchandise in low-income and middle-income neighborhoods, choose an appliance store in each neighborhood and price each of the following items. (You may wish to choose several stores in each area and calculate an average price for each neighborhood.) If possible, price the same brand of each item in order to get an accurate comparison. If you can learn the wholesale prices of each item your survey will be more complete.

Item	Brand	Wholesale Price	Retail Price	
			Store in Low Income Neighborhood	Store in Middle Income Neighborhood
Radio				
Portable Color TV				
Stove				
Sewing Machine				
Refrigerator				
Vacuum Cleaner				
Washing Machine				

Credit Practices

To compare credit practices in the two neighborhoods, decide on a specific item (such as a color TV) and "shop" for it at a store in each neighborhood. Request to take home an unsigned contract or information about the store's credit program or finance company contract.

Evaluate the contract or information to determine what happens if you fail to make a payment. Place a check mark in the appropriate column if the answer is yes.

	Store in Low Income Area	Store in Middle Income Area
Will the item be taken from you?		
Must you pay the return charge?		
Will you forfeit all payments made up to that time?		
Will you be responsible for the unpaid balance?		
If the item is resold for more than the unpaid balance, can the store refuse to give your money back?		
Will you be responsible for any defect or damage to the item?		
Could the seller collect part of your wages?		
If the contract requires a co-signer will he be liable for the debt?		
Could your property, or that of your co-signer, be taken and sold to pay toward the obligations?		
If a second item were added to the first contract, could the first item be taken if you miss payment on the second?		
If you complete payment before the due date, can the store refuse to refund part of the finance charge?		
Does the contract contain a confession clause?		

2. After gathering the data, the class would discuss it, compare and contrast features of specific items, and then formulate specific value issue questions.
3. Students would then participate in various "value clarification" activities, clarifying their own values on a specific issue.
4. The teacher then assists students in devising feasible action projects which are consistent with their personal values. If, for example, students decided that price and credit differences were wrong, the following action alternatives may be taken.
 - 4.1. Write and distribute a community "Buyer's Guide" describing product values and the cost of credit.
 - 4.2. Inform your neighborhood legal assistance office and inquire about the procedure for filing a class suit against the store or finance agent.
 - 4.3. Write a letter of complaint to local news media and government officials.
 - 4.4. Use theater within the community to dramatize fraudulent commercial practices.
5. The class should then discuss the alternative action projects, reflecting upon which one is most appropriate, and then implement their chosen project.
6. After implementing the action project, students would then meet with their teacher and discuss the results of their action (pp. 26-29).

Although the illustrative learning activity is only one of many different types of action learning projects, it does demonstrate the types of teaching and learning activities that are common for most of the materials embodying the approach. The lesson demonstrates how the

teacher is required to use the students' initiative and interest as an indicator of the direction in which lessons should go. It also demonstrates how students in this approach are required to identify and clarify their values in relation to the issue, to gather relevant information, to decide upon and implement action projects and, finally, to reflect upon their actions.

Emotional-Rational Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Emotional-Rational approach to values education is based primarily on helping students come to understand and adopt a lifestyle which is based on care and consideration for others as well as self. McPhail, perhaps the leading proponent of this approach, sees its aim neither as the increasing of the students' capacity to argue morally nor their ability to say "good things", but rather as their capacity to know what "love in action" is, to act with love and affection -- to act warmly and caringly (1978, p.5). This approach is strongly based on Wilson's idea (chapter II) that moral decisions are arrived at by a variety of both affective (emotional) and cognitive (rational) processes. McPhail stresses Wilson's five components of morality, identified in chapter II as: PHIL, EMP, GIG, DIK, and KRAT.

The rationale for this approach is directly based on the assumption that one can extrapolate the "ought" from the "is". To quote McPhail:

...if you want to know what people need and how to meet that need, the first step is to ask them to identify and articulate their problems as they see them and not to tell them what their problems are. The boys' and girls' own use of "good" and "bad" in the survey showed us how the "ought" or morality should come from the "is" of reality. To a large extent, the rational, the emotive, and the moral converge on the question of reciprocal behaviour, which is seen to have a universal rather than a merely individualistic or subjective quality. (Learning to Care, Teacher's Guide, 1972, p. 30)

The Emotional-Rational approach, like the action learning approach, perceives man as being interactive, that is, man does not totally fashion his environment nor is he being totally fashioned by it.

For McPhail, students create (from their needs) the values and beliefs they wish to live by. He says, however, that "we all know that we cannot separate ourselves at any time from the world we live in" (1972, p. 82).

The Emotional-Rational approach differs from the Action Learning approach in that it stresses feelings or the emotional side rather than the rational side of human nature. This approach does not reject rationalism, nor does it advocate unbridled expression of one's emotion. Rather, man is viewed more as a feeling being rather than as a reasoning machine. One, therefore, co-creates with one's environment, but in an emotional-rational rather than in just a rational manner.

With respect to students, the more specific purposes of the Emotional-Rational approach are:

1. to improve their ability to recognize their own and others' needs, interests, and feelings;
2. to improve their ability to interpret accurately the messages, both verbal and non-verbal, which other persons are sending;
3. to improve their ability to predict the possible and probable consequences of actions;
4. to improve their ability to see things from another's point of view;
5. to develop a strong sense of identity and see themselves as people who have a contribution to make in their community;
6. to identify the various legal and social rules of our society;
7. to identify the various expectations and pressures put on them by society.

8. to learn to choose, to decide in a particular situation, what they will do so long as it is consistent with the needs, interests, and feelings of others as well as their own (McPhail, 1972, pp. 63 - 125).

Valuing and Values. Proponents of the Emotional-Rational approach view valuing in much the same manner as do those who favor the Clarification and Action Learning approaches. Valuing is conceived of primarily as a process of self-actualization, in which students consider alternatives, makes choices, and prize, affirm, and act upon those choices. The Emotional-Rational approach differs, however, in that valuing process has both an emotional as well as a rational aspect. The emotional aspect means that valuing is conceived of as the process of experiencing and expressing one's own intense personal feelings of good and evil. The rational aspect means that valuing is conceived of as the process of choosing and acting on one's values only if these values are consistent with the needs, interests, and feelings of others.

Values, according to this approach, are personal emotions or feelings that indicate moral approval or disapproval. Values are also those actions and behaviours which are caused by putting into action one's needs, emotions, and feelings. It would appear then that values from this perspective are means of measuring one's emotional state. McPhail states that the basic aim of this approach is for students to know, feel, and experience "love in action" (1972, p. 5). "Love in action" is the term used to describe students' behaviour when they exhibit care, affection, toleration, understanding, responsibility, sensitivity, compassion, concern, or respect towards other people as well as themselves. These behaviours would fulfill, according to McPhail, "the fundamental

human need to get on with others, to love and be loved" (1972, p. 3).

Teaching Methods. McPhail (1978) has listed a variety of teaching methods that can be employed to help students know and experience "love in action". Each method should involve small groups, ideally not larger than ten or smaller than four. These methods include:

1. expressive and communication techniques such as speaking, writing prose, poetry and plays, painting, modeling, with clay, and photography;
2. discussion techniques, such as small group and entire class discussions. This method should be limited in its use, however, for "only a few members of the class may take part and are good at it" (p. 137);
3. drama techniques with students writing and acting in their own plays;
4. role playing based on situations common to students' experiences;
5. Simulations involving family, school, or community problems;
6. real life involvement such as helping individuals within the community (1978, pp. 137 - 139).

Instructional Model. McPhail and his associates have not developed a specific instructional model for the Emotional-Rational approach. However, they have made a number of suggestions of how to organize activities depending upon which teaching method is employed.

The materials used in the Emotional-Rational approach are characterized by their format. They start with situations which are immediately personal and sensitive in nature and move towards less personal situations concerning dilemmas involving the community, the

country, and the world. This format can be broken down into five sections:

1. Sensitivity - designed to improve the students' ability to recognize their own and others' needs, interests, and feelings, and to help them understand why individuals behave as they do.
2. Consequences - designed to improve the students' ability to predict the possible and probable consequences of actions.
3. Points of view - designed to help students decide on action after considering the other individuals involved.
4. Proving the rule - designed to help students find solutions to problems involving the community at large.
5. What would you have done-- designed to help students understand real, historical, world problems (1972, pp. 101 - 125).

McPhail (1972) has stated that students must also develop the four abilities of "moral communication".

1. Reception ability, meaning the ability to be, and remain "switched on" to the right wavelength, to listen, to look, to receive the messages sent out by others.
2. Interpretative ability, meaning the ability to interpret accurately the messages which another person is sending, what he really means, what he really wants.
3. Response ability, meaning the ability to decide on and adopt appropriate reactions-- to meet another's needs. It involves decision making, evaluation, the use of reason as well as psychological knowhow.
4. Message ability, meaning the ability to translate appropriate reactions into clearly transmitted unambiguous messages. (p. 63)

The following instructional model has been adapted, by the writer of this thesis, from the various organizational suggestions made by McPhail (1972 and 1978). It is by nature flexible in that any of the various teaching methods suggested by McPhail may be used at any point.

1. Sensitivity - students recognize their own and others' needs, interests, and feelings.

1.1. Reception ability - what are the persons' needs, interests, and feelings in the situation?

1.2. Interpretive ability - what is each person saying, both verbally and non-verbally, in this situation?

1.3. Response ability - how are they reacting to each other in the situation?

1.4. Message ability - how can they express what each person's needs, interests, and feelings are?

2. Consequences - students predict the possible consequences of the actions in the situation

2.1. Reception ability - what are the probable consequences of the situation?

2.2. Interpretive ability - are the probable consequences going to achieve what the people in the situation really want?

2.3. Response ability - what are the other possible consequences? What is the most desirable consequence? Is the most probable consequence the most desirable consequence?

2.4. Message ability - how should the people in the situation act differently to bring about the most desirable consequence?

3. Points of View - students decide on action after considering the other individuals involved

3.1. Reception ability - what is each person's point of view in the situation?

3.2. Interpretive ability - what is each person saying, both verbally and non-verbally, to express his point of view?

3.3. Response ability - are there other responses they could have made to express their points of view? Was the response they made the most appropriate one to express their points of view?

3.4. Message ability - are they communicating their points of view clearly and unambiguously?

4. Proving the Rule - students examine the legal and social problems involved in the home, in the school, or in the neighborhood.

4.1. Reception ability - what are the legal or social problems of the groups of people represented in this situation?

4.2. Interpretive ability - how are these problems expressed in the situation? What are the symptoms of each problem?

4.3. Response ability - what reaction could each of the groups have to solve their problem? What reaction should they have?

4.4. Message ability - how should each group carry out their decision from reaction to action?

5. What Would You Have Done? - students examine what has happened in specific situations in the modern world

5.1. Reception ability - what actually happened in the situation?

5.2. Interpretive ability - what have the various people or groups of people involved said about what happened in the situation? How do they feel about what happened in the situation?

5.3. Response ability - what would your reaction be in the situation if you were each of the people or groups involved? What should it be?

5.4. Message ability - can you express how you would have felt in the situation? Can you express what you would have done in the situation? (1972, pp. 125 - 133) and (1978, pp. 134 - 151)

Roles of Student and Teacher. As can be seen in the above instructional model, students are to take an active learning role. Their personal needs, feelings, and emotions make up the actual subject material for this approach. The situations to be examined are selected by the student groups on the basis of their interest and relevance. Students are actively involved in the classroom environment, expressing their emotions and opinions, making decisions, and developing and acting in a caring and loving manner.

The Emotional-Rational approach demands that students observe and develop the ability to recognize various verbal and non-verbal cues which other individuals give as to their needs, interests, and feelings. It demands that students develop their ability to predict the consequences of actions. It demands that they acquire the knowledge of both the legal and social rules of their community. Finally, this approach demands that students practice many forms of creative expression

including writing, painting, photography, and acting.

The teacher's role in this approach is to act as a facilitator in freeing students to accept and express their basic concerns for the welfare of others. McPhail (1972) has indicated that morality is not taught but caught. Therefore, the teacher must take a modeling role, demonstrating care and consideration for each student. "If a teacher demonstrates that she/he cares for the young, they will learn to care for each other" (p. 9). The teacher is also required to create a trusting classroom atmosphere in which it is possible for students to express their real and uncensored feelings about issues without fear. This classroom climate requires that the teacher work with students to remove blocks to considerate communication, and work again with students to build the four "moral communication" abilities. Finally, this approach dictates that the teacher must select classroom materials which are of interest and relevance to students, must provide detailed information (if any) required by the students, and must direct the students' work so that they will put their values and attitudes into practice.

Characteristics of Materials. Materials embodying the Emotional-Rational approach contain a large number of situational readings.

The materials have seven specific characteristics:

1. The readings are brief to encourage students to make the situation their own by adding their own personal details.
2. The readings usually contain two or three characters.
3. The situation in the readings demands a reaction on the part of the student, if he identifies with one of the characters.
4. The reading is in the form of a dilemma; that is, it is not immediately apparent what the student should do in a given situation.
5. Situations are derived from the topics identified by McPhail's 1967 - 1968 student survey which asked students to identify incidents in their lives which made them happy, sad, frustrated, or angry. The topics students identified as relevant to their needs were: sexual attitudes, problems with adults including those in school, economic class attitudes, and racial, cultural, religious, political and psychological conflicts (1972, pp. 23 - 49).
6. Questions relating to the readings are generally concerned with doing rather than theorizing.
7. The materials are open-ended in nature allowing a number of follow-up creative activities such as classroom dramas, simulations or role playing sessions, drawing, photography, or creative writing (1972, pp. 80 - 150 and 1978, pp. 119 - 158).

Illustrative Learning Activity. Only two sets of materials, Lifeline (1972) and Startline (1978) by McPhail, were found to embody

the Emotional-Rational approach. The rationale of the Association of Values Education and Research group (A.V.E.R.) claims to fit this approach. Upon examination of the teaching-learning materials from A.V.E.R., however, it appears that The Elderly (1976) and Prejudice (1978) use strictly a rational, analysis approach to values education.

Proving the Rule: Why Should I? (1972), developed by McPhail, is one of the booklets from the Lifeline series. The following lesson is designed to be used after students have completed the Sensitivity, Consequences and Points of View series of booklets. This lesson is designed to help students deal with and understand authority and the pressures and expectations that parents, school, and society place on them.

The Authority of a Father

Paul walked in the front door at 11 p.m. one Friday evening. He stopped in the hall-way, listening to his father's voice. He heard a chair scrape, and the kitchen door opened.

"That you, Paul?" called his mother.

Paul didn't move. He hesitated, then called back, "Yes, Mum."

The kitchen door flew open and his father stormed into the hallway.

"What the hell do you mean coming in at this time? I waited all evening for you - what about my pigeons? If I've told you once I've told you a dozen times to stay in this house on Friday and help me with my jobs. And do you listen to your father? No! You go off with your mates and use this place like an hotel." He stopped for breath, his hands clenched by his sides. Then he said, menacingly, "Listen here, Paul, this house, this house," he repeated, jerking his finger towards the floor, "is not an hotel, and if you want to stay in it you pull your weight."

Paul didn't answer. He edged his way cautiously past his father.

"The bike broke down," he muttered.

"Oh, so the bike broke down, and it took ...", he looked at his watch, "... four hours to mend did it?" He thrust his head towards Paul's face.

"No, Dad. Not four hours, but I did a couple of test runs on it and gave it a bit of a clean."

"You did, did you? Well you can just get out there now with the torch and clean that pigeons' loft out for me. Go on." He took a step towards Paul, who rushed past him, through the kitchen and out of the back door.

Paul leant against the wall outside the kitchen, savagely tearing leaves off the garden hedge. He felt sick with anger at his father, whom he could hear ranting on in the kitchen at his mum.

"That boy gets all his own way. If I tell him to do something then he should do it. I won't take any lip from him. If he gives me any, I'll thrash him. I'm his father, and as long as he's in my house he does as I say. And don't you take sides with him against me or it'll be the worse for you."

His mother's voice shook as she said, "Now you listen to me, George Lowe. That boy has quite enough to do without cleaning out your pigeons' muck. He has his school work and his job at the garage. He's a good lad to his sister - it's her you ought to get tough with, the little minx. You leave him alone. If your pigeon loft needs cleaning out, you clean it yourself."

Follow-Up Activities:

Questions

1. How would you feel if you were Paul and your dad took the attitude he did? Would you do as he said, or not? Why?
2. Do you think that Paul's dad was justified in getting angry? Why?
3. What would you do in this situation if you were Paul's dad and your son hadn't done as you'd asked?
4. Paul's dad said, "This house is not an hotel". Many parents feel that their sons and daughters use the house like an hotel, because they don't do much to help. Do you sympathize with the parents' feelings? Why?

Things to Do

1. Finish the story, saying what you think might happen next.
2. Re-tell the story with dad not getting angry, and say what you think might happen next.
3. Describe a home with a father, mother, teenage son and daughter in it and say what you think each person should do to help around this house. (1972, pp. 6 - 9)

Although the illustrative learning activity is only one of many situational readings and related activities found in the Lifeline series, it does demonstrate the rationale of the Emotional-Rational approach. The learning activity illustrates how students are required to identify and express their feelings with regard to a readily-identifiable personal situation. It also demonstrates how students are required to examine the situation rationally. Students must identify the different feelings and points of view expressed by the characters in the story, the consequences of different actions, and the rules and expectations that parents place on their children. The "Things to Do" suggestions also demonstrate how this lesson can be extended to include various creative activities, such as plays or role-playing, to further explore the issue.

Summary of the Chapter

In the preceding sections, attempts were made to identify the features that are characteristic of each of the six value education approaches. The discussion identified for each approach: the rationale and purpose, the process of valuing and the nature of values, the teaching methods, the instructional model(s), the roles of the student and the teacher, the characteristics of the materials, and an illustrative learning activity.

These six approaches represent distinctive but not totally unrelated efforts to develop values in students. The distinction between the six approaches might be clarified by identifying the kinds of choices a student educated in each approach would most probably make.

The following chart presents the values education approaches and the corresponding types of choices:

<u>One educated in:</u>	<u>would make a:</u>
Inculcation approach	positively reinforced and socially acceptable choice
Moral Development approach	morally developed choice
Analysis approach	rational choice
Clarification approach	thoughtfully self-actualized choice
Action Learning approach	rational, personal-social growth enhancing choice
Emotional-Rational approach	emotional-rational, personal choice

Each choice clearly indicates the distinctive fundamental thrust of each approach. These choices also reveal, however, the degrees of interrelationship among some of the value educational approaches. The six choices identified above are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, the "positively reinforced, socially acceptable" choice could also be "rational" and "self-actualized" (or any of the other choices), depending upon the given situation. The "morally developmental" choice could correspond with any of the other five choices, depending upon the particular stage of development of the person making the choice.

When examining the respective characteristics of each approach, one is able to identify the distinctiveness and the interrelationship of the value education approaches. The following chart summarizes the characteristics of each approach.

Summary Chart of the Characteristics of Six Educational

Value Approaches

Characteristics	Inequitization Approach	Moral Development Approach	Analysis Approach	Clarification Approach	Action Learning Approach	Emotional-Rational Approach
Rationale	To instill certain desirable and precise values and beliefs in students	To stimulate and assist students in advancing to higher stages of moral reasoning	To develop logical thinking and the use of scientific procedures to help solve social value issues, to help students develop and clarify their values.	To help students clarify and actualize their personal values, to become emotionally aware and think rationally about personal behaviour	To develop in students rational thinking and the ability to act directly in society putting into action their personal values	To help students understand and adopt a lifestyle of care and consideration for others as well as self
Nature of Man	Man is a reactor to his environment, society defines the needs, goals and values of the individual	Man is an active reasoning initiator in his environment, characteristics in man determine how he reacts to his environment	Man is an active reasoning initiator in his environment, only by suppressing emotions to logic can man rationally act in the environment to solve his problems	Man is an initiator of actions in his environment, internal factors determine man's behaviour, man can change the environment to suit his needs	Man is a rational interactive being, not totally fashioned by his environment nor totally fashioning it	Man is an emotional-rational interactive being, he creates with his environment but with his emotions and his reason
Purpose	To activate the identification/socialization process so that students accept certain prechosen values and beliefs	To create situations in which students confront arguments at higher stages of reasoning than they are presently at, thereby hopefully rising to a higher stage of moral thinking	To teach students to make rational value judgments and to teach them how to operate as a member of a group, to help students clarify their values in regard to a social issue.	To help students clarify their values and act on their beliefs, and values are clarified, students are clearly defined goals	To teach students to make rational value-judgments, to work co-operatively with others to become active participants in their community, to clarify their values in regards to community issues.	To improve the students' ability to recognize the emotions of others as well as self, to develop a strong sense of identity, to improve their ability to see things from another's viewpoint, to teach the rules of society, to teach students to act in a manner consistent with their values and a feeling of compassion for others
Valuing	A process of identification and socialization	A process of developing more complex reasoning patterns	A cognitive process or intellectual inquiry into the goodness or worth of a phenomena	A seven step actualization process involving choosing freely from alternatives, pricing, affirming one's choice and acting upon one's choice	A process of actualization which is tempered by social factors and group pressures	A process of actualization which is tempered by social factors and group pressures, also an emotional process of experiencing and expressing one's personal feelings of good and evil
Values	Those values dictated by either the Bible, society or a culture	No specific definition, might be considered moral concepts or beliefs	considered to be facts which can be subjected to the test of logic	conceived of as actions which have been freely chosen, reflected upon, internally prized, publically affirmed and incorporated into one's behaviour	conceived to be relative to developing human needs and desires, also conceived to be instrumental criteria for determining goodness or worth in varying situations	considered as personal emotions or feelings indicating moral approval or disapproval

Summary Chart of the Characteristics of Six Educational Value Approaches (continued)

Characteristics	Inculcation Approach	Moral Development Approach	Analysis Approach	Clarification Approach	Action Learning Approach	Functional-Rational Approach
Fundamental or Ultimate Values	Those values dictated by religious texts, such as the Bible, a constitution, or a society or a culture	Justice, fairness, equality, a sense of human rights	Survival, human dignity, creed values such as the quest for self-respect, concern for fairness or justice, majority rule and due process	Those values which enhance self-actualization, free choice, thoughtful reflection and consistent behaviour	democracy, freedom, equality, justice, peace, happiness, survival, rationality, human dignity	"Men in action" which includes attitudes and behaviours such as caring, affection, co-operation, understanding, responsibility, sensitivity, compassion, concern and respect
Teaching Methods	Explanation, motivation, positive and negative reinforcement and modeling used in combination with one another, occasionally role-playing, games and simulations used	primarily class discussions of moral dilemmas also includes role-playing, skills and simulations	primarily class discussions of social issues and individual or group study of social problems, may use library or field research	role-playing, value laden situations, class discussions, interviews, self-analysis, games, drawing and painting, journals, listening activities	individual or group study, clarification activities, dilemma discussions, library and field research, social action projects	Creative communication activities such as class dramas, writing, painting, photography, role-playing, simulations, also includes action projects, limited class discussion
Instructional Model	linear in nature 1. determine the value to be inculcated. 2. identify the level of interiorization of desired behaviour goal. 3. specify the appropriate method 4. select an appropriate method 5. implement the method 6. graph and communicate the results	linear in nature 1. confront a moral dilemma 2. state a position on the original or alternative dilemma 3. test the reasoning for a moral dilemma 4. reflect on the reasoning 5. reflect on the reasoning	linear in nature 1. Reflection - Value Analysis Model 2. Columbia Associates Model 3. Jurisprudential Model 4. Value-Inquiry Model see p. 81 in chapter III for further details about each approach.	flexible in nature 1. choose from alternatives 2. choose thoughtfully 3. choose freely 4. prize one's choice 5. affirm one's choice 6. act upon one's choice 7. act repeatedly over time	circular in nature 1. become aware of a problem or issue 2. understand the problem and take a position 3. decide whether or not to act 4. plan strategies or action steps 5. implement strategies or action steps 6. reflect on actions taken and consider next steps	flexible in nature 1. Sensitivity - recognizing needs, interests, and feelings 2. Consequences - predict the possible and probable consequences of action 3. Points of View - deciding on action after considering other people 4. Proving the Rule - problems at home, school or the community 5. What would you have done? - problems in the modern world
Role of Student	passive learning role, follows teacher's instructions and modifies behaviour	active learning role, expresses opinions, beliefs and involved in self-reflection	active learning role, expressing opinions, beliefs and solving social issues in the classroom	active learning role, initiates activities, expressing opinions and beliefs, actualizing their values	active learning role, initiates activities in both the classroom and the community, addressing emotions and feelings and actualizing their values	active learning role, initiates activities in both the classroom and the community, addressing emotions and feelings and actualizing their values

Summary Chart of the Characteristics of Six Educational Value Approaches (continued)

Characteristics	Inoculation Approach	Moral Development Approach	Analysis Approach	Clarification Approach	Action Learning Approach	Emotions-Rational Approach
Role of Teacher	leader and initiator of learning activities, structures and manages all classroom learning activities	initiator of activities but flexible in structure and management of activities, responsible for supportive classroom atmosphere, acts mainly as a catalyst for moral development to occur	helper of students' activities, must be familiar with Socratic discussions, must create a fair but abrasive classroom atmosphere	mainly a facilitator and leader, must create inviting classroom atmosphere, be non-judgmental, cause students to think about their values through activities and questions raised	mainly a leader and assistant, is co-participant in activities both in the classroom and the community	mainly a facilitator. A number of activities are available to students. The teacher's role is to direct students to the values they put into action
Characteristics of the Materials	short readings with a combination of modeling and positive and negative reinforcement, related questions emphasize modeling behaviour	short readings in a moral dilemma format - open ended, one central character, related questions, related questions less reasoning with analogous situations	a number of short readings in a moral dilemma format grouped around one social issue related questions emphasize the identification of issues, making decisions and justifying the decisions	a number of activities called strategies containing clarifying questions where you put the ideas, concepts about the choice as part of your choice. How many have you held to the choice	great range of materials, suggestions for projects, community based learning activities, all emphasize involvement in the community	short situational readings on personal problems which are common to students in a dilemma format, related questions emphasize doing rather than theorizing
Topics of the Materials	stories from history, legends, literature and the Bible	punishment, property, religion, concerns of action and such as law, life, liberty, distributive justice	law and the penal system, the environment, welfare, prejudice, minority rights, foreign policy, women's rights, the poor	politics, religion, culture, time, school, love, sex, money, aging, health, race relations, war-peace, rules and authority	no specific topics, any issue in the community and decide that action can correct the situation	social attitudes, problems with adults, teaching school, economics, class attitudes, and racial, political, religious and psychological conflicts

CHAPTER IV

Systems of Educational Materials Analysis

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the distinguishing characteristics of the six value education approaches were identified and explicated. The detailed explanations and the summary chart at the end of Chapter III will become the base from which the analyst compares data obtained from the Values Materials Analysis System to determine which approach or approaches are contained in the analyzed materials.

In this chapter, the Values Materials Analysis System will be outlined. The analysis system will consist of a series of questions that will allow the analyst to identify which value approaches, the answers to which are used in educational materials. Through answering the questions, the analyst will be able to identify those characteristics of the materials which are useful in identifying a value education approach.

Analysis Systems

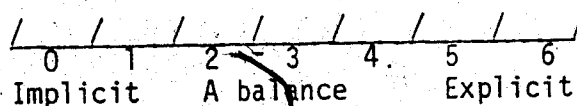
The literature on analysis systems, consists of many different opinions regarding the questions involved in the system. There were different opinions about the nature of questions, the logical structure of the questions, the relative weighting of the questions, and the source of the questions. There were also many different opinions regarding the answers to be obtained, the methods by which the answers might best be obtained, how the information in the answers would be processed, and how the information would be used. Despite the diversity of opinion regarding the nature and structure of the analysis systems, there are three distinct modes of appraisal that can be readily identified: the checklist mode, the descriptive-narrative mode, and the combined mode with features of each.

Checklist Mode. The most popular analytical schema in use in social studies materials analysis is the checklist mode. Although many different systems have been developed using this mode, the most comprehensive and most widely used in the Curriculum Materials Analysis System developed by Morrissett and associates (Morrissett and Stevens, 1967; Morrissett, Stevens, and Woodley, 1968; and Knight et al, 1971).

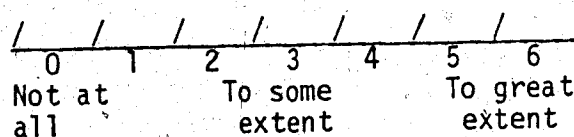
This system, like the others, is characterized by a large number of questions developed by the authors. The analyst is required to answer each question, responding by checking the number that he deems appropriate on a seven point scale. The analyst is also required to check an additional scale (0 - 4) to indicate "the degree of certainty with which the analyst is answering a particular question." (Knight et al, 1971, p. 4).

The following questions exemplify the characteristics of the checklist mode of analysis (Knight et al, 1971).

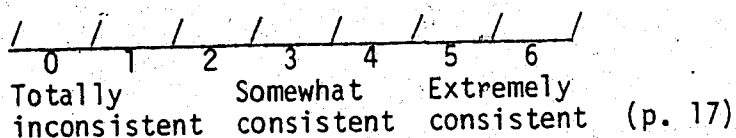
3.2-Q2. How are values and attitudes presented in the materials?



3.2-Q3. To what extent are the values and attitudes studied parallel to the present and future needs of the student?



3.2-Q4. To what extent is the author's view of the affective content of his discipline consistent with the affective content in his curricular materials?



Within this mode of appraisal, the task of the analyst is defined as the application of a given series of questions to the materials under examination. The analyst replies to detailed questions provided by the authors of the system. All analysts will use the same set of questions and, therefore, it is assumed that their answers regarding a particular product would be very similar. The analysis resulting from the use of such a schema will be objective and quantified. The system does not, however, allow for additional or subjective input from the analyst and, as a result, creates evaluations which are depersonalized in nature.

Descriptive-Narrative Mode. The descriptive-narrative mode of analysis stands in marked contrast to the checklist mode of analysis. Proponents such as Parlett (1972), Eisner and Vallance (1974), Brauner (1974), and Clark, van Manen, and Milbern (1977) invite analysts to consider a variety of alternative ways of looking at materials; some questions include: what are the aesthetic qualities? what type of student likely to enjoy the materials? how will students react to the materials? Rather than applying a specific set of objective questions to the materials under study, analysts using this mode pose and answer their own subjective questions. These are derived from the analyst's sense of what aspect of the materials is important. The purpose of such analysis is to provide educational criticism to interpret the deeper meanings, the "renderings" or "disclosures", that the analyst has located in the materials under study.

Such a mode allows for great personal input into the process of analysis. This format may allow an analyst of some insight to de-

teaching interesting features or major truths that otherwise may not be identified by the checklist mode. However, the final judgements made are likely to be very different from one analyst to another, based in a large way on the analysts interests and values, and thus requiring the reading of many different analysis reports on the same materials. In addition, the characteristics which the individual teacher may deem as the crucial criteria for determining the use of the materials may not even be discussed.

Combined Mode. Some attempts have been made to combine the predetermined checklist mode with the open-ended descriptive-narrative mode. The most comprehensive and the most widely used of the combined modes is the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute (E.P.I.E.) analysis format.

The E.P.I.E. format, like the checklist mode, is characterized by a large number of specific questions developed by the authors. The analyst is required to answer each question. As with the descriptive-narrative mode, however, the analyst is given an opportunity to give his own description of the characteristics of the materials.

E.P.I.E. questions are grouped around four instructional design constructs: intents, content organization, methodology, and evaluation. The intents construct examines the developer's rationale, goals, and objective. The content organization construct examines scope of topics, the depth of subject treatment, and the sequence in which the topics are arranged. The methodology construct examines the teaching and learning activities, the teacher training required to use the materials, and the amount of teacher preparation time required. The evaluation

construct examines the content and the method of evaluation. Additional questions concern themselves with the accuracy, bias, and currency of content, and the physical description of the materials (E.P.I.E. Workshop Manual, 1979, pp. 1 - 12).

The E.P.I.E. analysis system is thorough and does allow for personal input from the analyst. It does, however, have serious limitations. The main purpose of the E.P.I.E. analysis system is to provide objective detailed analysis of educational materials. To achieve objective descriptions, E.P.I.E. places the major emphasis of its analysis on factors which are easily identifiable and objectively described. The E.P.I.E. format does not examine the more interpretive and the important elements involving the values and the value approaches that are contained in the materials.

Values Materials Analysis System

To analyze the values and the value approaches contained in educational materials requires an analysis schema which is objective as well as interpretive. The combined mode of analysis appears to be the most appropriate means of achieving these two objectives. The Values Materials Analysis System will therefore base its questions and its structure on this mode of analysis.

The Values Materials Analysis System will structure its guiding questions so that the analyst will examine specific characteristics of educational materials in order to identify the values and the value approaches contained therein. Questions on topics such as physical description, cost, sequencing of topics and teacher preparation will not be included for they are already adequately covered by other analysis schemas.

Format of the Values Materials Analysis System. The format of the Values Materials Analysis System developed by the writer of this thesis will draw heavily upon the E.P.I.E. format in an attempt to combine the best features of both the checklist and the descriptive-narrative modes. Each question in the analysis system will have the following appearance:

Area 4	
Area 1	Area 2
Area 3	

Area 1 will contain a guiding question for the analyst pertaining to a specific topic such as the rationale, the fundamental values, or the role of the teacher. Area 2 will contain a list of value approach characteristics pertaining to the guiding topic questions in Area 1. The characteristics are meant to be used as helpful reminders for the analyst. Area 3 contains the analyst's response to the guiding question posed in Area 1. Area 4 contains a six-number Likert scale in which the analyst checks off the degree of certainty of his description in Area 3. The certainty scale has two purposes. First, it is intended to make the analyst more comfortable about responding, since he can always indicate a high degree of uncertainty in an answer. Second, it provides the reader of the analysis with a degree of objectivity by knowing the degree of certainty that the analyst had in answering the question.

A summary chart listing the six approaches and their specific characteristics is provided at the end of the values materials analysis system (based on the chart found at the end of chapter 3). For each characteristic, the analyst is asked to review his detailed analysis, compare his impressions to characteristics in the chart, and then check the box corresponding to the most appropriate value approach. The main purpose of this chart is to provide a quick summary to enable the analyst to identify which value educational approach or approaches are contained in the analyzed materials.

Role of the Analyst. The analyst's job is to describe the characteristics of the materials using the framework provided by the Values Materials Analysis System, and through comparison identify the value approach or approaches contained in the materials. To perform this role, the analyst must be familiar with each of the six value education approaches described in Chapter III. He must know which characteristics are similar among the approaches and which characteristics make the approaches distinct from one another. The analyst should therefore have read and be familiar with the detailed descriptions and the summary chart of the six approaches found in Chapter III and use them as a guide.

The value materials analyst performs a role very distinct from that of the educator who evaluates instructional materials. The analyst's role is to provide a complete analytic description of the products' value approach or approaches, unbiased by his personal philosophy, and without regard to how the products "might" or "might not" be used by a creative teacher. The role of the evaluator, on the other hand, is to use the analyst's report and make judgements about the materials. It

is his role to decide whether the materials are appropriate for his class, his students, and his personal philosophy. He decides how the products "might" or "might not" be used.

Framework of the Values Materials Analysis System. Following are copies of the questions to be used in describing characteristics of the materials to be analyzed and the summary chart of the six value approaches to aid in the analysis. In addition a set of directions for the use of the Values Materials Analysis system will be given.

Directions for Use. The following items are directions for the analyst as he applies the Values Materials Analysis System.

1. Examine the educational materials thoroughly before you begin the analysis.
2. Review the detailed descriptions and the summary chart of the six educational value approaches, so that you are familiar with their features and their distinguishing characteristics. The detailed descriptions and the summary chart should be used as a reference when completing the summary checklist and the synthesis sections.
3. Complete the questions on basic information about the materials.
4. Complete the detailed analysis characteristic sections. You should describe, not evaluate, the characteristics fully. You should quote or paraphrase from the educational materials analyzed whenever possible.
5. After completing a detailed analysis section, check the appropriate blank in the "degree of certainty" scale. The degree of certainty scale is provided so that you may feel more comfortable about completing a section. Some descriptions may require inter-

pretation on your part.

6. Upon completion of the characteristic sections, review the detailed analysis and examine the value approaches summary chart. Next complete the summary checklist, identifying the approach or approaches contained in each characteristic.

7. Review the detailed analysis and the summary checklist, and then complete the synthesis section. In the synthesis section, you should identify the extent to which each approach is present in the materials.

The completion of the educational materials analysis is rigorous. The identification of educational value approaches in materials requires time and effort. An analysis which is incomplete or done in a perfunctory manner provides little useful information for those who will use it as a basis for the materials evaluation.

The Instrument

1. Program Title: _____

2. Author(s): _____

3. Publisher: _____

4. Copyright Date(s): _____

5. Medium: (Check more than one if applicable.)

___ print - student text

___ print - teacher's guide

___ reel-to-reel, or cassette tape, record

___ filmstrip

___ videotape

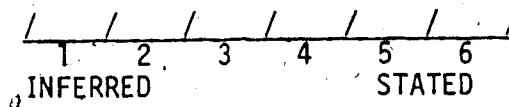
___ other - specify: _____

6. Materials Analyzed: (Check one.)

___ complete package

___ partial package (if partial package, state which
parts were analyzed and which parts were omitted)

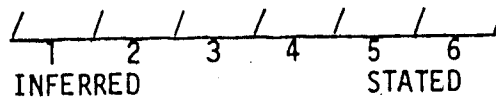
Degree of Certainty Scale



7. Rationale

Describe the developer's rationale, the main outcomes the materials are attempting to achieve.	<p>You may wish to report on the attempt to achieve or develop in students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> specific knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> prechosen values <input type="checkbox"/> moral reasoning <input type="checkbox"/> ability <input type="checkbox"/> logical thinking <input type="checkbox"/> discussion <input type="checkbox"/> analysis skills <input type="checkbox"/> clarification of personal values <input type="checkbox"/> actualization of personal values <input type="checkbox"/> social action <input type="checkbox"/> abilities and skills <input type="checkbox"/> caring and understanding attitude <input type="checkbox"/> behaviour consistent with either: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> personal values <input type="checkbox"/> societal values
--	---

Degree of Certainty Scale



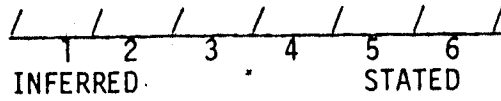
8. Nature of Man

Describe the developer's view of the nature of man and how man acts or reacts to his environment.

You may wish to report on assumptions made about man:

- as an emotional being
- as a rational being
- as an emotional-rational being
- as a reactor to the environment
- as an active initiator in the environment
- as interactive with the environment

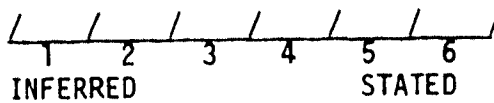
Degree of Certainty Scale



9. Purpose-Skills

<p>Describe the developer's purpose in regards to the skills students will acquire.</p>	<p>You may wish to report on the following skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> listening and attending <input type="checkbox"/> logical thinking and reasoning <input type="checkbox"/> self-awareness <input type="checkbox"/> discussion <input type="checkbox"/> analysis <input type="checkbox"/> decision-making <input type="checkbox"/> decision <input type="checkbox"/> application <input type="checkbox"/> conflict resolution <input type="checkbox"/> group work <input type="checkbox"/> community involvement <input type="checkbox"/> recognizing emotions <input type="checkbox"/> recognizing points of view

Degree of Certainty Scale



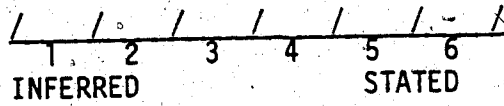
10. Purpose-Attitudes

Describe the developer's purpose in regards to the attitudes students will acquire.

You may wish to report on the following feelings or attitudes:

- acceptance of the values taught
- empathy
- sense of justice
- fairness
- consistent
- behaviour
- sense of identity
- equality
- care and
- consideration
- helping, giving
- support
- self-actualization

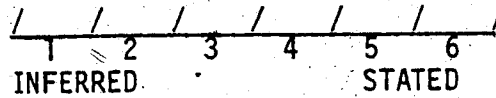
Degree of Certainty Scale



11. Valuing

<p>Describe how the developer views the process of valuing.</p>	<p>You may wish to report on valuing as seen as a process of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — identification — socialization — development of moral reasoning patterns — intellectual inquiry — actualization tempered by social factors or groups pressures — actualization involving several steps — expression of one's feelings and emotions through emotional experience
---	---

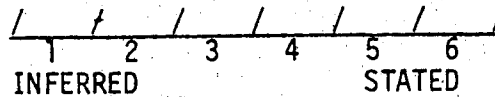
Degree of Certainty Scale



12. Values

<p>Describe the developer's conception of values. Also describe the developer's conception of the source of values.</p>	<p>You may wish to report on values as being:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> rules or laws <input type="checkbox"/> verifiable much like facts <input type="checkbox"/> actions and behaviours <input type="checkbox"/> relative to the needs of man or society <input type="checkbox"/> instrumental criteria <input type="checkbox"/> personal emotions or feelings <input type="checkbox"/> no specific definition <p>The source of values may be conceived of as originating from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> the society or culture <input type="checkbox"/> a constitution or bill of rights <input type="checkbox"/> God <input type="checkbox"/> man
---	---

Degree of Certainty Scale



13. Fundamental or Ultimate Values

List the fundamental or ultimate values which the developer has emphasized

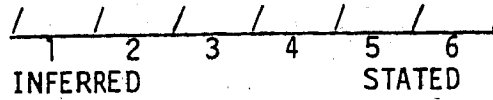
You may wish to include as fundamental or ultimate values:

- justice, fairness
- equality, due process of law
- survival
- democracy, majority rule
- peace
- happiness
- rationality
- human dignity

The fundamental or ultimate values may also include feelings or a disposition towards:

- affection, caring, compassion, concern, sensitivity
- self-actualization
- thoughtful
- reflection
- consistent
- behaviour
- toleration
- understanding
- responsibility
- respect

Degree of Certainty Scale



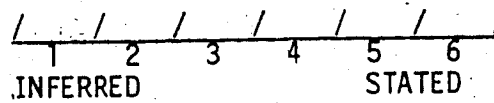
14. Teaching Methods

Describe the teaching methods and/or activities that are contained in the materials. Also comment on the frequency of use of the various methods.

You may wish to report on the following methods or activities:

- reading
- writing
- discussions; individual, small group, class
- explanation
- manipulation
- positive and negative reinforcement
- modeling
- role playing, dramas, simulations
- library or field research
- value-laden situations
- self-analysis
- games
- painting, drawing, photography
- social action projects

Degree of Certainty Scale

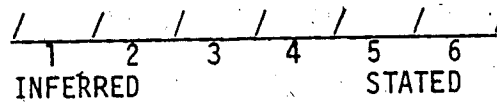


15. Instructional Model

Outline and/or describe the format or instructional model found in the materials.

You may wish to report on whether the model is:
 linear in nature
 circular in nature
 flexible in nature

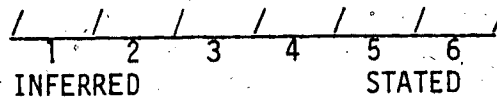
Degree of Certainty Scale



16. Role of Student

Describe the developer's intended student role and the type of activities this role dictates	<p>You may wish to report on whether the role is:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> an active learning role</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> a passive learning role</p> <p>You may wish to report on whether the students are required to:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> follow instructions and modify behaviour</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> express opinions and beliefs</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> express feelings and emotions</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> analyze value issues</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> analyze their own and others' behaviour</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> reflect on their own values</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> provide and analyze reasons for value positions</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> make decisions based on personal values</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> act on value decisions</p>
--	--

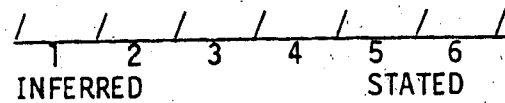
Degree of Certainty Scale



17. Role of Teacher

Describe the developer's intended teacher role and the classroom atmosphere that the developer promotes	<p>You may wish to report on the following types of teacher's roles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> judgmental <input type="checkbox"/> non-judgmental <input type="checkbox"/> manipulator <input type="checkbox"/> leader <input type="checkbox"/> initiator of classroom activities <input type="checkbox"/> model <input type="checkbox"/> helper, facilitator <input type="checkbox"/> Socratic discussion leader <input type="checkbox"/> assistant, coordinator <input type="checkbox"/> catalyst <input type="checkbox"/> interactive <p>You may also wish to report on the following classroom atmospheres:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> controlled <input type="checkbox"/> supportive <input type="checkbox"/> fair, but abrasive <input type="checkbox"/> trusting <input type="checkbox"/> involving the community
---	---

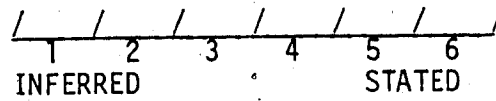
Degree of Certainty Scale



18. Emphasis of the Materials

Describe the content of the materials in relation to its focus and emphasis.	You may wish to report on whether the content's focus on values education is:
	<input type="checkbox"/> the major focus <input type="checkbox"/> one of several concerns <input type="checkbox"/> a peripheral focus You may also wish to report on whether the content focuses on: <input type="checkbox"/> the process of valuing <input type="checkbox"/> the content of the values <input type="checkbox"/> both the process and content <input type="checkbox"/> the personal value issues or problems <input type="checkbox"/> social issues <input type="checkbox"/> community concerns

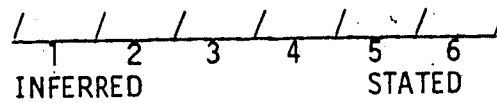
Degree of Certainty Scale



19. Format of the Materials

<p>Describe the mode or format of the content</p>	<p>You may wish to comment on whether the materials are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — readings with specific or implied morals — readings that are slanted towards a specific value outcome — case studies — grouped around a social issue — value dilemmas — episodes — clarification — response strategy activities — self-analysis — worksheets — data collection instruments for use in the class and the community — personal problem situations — readings designed to promote emotional expression — suggestions for community action — sensitivity activities
---	--

Degree of Certainty Scale



20. Topics of the Materials

<p>List the topics which the developer has emphasized in the materials. Also comment on the depth of coverage.</p>	<p>You may wish to include the following topics:</p>
<p></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> rules, laws, <input type="checkbox"/> justice, authority <input type="checkbox"/> punishment <input type="checkbox"/> property <input type="checkbox"/> life, liberty <input type="checkbox"/> the environment <input type="checkbox"/> welfare <input type="checkbox"/> prejudice, race <input type="checkbox"/> relations <input type="checkbox"/> minority rights <input type="checkbox"/> foreign policy <input type="checkbox"/> politics <input type="checkbox"/> women's rights <input type="checkbox"/> the poor <input type="checkbox"/> religion <input type="checkbox"/> love, sex <input type="checkbox"/> money <input type="checkbox"/> aging <input type="checkbox"/> death <input type="checkbox"/> war, peace <input type="checkbox"/> personal attitudes

21. Summary Checklist

<p>Using the detailed descriptions and the chart in chapter III as a reference, examine the analysis of each characteristic in the schema and then fill in the appropriate square or squares in the summary checklist.</p>	<p>Inculcation Approach</p>	<p>Moral Development Approach</p>	<p>Analysis Approach</p>	<p>Clarification Approach</p>	<p>Action Learning Approach</p>	<p>Emotional-Rational Approach</p>
<p>Rationale</p>						
<p>Nature of Man</p>						
<p>Purpose-Skills</p>						
<p>Purpose-Attitudes</p>						
<p>Valuing</p>						
<p>Values</p>						
<p>Fundamental or Ultimate Values</p>						
<p>Teaching Methods</p>						
<p>Instructional Model</p>						
<p>Role of Student</p>						
<p>Role of Teacher</p>						
<p>Emphasis of the Materials</p>						
<p>Format of the Materials</p>						
<p>Topics of the Materials</p>						
<p>Totals</p>						

22. Synthesis

Identify and comment on the predominant educational value approach or approaches found in the program.	You may wish to comment on: — the degree to which each value approach appears in the summary checklist
	— the degree to which each value approach appears in the materials — the degree of consistency with the developer's rationale — the way in which each approach is reflected in the materials

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter three modes of educational materials analysis were identified. These were: the checklist mode, the descriptive-narrative mode, and the combine mode. A description of each mode was provided, identifying advantages and disadvantages of each method of analysis. From this review, the combine mode of analysis appears to be the most appropriate for the Values Materials Analysis System, for it blends the objective statements of the checklist mode with the personal descriptions and insights of the descriptive-narrative mode.

This chapter also presents the Values Materials Analysis System. The format of the analysis system was explained and the distinct role of the analyst using the system was identified. An instrument was developed for the use of analysts of curriculum materials.

CHAPTER V

Application of the Values Materials Analysis System

Introduction

In Chapter IV, three forms of analysis - the checklist mode, the descriptive-narrative mode, and the combined mode - were identified and explicated.

It also presented the Values Materials Analysis System which is based on the combined mode. The chapter identified the format of the Values Materials Analysis System, how the analyst was to use the schema, and the role the analyst should take in completing the analysis.

In this chapter, the Values Materials Analysis System is applied to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? (1979). This is done in order to discover whether the schema does provide an analysis which is objective as well as interpretive, and whether in fact, the schema does identify the value approach or approaches contained in the materials.

The Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? was chosen for analysis for two reasons.

1. The kit was developed under the Alberta Heritage Learning Resource Project and was distributed to every junior high school in the province. It is therefore a resource which is common to all grade 9 classes in Alberta.
2. Upon interviewing the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, Frank A. Crowther, the writer of this thesis discovered that no form of analysis had been done on any of the Kanata Kits.

Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? is a multimedia kit containing a teacher's guide, student booklets, filmstrips, videotapes and transparencies. The kit examines the role of the television and radio broadcasting industry in Canada. The kit explores the social issue of whether the broadcasting industry should be a force for developing Canadian identity and promoting unity within the country.

The analysis of the Kanata Kit Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? follows. Included are the directions for the analyst, the six basic information questions, the fourteen characteristic sections, a summary checklist, and the synthesis section.

Directions for Use

1. Examine the educational materials thoroughly before you begin the analysis.
2. Review the detailed descriptions and the summary chart of the six educational value approaches, so that you are familiar with their features and their distinguishing characteristics. The detailed descriptions and the summary chart should be used as a reference when completing the summary checklist and the synthesis sections.
3. Complete the questions on basic information about the materials.
4. Complete the detailed analysis characteristic sections. You should describe, not evaluate, the characteristics fully. You should quote or paraphrase from the educational materials analyzed whenever possible.
5. After completing a detailed analysis section, check the appropriate blank in the "degree of certainty" scale. The degree of

certainty scale is provided so that you may feel more comfortable about completing a section. Some descriptions may require interpretation on your part.

6. Upon completion of the characteristic sections, review the detailed analysis and examine the value approaches summary chart. Next complete the summary checklist, identifying the approach or approaches contained in each characteristic.

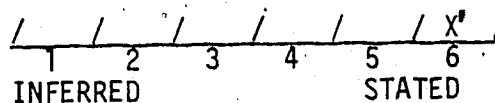
7. Review the detailed analysis and the summary checklist, and then complete the synthesis section. In the synthesis section, you should identify the extent to which each approach is present in the materials.

The completion of the educational materials analysis is rigorous. The identification of educational value approaches in materials requires time and effort. An analysis which is incomplete or done in a perfunctory manner provides little useful information for those who will use it as a basis for the materials evaluation.

The Instrument

1. Program Title: Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?
2. Author(s): Alberta Heritage Learning Resources Project
3. Publisher: Alberta Education
4. Copyright Date(s): 1979
5. Medium: (Check more than one if applicable.)
- print - student text
- print - teacher's guide
- reel-to-reel or cassette tape, record
- filmstrip
- videotape
- other - specify: overhead transparencies
6. Materials Analyzed: (Check one.)
- complete package
- partial package (if partial package, state which parts were analyzed and which parts were omitted)
- Teacher's Guide and Learner Materials

Degree of Certainty Scale



7. Rationale

Describe the developer's rationale, the main outcomes the materials are attempting to achieve.

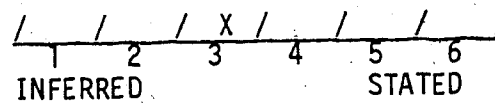
The developer's rationale for this program is to have students come to understand and resolve the social issue "Should radio and television be used to develop a Canadian identity and to promote national unity?" (p. ix, Teacher's Guide). By examining this issue, students will gain specific knowledge about the broadcasting industry, its historical development, the present day situation, the variety of views as to the industry's purpose, and the rules and regulations governing the industry (pp. x - xii, Teacher's Guide).

The developers also see this program as "helping students acquire sensitivity to their human and natural environments, intellectual independence, moral maturity and a willingness to participate effectively in community affairs" (p. iii, Teacher's Guide).

You may wish to report on the attempt to achieve or develop in students:

- specific knowledge
- prechosen values
- moral reasoning ability
- logical thinking
- discussion
- analysis skills
- clarification of personal values
- actualization of personal values
- social action abilities and skills
- caring and understanding attitude
- behaviour consistent with either:
 - personal values
 - societal values

Degree of Certainty Scale



8. Nature of Man

Describe the developer's view of the nature of man and how man acts or reacts to his environment.

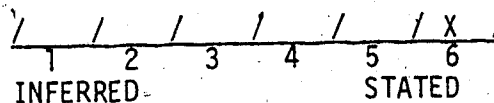
The developer of this program has stressed the development of logical thinking and rational arguments. Man's expressions of his opinions and beliefs are seen as items which can be analyzed and verified. The analyst therefore infers that the developer views man as a rational being, suppressing his emotions to logic.

The developer also stresses that television is a pervasive element in our society. By acting to control this media, Canadians can partially solve their problems of unity and identity. The analyst therefore infers that the developer sees man as an active initiator in his environment, acting rationally in his environment to solve his social problems.

You may wish to report on assumptions made about man:

- as an emotional being
- as a rational being
- as an emotional-rationale being
- as a reactor to the environment
- as an active initiator in the environment
- as interactive with the environment

Degree of Certainty Scale



9. Purpose-Skills

Describe the developer's purpose in regards to the skills students will acquire.

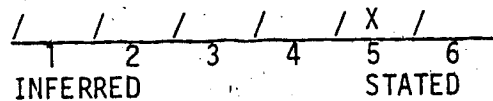
The developer has designed the program to develop the following skills in students:

- 1) recognizing, extracting, and applying data from both written and audio-visual materials,
- 2) recognizing connection between past and present events,
- 3) interpreting and constructing graphic materials from primary sources,
- 4) developing analytical questions,
- 5) recognizing conflict and analyzing the reasons for conflict,
- 6) analyzing the opinions of others and the importance of those opinions,
- 7) evaluating policies and regulations, and deciding which are most desirable,
- 8) working in groups,
- 9) analyzing various courses of action,
- 10) making reasoned conclusions (pp. x - xii and pp. 2 - 97, Teacher's Guide).

You may wish to report on the following skills:

- listening and attending
- logical thinking and reasoning
- self-awareness
- discussion analysis
- decision-making
- decision application
- conflict resolution
- group work
- community involvement
- recognizing emotions
- recognizing points of view

Degree of Certainty Scale



10. Purpose-Attitudes

Describe the developer's purpose in regards to the attitudes students will acquire.

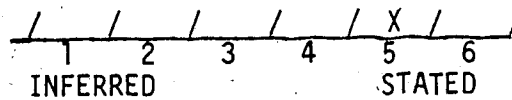
The developer sees the program as developing the following attitudes in students:

- 1) a sense of personal identity and a sense of Canadian identity, a pride in being Canadian,
- 2) a sense of fairness and justice, each student treating his fellow students with respect and toleration with regard to their opinions and beliefs,
- 3) self-actualization, taking social action based upon one's beliefs
- 4) consistent behaviour between their values and their actions (Teacher's Guide).

You may wish to report on the following feelings or attitudes:

- acceptance of the values taught
- empathy
- sense of justice
- fairness
- consistent behaviour
- sense of identity
- equality
- care and consideration
- helping, giving support
- self-actualization

Degree of Certainty Scale



11. Valuing

Describe how the developer views the process of valuing

Although the developer has not directly stated how he views the process of valuing, he has stated that students will be involved in the processes of:

- 1) "evaluating policies ..."
- 2) "making choices as to the most desirable policies ..."
- 3) "clarifying their own beliefs ..."
- 4) "choosing policies consistent with their beliefs ..."
- 5) "analyzing various courses of action ..."
- 6) "Choosing a course of action ..."
- 7) "assessing the advantages and disadvantages of a course of action" (pp. x - xi; Teacher's Guide)

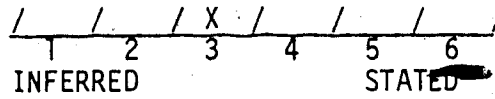
From these statements and from examining the various activities in the product, the analyst has inferred that the developer views valuing primarily as a process of intellectual inquiry and as a process of actualization tempered by social factors and group pressures.

Although not stated in the materials the program does attempt to develop students' pride of Canada and a respect for its institutions. Therefore the analyst also infers that an underlying view of valuing is as a process of identification and socialization.

You may wish to report on valuing as seen as a process of:

- identification
- socialization
- development of moral reasoning patterns
- intellectual inquiry
- actualization tempered by social factors or group pressures
- actualization involving several steps
- expression of one's feelings and emotions through emotional experience

Degree of Certainty Scale



12. Values

Describe the developer's conception of values. Also describe the developer's conception of the source of values.

Although a great number of values are listed in the program, the developer has not provided a definition or statement of his concept of values, nor has he provided a statement as to the source of values.

The majority of the activities contained in the program stress the analysis of various value positions in relationship to the needs and desires of Canadians with respect to broadcasting. These activities also stress the formation of policies which would be most beneficial in meeting those needs and desires. From this, the analyst has inferred that the developer conceives of values mainly as an instrumental criteria for determining the goodness or worth of an action in a given situation.

The program directs students to identify their own values and compare them to the values held by the majority of Canadians. The analyst therefore infers that the developer conceives of the source of values as originating both from man and the society in which he lives.

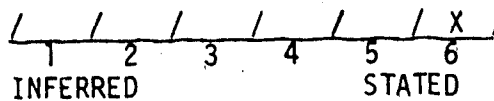
You may wish to report on values as being:

- rules or laws
- verifiable much like facts
- actions and behaviours
- relative to the needs of man or society
- instrumental criteria
- personal emotions or feelings
- no specific definition

The source of values may be conceived of as originating from:

- the society or culture
- a constitution or bill of rights
- God
- man

Degree of Certainty Scale



15. Instructional Model

Outline and/or describe the format or instructional model found in the materials.

There are two instructional models provided in this program, one for the teacher and one for the students. Both instructional models are linear in nature.

Teacher's Model

Opener

- 1) awareness of the problem
- 2) identifying the issue
- 3) developing research questions

Research

- 1) assemble evidence
- 2) evaluate evidence

Conclusion

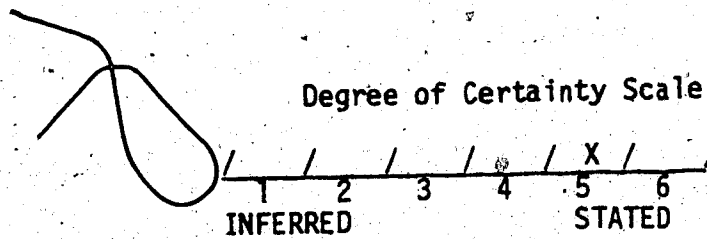
- 1) resolving the issue
- 2) applying a decision
(p. xiii, Teacher's Guide)

Students' Model - adapted from Banks and Clegg

"Making a Decision"

1. Problem - identify the problem
2. Inquiry - identify and clarify the major values related to the problem
3. Clarification - identify the personal values we hold
4. Decision - identify various possible courses of action and their consequences. Select a course of action
5. Action - Act upon the decision
(p. 88, Teacher's Guide)"

You may wish to report on whether the model is:
 linear in nature
 circular in nature
 flexible in nature



18. Emphasis of the Materials

Describe the content of the materials in relation to its focus and emphasis.

The developers have made values education the major focus of the materials. The materials present a great deal of information of various aspects of the broadcasting industry in Canada: its historical development, the present day situation, and the major problems surrounding policy decisions. The content was selected to provide a knowledge base for students about Canada and about broadcasting. The developers, however, designed the materials so that this content will be used primarily to resolve the social issue "Should radio and television be used to develop a Canadian identity to promote national unity?" (p. ix, Teacher's Guide)

The materials focus mainly on the process of valuing. The materials stress the point of coming to a reasoned decision on the social issue, expressing one's decision, and then acting upon one's decision. Since the developer stresses reasoned decisions, the materials also focus on the content of values. The materials emphasize the identification of personal value stances, the value stances of significant Canadians, and the value stances of the general Canadian population. (Teacher's Guide and Learner Materials)

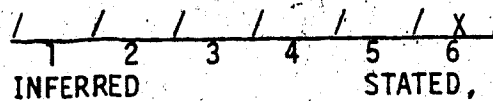
You may wish to report on whether the content's focus on values education is:

- the major focus
- one of several concerns
- a peripheral focus

You may also wish to report on whether the content focuses on:

- the process of valuing
- the content of the values
- both the process and content
- the personal value issues or problems
- social issues
- community concerns

Degree of Certainty Scale



19. Format of the Materials

Describe the mode or format of the content

The format of the content in this program is primarily a modification of the case studies grouped around a social issue format. The readings in this program are not characterized by the usual case study, a story which is personal in nature with a specific incident that comes to a conclusion. Rather, these materials are characterized by readings which are very general in nature. They provide information and contain different viewpoints related to the social issue.

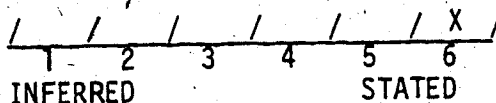
One section of the materials uses the clarification response strategy format. This section contains a shield by which students, through drawing, express and identify their personal values. The materials contain examples of a data collection instrument which is used by students to gather information on their radio listening and television viewing habits. This instrument is used both for self-analysis and data collection. The simulation game requires role playing; however, it is not structured in the format of an emotional expression or sensitivity activity. Rather the developer has structured the game so that students will re-evaluate their prior decisions on the social issue.

The materials list a number of social action suggestions; however, these activities do not follow the community action suggestions format.

You may wish to comment on whether the materials are:

- readings with specific or implied morals
- readings that are slanted towards a specific value outcome
- case studies grouped around a social issue
- value dilemmas
- episodes
- clarification
- response strategy activities
- self-analysis worksheets
- data collection instruments for use in the class and the community
- personal problem situations
- readings designed to promote emotional expression
- suggestions for community action
- sensitivity activities

Degree of Certainty Scale



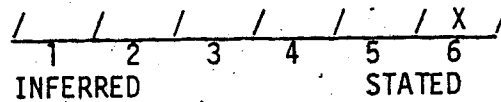
19. Format of the Materials (continued)

Within the student action suggestions, the developer has not included activities which would ask the students to identify the course of action which would have the greatest effect, nor are the students required to identify the probable effects of their action.

The format of some of the materials is slanted towards a specific value outcome. The "Images of Canada" lesson (pp. 2 - 6, Teacher's Guide), for example, asks students to identify pictures as being either American or Canadian. Through the selection of pictures not easily identifiable as Canadian (such as the Plains of Abraham, the Seven Oaks Massacre site, or the Anik satellite), the students are manipulated into agreeing that their American television viewing is the cause of their lack of knowledge about Canada. The lesson on identification of famous Canadian and American inventors (pp. 7 - 9, Teacher's Guide) continues the manipulation.

To some degree the materials seem to have been written to induce students to come to a pre-determined answer on the social issue. The students are asked if broadcasting should be used to promote national unity (p. ix, Teacher's Guide). However, at the end of the program, students are asked "What might happen to Canada if there was no binding force such as Broadcasting?" (p. 92, Teacher's Guide).

Degree of Certainty Scale



20. Topics of the Materials

List the topics which the developer has emphasized in the materials. Also comment on the depth of coverage.

The broadcasting industry in Canada is the central theme around which this program is based. The topics that the developer has emphasized under this central theme are:

- 1) world famous Canadian entertainers - 1 page
- 2) famous Canadian inventions - 5 pages
- 3) opinions on the purpose of broadcasting in Canada - 4 pages
- 4) Canadian television viewing habits, Canadian vs. U.S. programs - 4 pages
- 5) the positive and negative effects of television on individual actions - 4 pages
- 6) the impact of the television on the Canadian culture - 8 pages
- 7) history of early broadcasting in Canada - 7 pages
- 8) comparison of 1930's radio broadcasts to 1970's broadcasts - 3 pages
- 9) the power of early radio, the "War of the Worlds" broadcast - 4 pages
- 10) history of the C.B.C. - 4 pages
- 11) public and private ownership of broadcasting in Canada - 2 pages
- 12) role of the C.R.T.C. - 3 pages (pp. 3 - 48, Learner Materials).

You may wish to include the following topics:

- rules, laws, justice, authority punishment
- property
- life, liberty
- the environment
- welfare
- prejudice, race relations
- minority rights
- foreign policy
- politics
- women's rights
- the poor
- religion
- love, sex
- money
- aging
- death
- war, peace
- personal attitudes

21. Summary Checklist

Using the detailed descriptions and the chart in chapter 3 as a reference examine the analysis of each characteristic in the schema and then fill in the appropriate square or squares in the summary checklist.	Inculcation Approach	Moral Development Approach	Analysis Approach	Clarification Approach	Action Learning Approach	Emotional-Rational Approach
Rationale			X	X	X	
Nature of Man			X			
Purpose-Skills			X	X	X	
Purpose-Attitudes	X		X	X	X	
Valuing	X		X		X	
Values			X		X	
Fundamental or Ultimate Values			X	X	X	
Teaching Methods	X		X	X	X	
Instructional Model			X			
Role of Student			X	X	X	
Role of Teacher			X	X	X	
Emphasis of the Materials			X			
Format of the Materials	X		X	X	X	
Topics of the Materials			X			
Totals		0	14	8	10	0

22. Synthesis

Identify and comment on the predominant educational value approach or approaches found in the program.

The analysis approach is the predominant educational value approach found in this program. The summary checklist indicates that 14 out of 14 characteristics match the features of the analysis approach. From the detailed analysis of the characteristics, it is apparent that this is quite consistent with the developer's rationale. The analysis approach is reflected in the program by:

- 1) the entire program being designed to have the students examine and solve a social issue.
- 2) the instructional model being adapted directly from analysis authors (Banks and Clegg),
- 3) the majority of the activities and learning materials following the process of examining and answering questions related to the social issue, and
- 4) over 70% of the individual lessons using the analysis approach in their teaching methods.

The action learning approach is the second most predominant educational value approach found in this program. The summary checklist indicates that 10 out of 14 characteristics match the features of the action learning approach. From the detailed analysis, it is apparent that the inclusion of this second approach is consistent with the developer's expressed rationale. The action learning approach is reflected in the program mainly by the inclusion of four social-action project suggestions. Many of the characteristics found in the action learning approach are similar to those

You may wish to comment on:

the degree to which each value approach appears in the summary checklist

the degree to which each value approach appears in the materials

the degree of consistency with the developer's rationale

the way in which each approach is reflected in the materials

22. Synthesis (continued)

found in the analysis approach. This is due to the fact that the action learning approach requires the analysis of the issue before one takes actions.

The clarification approach is the third most predominant educational value approach found in this program. The summary checklist indicates that 8 out of 14 characteristics match the features of the clarification approach. From the detailed analysis, it is apparent that the inclusion of this third approach is also consistent with the developer's expressed rationale. The clarification approach is reflected in the program mainly by the inclusion of a number of activities which have students:

- 1) discussing their own values in relationship to a social issue,
- 2) identifying the features of their own identity (the shield exercise), and
- 3) analyzing their own behaviour to identify their personal values (the radio listening and television viewing habits analysis activity).

The inculcation approach is the fourth educational value approach found in this program. The summary checklist indicates that 4 out of 14 characteristics match the features of the inculcation approach. From the detailed analysis, it is apparent that the inclusion of this fourth approach is not consistent with the developer's expressed rationale. However, inculcation is implied in the purpose-attitude characteristic (a pride in Canada), and the fundamental or ultimate values characteristic (Canadian unity, nationalism, and anti-Americanism). The inculcation approach is reflected in the program mainly by:

- 1) the materials which are slanted towards a specific value outcome (the images of Canada and the famous inventors lessons), and

22. Synthesis (continued)

2) the structure of the program which leads the students to a pre-chosen answer on the social issue (Canadian broadcasting is a unifying force).

The detailed analysis indicated that no characteristics matched the features of the moral development of the emotional-rational approaches.

Summary of the Chapter

The analysis indicates that Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice For Unity? contains four educational value approaches. The predominant approach is the Analysis approach, followed by the Action Learning, Clarification, and Inculcation approaches. The materials do not contain any characteristics which are common to the Moral Development or the Emotional-Rational approaches.

It is not unexpected that more than one approach would appear in any given set of educational materials. Considering that Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? was written by a committee, with input from many individuals, one would likely expect to find many different approaches included in the kit. Further discussion of this analysis will be written in Chapter VI.

The results from the Values Materials Analysis System indicate that it is possible to identify the value approaches contained in educational materials. The schema also appears to provide an analysis which is both objective and interpretive. It must be noted that the analysis was not done with the purpose of criticizing or evaluating the Canadian Broadcasting kit, but rather to test the usefulness of the series of questions that were developed for the Values Materials Analysis System.

CHAPTER VI

Summary and Discussion

Introduction

Can you tell me Socrates -- can virtue be taught?
Or if not, does it come by practise? Or does it
come neither by practise nor by teaching, but do
people get it by nature, or in some other way?
(Rouse, p. 28)

From the time of Plato to the present, teachers have viewed values as an important educational concern. Especially within the past two decades, educators have been struggling to find the answers to the questions that Meno posed to Socrates. As a result of this interest, an enormous mass of educational literature suggesting ways to deal with values and valuing has been produced. Thus an educator who is interested in values is confronted with three related and arresting realities:

1. the confusion and conflict over the numerous approaches to teaching values and valuing,
2. the proliferation of educational materials dealing with values and valuing, and
3. the difficulties of determining which value approaches are contained by educational materials.

Of these three problems facing the teacher interested in values education, the third problem, determining which value approaches are contained in a set of educational materials, seems to the writer to be the most intriguing. This problem has been examined in this thesis.

This chapter summarizes the material presented in the earlier chapters of the thesis. It reviews and discusses the results of the application of the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit -

Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? The chapter looks at the uses of the Values Materials Analysis System for social studies, for education in general, and for areas outside education. Finally, suggestions for further research are made.

Summary of Chapters

In Chapter I, six objectives of the study are outlined as follows:

1. to identify the approaches to teaching values suggested by leading social studies educators.
2. to identify the teaching models within the various approaches
3. to identify certain characteristics for each approach: the rationale, the purpose, the definitions of values and valuing, the teacher's and student's roles, the teaching methods and instructional models, and the type of content
4. to develop the Values Materials Analysis System for identifying value approaches in educational materials
5. to apply the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?
6. to analyze the data from the Values Materials Analysis System to determine which value approach or approaches are contained in the kit.

The introductory chapter also defines such terms as values, valuing, values education, values education approach, instructional materials, Values Materials Analysis System, values typology, and values model.

Chapter II examines those authors who are concerned with values as they relate to society and the educational system. This section of the chapter examines the ground-breaking work of Mead, Kluckholm, Spindler, and Lasswell in relation to the nature and orientations of values. Five different theories which attempt to account for the origin and development of an individual's values are also presented. These five theories - the psychoanalytical developmental theory, social learning theory, the cognitive developmental theory, cognitive dissonance theory, and cognitive decision making theory - attempt to explain the transmission and modification of an individual's values. Four typologies which attempt to provide some order and classification to the various approaches used to teach values are examined. The typologies are those of Bond, Stewart, Hodgkinson, and Superka.

Chapter II also presents a new six-category typology which identifies the Inculcation, Moral Development, Analysis, Clarification, Action Learning, and Emotional-Rational approaches. The first five approaches are taken from Superka's 1975 typology. The sixth category, the Emotional-rational approach, is added by the writer of this thesis to include the work of McPhail.

Chapter III, the main body of this thesis, identifies the distinguishing characteristics of the six educational value approaches.

Each approach is explicated in the following manner:

1. the rationale is identified and the nature of man as viewed by the proponents of the approach is explained.
2. the purpose, the specific skills and the attitudes that the approach is trying to achieve, is explained,

3. the process of valuing is explained, as are the nature and source of values, and the fundamental or ultimate values that the approach sets forth,
4. the teaching methods and the instructional model are identified,
5. the roles of the teacher and the student that the approach dictates are identified,
6. the characteristics of the teaching and learning materials are identified, and
7. an illustrative learning activity is provided for each approach.

Chapter IV identifies three modes of analysis: the checklist mode, the descriptive-narrative mode, and the combined mode. A description of each mode is provided, identifying the advantages and disadvantages of each method of analysis. The combined mode is chosen as the most suitable form to follow in the development of the Values Materials Analysis System.

The format of the Values Materials Analysis System and the distinct role of the analyst using the Values Materials Analysis System are described. A set of directions for the use of the system and the actual materials of the Values Materials Analysis System, the specific questions, summary checklist, and synthesis section are set forth.

Chapter V applies the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? and presents the results of the analysis.

Review and Discussion of the Analysis

The results of the Values Materials Analysis System indicate that Analysis is the predominant educational value approach found in Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?. The summary checklist indicates that fourteen out of fourteen characteristics match the features of this approach. The second most predominant approach is Action Learning, with ten out of fourteen characteristics matching this approach's features. The Clarification approach is the third most predominant approach. The Summary Checklist indicates that eight out of fourteen characteristics match this approach's distinguishing features. Inculcation is the other approach found in the materials. The summary checklist indicates that four out of fourteen characteristics match this approach's distinguishing features. The analysis indicates that no characteristics match the features of the Moral Development or Emotional-Rational approaches. The analysis also indicates that the inclusion of the Analysis, Action Learning, and Clarification approaches is consistent with the developer's stated rationale and that the inclusion of the Inculcation approach is not. The critique indicates, therefore, that the Analysis, Action Learning, Clarification, and Inculcation approaches are all contained in the materials.

It is not surprising that more than one value approach should be found in the materials under study. First, Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity? was written by a committee, with input from many individuals. The writer of this thesis speculates that the developers of this kit were not given a mandate to produce materials using exclusively one approach. It is not unexpected, therefore, to find four

different approaches included in the kit. Second, many features of the Action Learning and Clarification approaches are closely related to those of the analysis approach. Since the Analysis approach is predominant, it is, therefore, not surprising that many characteristics common to the Action Learning and Clarification approaches also appear in the analysis. Third, differences exist among these approaches. It would be difficult, therefore, to create materials containing characteristics of just one of the approaches and not the other two. Fourth, it is not totally surprising to find the Inculcation approach contained in the materials. To prevent the use of inculcation would require a conscious effort on the developers' part not to guide the students toward a conclusion favoured by the developers. The writer of this thesis speculates that the developers had already come to a decision on the social issue they presented before they selected or created the materials.

The Moral Development approach is a very prevalent topic in the social studies literature. Developers are usually very familiar with moral development and many different instructional materials have been produced using this approach. Due to its popularity, the writer of this thesis was surprised at the absence of this approach. One can only speculate whether the developers of this kit were given either a directive or made a conscious choice not to use the Moral Development approach in the materials.

It is not surprising to find the Emotional-Rational approach excluded from the materials. This is due, the writer believes, to the fact that very few developers are familiar with educational values materials produced outside North America.

Review and Discussion of the Instrument

The Values Materials Analysis System identifies fourteen characteristics that educational materials must be analyzed in terms of:

1. rationale
2. nature of man
3. purpose - skills
4. purpose - attitude
5. valuing
6. values
7. fundamental or ultimate values
8. teaching methods
9. instructional model
10. role of student
11. role of teacher
12. emphasis of materials
13. format of materials
14. topics of materials

It also contains a summary checklist and a synthesis section where the predominant value approaches are identified.

In applying the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?, the writer of this thesis finds the analysis system does identify the values approaches contained in the materials. The system is relatively straightforward to use. However, some characteristics were found easier to identify than others. The easiest characteristics to identify were the instructional model

and the topics of the materials. The characteristics which required the greatest amount of interpretation were the developer's view of the nature of man, values, and the process of valuing.

It is necessary, however, for the analyst to be very familiar with both the materials under examination and the distinguishing features of the educational value approaches. A training program to educate potential analysts in these features and the use of the Values Materials Analysis System would be necessary. An analysis of good quality can only be achieved if a perfunctory approach is avoided.

Upon completion of the application of the Values Materials Analysis System to the Kanata Kit - Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?, the writer of this thesis became aware that a number of characteristics appear to be more important than others in distinguishing value approaches. It seems that the nature of man, the instructional model, and the emphasis of the materials are the key characteristics which identify the major value approach. An analyst should be directed, therefore, to pay particularly close attention to them. The teaching methods, purpose-attitudes, and format of the materials are the key characteristics which identify all of the value approaches contained in the materials. These too may warrant close attention.

Other Uses of the Values Materials Analysis System

The Values Materials Analysis System was primarily designed as an analytical instrument to be used in identifying the value approach or approaches contained in Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?. This instrument could be successfully applied however in other areas.

In Social Studies:

1. this instrument could be used to assist teachers in coming to know which approaches are inherent in the instructional materials they are already using in their classrooms,
2. a completed analysis would greatly assist teachers in the process of selecting instructional materials for use in their classrooms, and
3. this instrument, in conjunction with EPIE, would assist Alberta Education in choosing materials for authorization.

For education in general, the Values Materials Analysis System could be used for:

1. general library use: to assist teachers and university students in becoming quickly acquainted with the materials in a curriculum library, a set of completed analysis forms on the materials could be compiled.
2. in-service education: to stimulate teachers, through application of the analysis system, to become acquainted with new materials that have been selected for use and to help them become acquainted with the various approaches used in teaching values and valuing.
3. curriculum development: to suggest to curriculum developers dimensions of values education that they might take into consideration in their work and to provide them with an instrument with which they could analyze and evaluate their materials while they are still at the formation stage.

4. university curriculum and instruction: to acquaint students with the different educational value approaches, to introduce students to the dimensions of values curriculum construction, to acquaint students with a broad range of curriculum materials through the study of analyses done by others, and to acquaint students with materials analysis by having them perform a values materials analysis of their own.
5. for other subject areas: to identify value approaches in materials that are used in areas such as language arts. The instrument might need revision to suit this purpose.

With some revision, the Values Materials Analysis System could be used outside the field of education. It should, in theory, be possible to detect value approaches in any written materials. It could be used in business, therefore, to analyze the value approaches found in materials written by people in a company (memos, policy statements, training booklets). In the same way, it could be used to analyze the value approaches found in materials produced by governments. This would be particularly interesting in materials dealing with law, relations between the government and the people, and platform or policy statements of political parties.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study generates a number of other possible research projects:

1. A study should be done to test the reliability and validity of the Values Materials Analysis System. The study should use a number of trained analysts, applying the instrument to the same

instructional materials. An analyst who is as familiar with the Values Materials Analysis System and the Kanata Kit as the writer of this thesis might produce an analysis which is different from the one presented.

2. The analysis of the Canadian Broadcasting kit did not detect any characteristics common to the Moral Development or the Emotional-Rational approaches. A study could be completed on other educational materials to determine if the Values Materials Analysis System is able to identify characteristics common to all of the educational value approaches. If not, then revisions to the analysis system would be indicated.

3. The discussion of the analysis in Chapter VI indicates that certain characteristics seem to be key areas in determining which approaches are contained in educational materials. A study could be completed to determine whether a shorter form of the Values Materials Analysis System, using these characteristics, could be effectively developed.

4. This study applied the Values Materials Analysis System to only one of the Kanata Kits. The analysis system could be applied to the other kits to determine which value approaches are contained in these materials and to determine if the same approaches appear throughout the entire series.

5. The Values Materials Analysis System could be applied to a number of educational materials to determine whether certain approaches were common to a specific grade or school division.

6. A historical educational materials analysis study could be completed using the Values Materials Analysis System. This study could investigate which value approach or approaches were common in textbooks in certain periods of history.

In Retrospect

Readers of this thesis are reminded that the writer has not attempted to establish definitive values or a particular approach whereby they may be taught. Yet, different values may derive from particular materials and methods of teaching. One should be concerned, therefore, that teachers and authors of curriculum be aware of connections among materials, methods and possible outcomes.

This study is an attempt to develop a structured system that might assist educators in coming to understand the various approaches used to teach values and valuing. It is also an attempt to develop an analysis system that would assist educators in identifying the educational value approaches contained in curriculum materials. It is hoped that this study will provide some structured guidelines which might help to build a comprehensive program of values education in order to foster the greatest possible expression and development of values by school-age children and youth.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alberta Education. Kanata Kit 9, Canadian Broadcasting: A Voice for Unity?. Edmonton: Alberta Education, 1979.
- Arnett, W.E. "Education as Preparation for Relevant Judgements." Journal of General Education. April, 1958.
- Arnspringer, V.C., J.A. Brill, and A.R. Rucker. Values to Learn: Teacher's Edition. (The Human Values Series), Austin, Texas: Steck-Vaughn Co., 1967.
- Association for Values Education and Research. The Elderly. Vancouver: University of British Columbia, 1976.
- Association for Values Education and Research. Prejudice. Vancouver: University of British Columbia, 1978.
- Bandura, A. Principles of Behavior Modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.
- Bandura, A. and R.H. Walters. Social Learning and Personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963.
- Banks, J.A. "A Content Analysis of the Black American in Textbooks." Social Education. December, 1969.
- Banks, J.A. and A.A. Clegg. Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies. Second edition. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1977.
- Barr, R. "The Development of Action Learning Programs." NASSP Bulletin. May, 1976.
- Beck, C.M. "Place of Values in the Study of Society." School and Society. February, 1967.
- Beck, C.M., B.S. Crittenden, and E.V. Sullivan. (Eds.) Moral Education: An Interdisciplinary Approach. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1971.
- Beyer, S. and K. Barry. "Conducting Moral Discussions in the Classroom." Social Education. April, 1976.
- Bigge, M. Positive Relativism: An Emergent Educational Philosophy. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.
- Blatt, M. "The Effects of Classroom Discussion Programs upon Childrens Level of Moral Development." (Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1969). Dissertation Abstracts International. 1970. p. 85 A.

- Bond, D.J. An Analysis of Valuation Strategies in Social Studies Educational Materials. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Berkeley: University of California, 1971.
- Brackenbury, R.L. "Development of Values." National Elementary Principals, February, 1964.
- Brauner, C.J. "The First Probe." in R. Kraft et. al. Four Evaluation Examples: Anthropological, Economic, Narrative, and Portrayal. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1974.
- Brown, G. Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education. New York: The Viking Press, 1971.
- Burns, J.A. Evaluation of Curriculum Materials for Sexism in Language Arts, Social Studies and Counseling. Indianapolis: Indiana University Press, 1979.
- Casteel, D.J. and R.J. Stahl. Value Clarification in the Classroom: A Primer. Pacific Palisades: Goodyear Publishing Co. Inc., 1975.
- Clark, R.J., M. van Manen, and G. Milburn. "A Case Study in Canadian Curriculum Materials Analysis." Canadian Journal of Education. 2:1, 1977. pp. 65 - 72.
- Coombs, J.R. "Objectives of Value Analysis" in L.E. Metcalf (Ed.) Valuing Education: Rationale, Strategies, and Procedures. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.
- Craig, R.P. "Education for Justice: Some Comments on Piaget." Contemporary Education. Winter, 1976. pp. 69 - 73.
- Dabrowski, K. Personality-shaping Through Positive Disintegration. Boston: Little, Brown, 1967.
- Dewey, J. and J. Tufts. Ethics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1932.
- Eisner, E.W. and E. Vallance. (Eds.) Conflicting Conceptions of Curriculum. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1974.
- Elder, C.A. Values and Moral Development in Children. Nashville: Broadman Press, 1976.
- Enbretson, W.E. "Values of Children, How They Develop." Child Health Education. February, 1959.
- E.P.I.E. form. New York: Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, 1977.

E.P.I.E. Workshop Manual: Instructional Design Analysis Training.
New York: Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, 1978.

Erikson, E.H. Children in Society. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books Ltd., 1973.

Estvan, R.T. Developing Cognitive Objectives, Social Studies in a Changing World. San Francisco: Harcourt, Brace, and World Inc., 1968.

Fenton, E. The New Social Studies. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1967.

Fenton E. "Inquiry and Structure." National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: 1968. pp. 90 -94.

Fiegl, H. Concepts and the Structure of Knowledge: Concepts and Structures in the New Social Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Fraenkel, J.R. "Value Education in the Social Studies." Phi Delta Kappan. April, 1969.

Fraenkel, J.R. How to Teach About Values: An Analysis Approach. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1977.

Galbraith, R.E. and T.M. Jones. Moral Reasoning: A Teaching Handbook for Adapting Kohlberg to the Classroom. Minneapolis: Greenhaven Press Inc., 1976.

Gayer, N. "On Making Morality Operational." Phi Delta Kappan. October, 1964.

Getzels, J.W. "Stable Identification in a World of Shifting Values." Educational Leadership. January, 1957. pp. 237 - 240.

Graham, E. The Role of the Teacher in Moral Education. Unpublished masters thesis, Edmonton: University of Alberta. 1978.

Goldmark, B. The Conditions of Learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1968.

Hague, W.J. "Positive Disintegration and Moral Education." Journal of Moral Education. Vol. 5, No. 3., 1976. pp. 231 - 240.

Hannaford, R.V. "Ethical Values in the Scientific Method." Liberal Education. March, 1962.

Harmin, M. and S. Simon. Values: The Teacher's Handbook. Glenview, Ill: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1971.

- Harmin, M., S. Simon and H. Kirschenbaum. Clarifying Values Through Subject Matter. Minneapolis: Winston Press, 1973.
- Hodgkinson, W.K. Values as an Affective Measure of Teacher Orientation to Innovation in Education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1974.
- Hunkins, F., L.H. Ehman, C.L. Hahn, J.L. Tucker and P.H. Martorella. Review of Research in Social Studies Education: 1970 - 1975. Joint publication, Washington, D.C. and Boulder, Colorado: E.R.I.C.: Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.
- Hunt, M.P. and L.E. Metcalf. Teaching High School Social Studies. Second edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.
- Jeffreys, M.V. "Confusion of Value and the Teacher Responsibility." Educational Forum. March, 1961. pp. 369 - 379.
- Jones, R. Finding Community: A Guide to Community Research and Action. Palo Alto: James E. Freel, 1971.
- Joyce, B. and M. Weil. Models of Teaching. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1972.
- Kirschenbaum, H. "Sensitivity Modules" in D.A. Reid and S. Simon (Eds.) Humanistic Education Sourcebook. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1975.
- Kluckhohn, F.R. "Dominant and Variant Value Orientations," in C. Kluckhohn, H.A. Murry and D. Schneider. (Eds.) Personality in Nature, Society and Culture. New York: Knopf, 1953. pp. 342 - 357.
- Knight, M. et. al. Curriculum Materials Analysis System: Revised May 1971: Long Form. Boulder Colorado: Social Studies Educational Consortium, 1971.
- Kohlberg, L. "A Cognitive-developmental Analysis of Children's Sex Role Concepts and Attitudes." in E. Maccoby (Ed.) The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Kohlberg, L. "Developmental and Education Psychology." Educational Psychologist. Winter, 1972.
- Kohlberg, L. "The Cognitive-Developmental Approach to Moral Education." in National Education Association. Washington, D.C.; National Education Association Publications, 1976. pp. 18 - 35.

- Kohlberg, L. and E. Turiel. "Moral Development and Moral Education." in G.S. Lesser (Ed.) Psychology and Educational Practice. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foreman and Co., 1971.
- Krathwohl, D. et. al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay, 1964.
- Lasch, C. The Culture of Narcissism. New York: Warner Books Inc., 1979.
- Lasswell, H.D. Power and Personality. New York: W.W. Norton and Co. Inc., 1948.
- Lodge, H. "Choosing Values in the Secondary Schools." California Journal of Secondary Education. April, 1958.
- Massialas, B.G. and C.B. Cox. Inquiry in the Social Studies. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- McDiarmid, G. and D. Pratt. Teaching Prejudice: A Content Analysis of Social Studies Textbooks Authorized in Ontario. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1971.
- Mead, M. "Teachers Place in American Society." Journal of American Association of University Women. 40: 1946. pp. 3 - 5.
- Mead, M. The School in American Culture. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951.
- Meek, C.R. "Personal Value System and Education." Peabody Journal of Education. January, 1965. pp. 224 - 228.
- Michaelis, J.U. and E.T. Keach. Teaching Strategies for Elementary School Social Studies. Itasca, Ill.: F.E. Peacock Publishers Inc., 1972.
- Milburn, G. "How are Social Studies Curriculum Materials Evaluated?" The History and Social Science Teacher. Summer, 1977.
- McPhail, P., J. Ungeod-Thomas, and H. Chapman. Lifeline: Moral Education in the Secondary School. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1972.
- McPhail, P., D. Middleton, and D. Ingram. Startline: Moral Education in the Middle Years. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1978.
- McGuire, W.J. "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change." in G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (Eds.), The Handbook of Social Psychology. Vol 3. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969.
- Morrissett, I., and W.W. Stevens Jr. "Curriculum Analysis." Social Education. October, 1967. pp. 483 - 489

- Morrisett, I., W.W. Stevens Jr., and C.P. Woodley. "A Model for Analyzing Curriculum Materials and Classroom Transactions." in D.M. Fraser (Ed.) Social Studies Curriculum Development: Projects and Problems. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1968.
- Nelson, M. and Michaelis, J.U. Social Studies for Children in a Democracy: Recent Trends and Developments. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Newmann, F. Education for Citizen Action. Berkeley: McCutcheon Publishing Co., 1975.
- Newmann, F. Social Action: Dilemmas and Strategies. (The Public Issues Series). Columbus, Ohio: Xerox Education Publications, 1972.
- Newmann, F. "Student Intentions in Social Action Projects." Social Science Education Consortium Newsletter, No. 12. February, 1972.
- Newmann, F., T. Bertocci, and R. Landness. Skills in Citizen Action. Madison: University of Wisconsin Publications, 1977.
- Newmann, F. and D. Oliver. Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Teaching Social Studies. Boston: Little and Brown, 1970.
- Nova Scotia Human Rights Commission. Textbook Analysis. Nova Scotia Human Rights Commission, 1974.
- Oliver, D. and J. Shaver. Teaching Public Issues in the High School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.
- Ontario Ministry of Education, Moral Education Project (Year 3) 1974-75. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1975.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. Moral/Values Clarification: A Comparison of Different Theoretical Models. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1975.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. Moral Education Project (Year 4): Annual Report. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1976.
- Parlett, M. "Evaluating Innovations in Teaching." in H.J. Butcher and E. Ruud (Ed.) Contemporary Problems in Higher Education: An Account of Research. London: McGraw Hill, 1972.
- Piaget, J. The Moral Judgement of the Child. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

- Pratt, D. "The Role of School Textbooks in Canada." in E. Zuriuk and R. Pike. (Ed.) Socialization and Values in Canadian Society. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Ltd., 1975.
- Raths, L., M. Harmin, and S. Simon. Values and Teaching. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966.
- Reich, C.A. The Greening of America. New York: Random House, 1970.
- Rich, J.M. Education and Human Values. Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1968.
- Rogers, C. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.
- Rokeach, M. The Open and Closed Mind. New York: Basic Books Inc., 1960.
- Rokeach, M. Beliefs, Attitudes and Values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1968.
- Rokeach, M. The Nature of Human Values. New York: The Free Press, 1973.
- Rouse, W. (Trans.) Great Dialogues of Plato. Toronto: Mentor, 1963.
- Rozak, T. The Making of a Counter Culture. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1969.
- Sanders, N.M. Classroom Questions: What Kinds? New York: Harper and Row, 1966.
- Sayer, J. Teaching Moral Values Through Behaviour Modification. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate, 1972.
- Scriven, M. Student Values as Educational Objectives. Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Educational Consortium, 1966.
- Shaftel, F.R. and G. Shaftel. Role-playing for Social Values: Decision Making in the Social Studies. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967.
- Shaver, J.P. "Reflective Thinking: Values and Social Studies Textbooks." School Review. Autumn, 1965. pp. 226 - 257.
- Shaver, J.P. and G. Larkins. Analysis of Public Issues Program: Instructor's Manual. Boston: Houghton - Mifflin, 1973.

- Silver, M. Values Education. Washinton, D.C.: National Education Association, 1976.
- Simon, F. "Moral Development: Some Suggested Implications for Teaching." Journal of Moral Education. Vol. 5, no. 2, 1976. pp. 173-178.
- Simon, F., L. Howe, and H. Kirschenbaum. Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students. New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972..
- Simpson, B.K. Becoming Aware of Values: A Resource Guide in the Use of Value Games. San Diego: Pennant Press, 1972.
- Skinner, B.F. Science and Human Behavior. New York: MacMillan, 1953.
- Spindler, G.D. "Education in a Transforming American Culture." Harvard University Review. 24: 1955. pp. 145 - 156.
- Stewart, J.S. Towards a Theory for Values Development Education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1974.
- Sulzer, B. Behavior Modification Procedures for School Personnel. New York: Dryden Press, 1972.
- Superka, D.P. A Typology of Valuing Theories and Value Education Approaches. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Berkeley: University of California, 1973.
- Superka, D.P., P. Johnson, and C. Ahrens. Values Education: Approaches and Materials. Boulder, Colorado: E.R.I.C. Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1975.
- Superka, D.P., et. al. Values Education Sourcebook. Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.
- Sweeney, J.A. and J.B. Parsons. "Teaching Preparation and Models for Teaching Controversial Social Issues." in R. Muessig (ed.) Controversial Issues in the Social Studies: A Contemporary Perspective. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1975.
- Taba, H. A Teacher's Handbook to Elementary Social Studies: An Inductive Approach. Menlo Park, California: Addison - Wesley, 1971.
- Toffler, A. Future Shock. New York: Random House, 1970.

Turiel, E. "Stage Transition in Moral Development." in R.M. Travers (Ed.) Second Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973. pp. 732 - 758.

van Mannen, J. "Assessing Opportunities for Moral Growth in Children's Literature," University of Alberta, 1978.

Watts, A.W. The Book: On The Taboo Against Knowing Who You Are. New York: Collier Books, 1967.

Wells, D.A. "Creation of Values." National Association of Women Deans and Counselors Journal. Winter, 1956.

Wilson, J., N. Williams, and B. Sugerman. Introduction to Moral Education. Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1967.

Wilson, J. A Teachers Guide to Moral Education. London: Geoffrey Chapman, 1973.

Wimpey, J.A. "Value Perspectives in Liberal Education." Peabody Journal of Education. March, 1961. pp. 285 - 291.

Zenger, W. and S. Zenger. Handbook for Evaluating and Selecting Textbooks. Belmont, California: Fearon Publishers Inc., 1976.