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Date May 13, 1976

THE ADAPTATION OF VALUES CLARIFICATION TECHNIQUES
TO THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE

by

LINDA KAYE SHADIOW

A professional paper submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

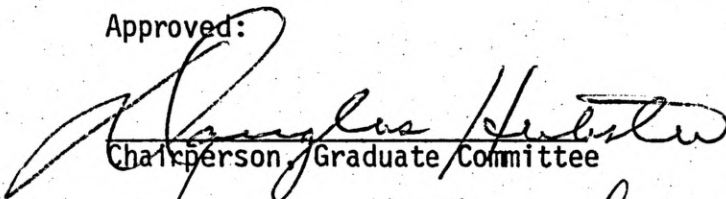
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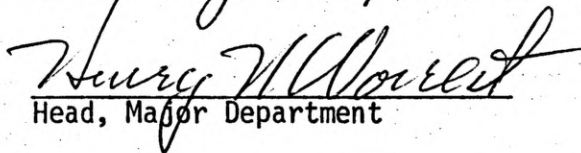
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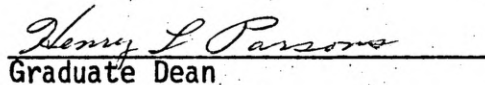
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ABSTRACT

This paper was written to provide a method for adapting values clarification techniques to the teaching of literature in secondary schools. It includes adaptations of strategies to specific pieces of literature from high school booklists.

A review of the values clarification literature shows that value theory is well-developed, but that application of that theory to specific subject matter areas is practically non-existent. The study of literature in English classes is experientially related to student's lives, and a method which recognizes and uses this relationship advantageously would strengthen the classroom experience of the student.

This paper is designed to act as a guideline for the adaptation of published strategies to a literature curriculum, for appropriate and effective use in a classroom.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

During the past century there has been considerable evolution in the goals of formal education. The educational perspective has broadened from a fact base to include additional emphasis on concepts and values. During the first part of this century United States educators defined knowledge as the ability to relate facts, but a visible change in educational theory moved schools away from the previous encompassing concentration on memorization. Educators began to recognize the importance of concepts--the generalizations, abstractions, and extensions of facts. The evolution continued with the developing awareness by psychologists and educators that a good factual and conceptual education was not insurance against personal unhappiness nor a guarantee of the ability for rational and abstract thought. As a result, a value level was added to the fact and concept level divisions of the definition of education (Harmin, 1973:21-4). The value level "relates subject matter to the lives of students--their interests, attitudes, concerns, feelings, and behaviors" (Harmin, 1973:25). By progressing in education from a fact through a concept to a value level a student gains an intellectual and personal view of a subject matter.

PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

The problem of this paper is to develop a method to facilitate the

implementation of a values clarification approach to the teaching of literature in secondary classrooms.

Theory regarding the integration of the value level into education has recently progressed from definitions and explanations to the creation of classroom tools--strategies--that enable the teacher to work on that level. Strategies are created as vehicles which allow students to deal with value questions directly (e.g., list your goals in life, rank your ten most important possessions). These have been used successfully by church school, elementary, and health/family-life teachers. However, a study has revealed that the subject matter orientation of secondary teachers has been a substantial stumbling block to the development of an interest in using value level material in high school classes (Raths, 1966:208). Some secondary English teachers have singled out one day a week for value strategy work. The result has been that values have existed in those classes as an entity separate from the curricular material. But literature is inherently value-oriented. It would seem that taking "a day out for values" would be harboring a terrible incongruity. An applicable method for combining value theory and strategies with the subject matter of literature has not heretofore been developed.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms *value*, *value indicator*, *values clarification*, and

strategy have various definitions. It is important to understand their specific usage for the context of this paper.

Value

A value is a behavior, attitude or belief which fulfills these seven criteria: (1) chosen from alternatives; (2) chosen after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative; (3) chosen freely; (4) prized with gladness; (5) prized with a willingness to publicly affirm the choice; (6) acted upon with an incorporation of the choice into behavior; (7) acted upon repeatedly (Raths, 1966:259).

Value Indicator

A value indicator is a behavior, attitude or belief which fulfills some but not all of the seven criteria for a value (Simon, 1974:xiv).

Values Clarification

Values clarification is a process which uses strategies to create time and opportunities for people to deal with their values: to enhance, affirm, elaborate, clarify or change their values (Paulson, 1974b:8).

Strategy

A strategy is a vehicle which has been created for the purpose of accomplishing the goals of values clarification. "[Strategies] are working tools for serious self-research" (Simon, 1974:xvi).

SUMMARY

While educators have agreed that the educational process should allow students to examine and explore the values in their lives, the subject matter concentration in secondary schools has made it difficult to apply the theory at that level. Since the study of literature deals inherently with human values, it would seem that this subject matter could bridge theory and practice. English teachers need a method that allows for the integration of values clarification theory with the study of literature.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the major contributions in the areas of (1) values clarification theory and (2) research results. The section on theory covers those works which attempted to synthesize the pertinent psychological theory with educational philosophy and those works which further integrated the theory with the teaching of specific subject matters. The section on research covers the results of major evaluative work conducted to gauge the effectiveness of the use of values clarification theory in educational settings. The chapter summary focuses on two points: (1) the lack of an applicable framework to help English teachers integrate values clarification principles with the teaching of literature and (2) the positive results of research conducted in teaching areas where an appropriate framework is available.

VALUES CLARIFICATION THEORY

Sidney Simon (1976) has emphasized the importance of the contributions of psychologists William James, Gordon Allport, Abraham Maslow, John Dewey and Carl Rogers as foundations for values clarification theory in education. Dewey, who was influenced by the self-concept approach to personality development prominent in the works of James and

Allport, took the first step in integrating psychological theory with educational practice.

In Education

In 1938 Dewey felt that American education was at a standstill and advocated a change. He emphasized that instructional materials must come from within the realm of the life-experiences of the participants if they were to be effective (1938:86-87). He believed that this was a departure from previous approaches which began with facts outside student experiences and then searched for ways of bringing them into the personal realm of the learner (1938:87). His basic hypothesis was that education could be more than a vehicle for the transmission of facts.

In 1967 Carl Rogers characterized the system of education in a manner which paraphrased Dewey's earlier observations: "The current educational system is geared to the aim of inculcating in the young the stored knowledge already accumulated, together with the values of the past" (1967:38). Rogers' earlier work was aimed primarily at counselors and therapists, and included a small section on the implications of his theories for education. He concluded that the process of learning in a therapy setting and in an educational setting have much in common (1961:279-295). It wasn't until 1967, however, that he elaborated on his theory of significant learning (learning beyond an

accumulation of facts) as it applied to education. He identified what he saw as the most important aim of education: the nurturing of the process of discovery. The assumptions he formulated to accompany this goal emphasize the importance of experience in learning. These assumptions encourage both teacher and student to fulfill the roles of explorers. Rogers continued by suggesting some methods for the application of this significant learning theory, e.g., simulation, role playing, programmed instruction, and sensitivity training.

The diverse theories of client-centered psychology and of experiential learning seemed to lack a general framework specifically relevant to classroom application. In 1969 Robert Mogar attempted to align the models of the theorists who shared an emphasis on values, motivation, and potential into a workable format. Agreeing with his predecessors, he believed that "current theorizing about education is especially deficient with regard to 'experiential' learning involving the whole person" (Mogar, 1969:17). He set up five major classes of variables that he hoped would serve as a framework to aid the study of educational interaction. Unfortunately the general nature of his categories and the complexity of their interdependence prevented their widespread use in bridging theory and practice.

A few years earlier a group of educators had begun to work on their own ideas regarding the integration of psychological theory and educational practice. A journal article by Merrill Harmin and Sidney

Simon (1965) presented a method for changing the fact emphasis present in secondary subject matter disciplines. Their alternative was suggested as a way to facilitate the clarifying process within a secondary classroom. The approach divides subject matter content into three levels: fact, concept, and value. Level I of a subject matter is composed of facts, details and specifics; Level II is composed of the generalizations about the facts in Level I; Level III is restricted to those generalizations which touch the interests, attitudes and concerns of students (Harmin, 1965:198). It was their hope that the intra-related levels would help teachers recognize the potential for learning that existed beyond the memorization of facts.

The following year Raths, Harmin, and Simon collaborated on the first major book devoted to values clarification and teaching (1966). Their hypothesis was that if students are given more opportunities to understand their values they will act with more enthusiasm, more purpose, and more pride (Raths, 1966:174). The book reviewed the theoretical approach to this type of teaching, offered a workable definition of a value, and explained the clarifying process by creating strategies for classroom use. They emphasized the importance of the existence of a nonjudgmental atmosphere in the classroom when students were working on value activities and encouraged teachers to allow students the right to nonparticipation in activities that might carry a great emotional risk. Their second major book (Simon, 1972) pulled

together much of the developmental work which was done following the publication of the first. Its primary concentration was the description of over seventy strategies for classroom work.

A later book expanded on the idea of the integrated, three level approach to subject matters. It presented models for three-level teaching in twenty-one different curricular areas. The following breakdown for discussion of a physics lesson on Newton's laws is an example: Level I, facts--What are Newton's laws? Level II, concepts--Demonstrate, through lab experiments, that you know these laws. Level III, values--How, if at all, have these laws touched your life? (Harmin, 1973:75) The models in this book fulfilled the need for applicable information and showed teachers "ways of using value-clarification strategies to elevate the teaching of subject matter on a values level" (Harmin, 1973:134).

The leader guide accompanying Wayne Paulson's values clarification series (1974) surveyed the previous work in the applications of values clarification and developed a formula which outlined the format of the strategies. Selecting one alternative from each of the four areas of the formula and combining them produces ". . . a design process that leaders and participants can use in creating valuing experience" (Paulson, 1974b:37). The design identified four components of the strategy form: (1) issues (e.g., sexuality); (2) basic forms (e.g., simulation); (3) working structures (e.g., small group); (4) sharing

structures (e.g., milling). The alternatives within Paulson's framework allowed teachers to create valuing-experience models for their classroom based on the selection of one item from each of the four component groups. Paulson also synthesized the earlier work regarding the use of strategies in the classroom and identified three ground rules for value related work: (1) the right to pass, (2) any answer as the right answer for that person at that time, (3) leader as participant (Paulson, 1974b:9-10). The right to pass is intended to honor a participant's choice to reinterpret the requests of a strategy in order to meet her/his personal needs and to recognize noninvolvement as a valid option. The presence of accepting and nonjudgmental attitudes on the part of both leader and participants is emphasized in the second ground rule. The third rule recognizes the importance of a leader who participates in order to decrease any leader/participant social distance and to lend value and credibility to the activity. "With these ground rules in operation, an atmosphere of openness and trust is created" (Paulson, 1974b:16).

Raths, Simon, Harmin, Kirschenbaum and Paulson were all primarily involved with the teaching of a process of valuing rather than with the teaching of a value system (Kirschenbaum, 1974:2). However a recent book has distorted their direction. The Hawleys (1975) introduce their book by stating "The book is about teaching human values in the classroom . . . values that moral philosophers and religious

leaders have generally agreed upon . . . values that must be taught" (Hawley, 1975:13). This approach denies the nonjudgmental, accepting atmosphere which is an integral part of the original material. It is reminiscent of the conditions which led Dewey and Rogers to criticize the inflexibility of the American educational system. Since the Hawley book contains strategies and terminology similar to those in the Raths/Simon/Harmin/Kirschenbaum materials, unsuspecting teachers can mistakenly refer to and rely on Hawley's interpretation.

In English

English teachers who are interested in the values clarification approach can find some information directed at their subject matter in the book which broke down subject matters into the three levels (Harmin, 1973). An earlier journal article by the same authors was specifically aimed at explaining how to approach the teaching of literature on the three levels of fact, concept and value. The authors suggested that the study of literature on a fact level contributed little in helping students to meet their own needs of personal growth and that the addition of concept and value level treatment of the material could make the study more meaningful and the experience more worthwhile (Kirschenbaum, 1969:1071).

The Kirschenbaum and Simon approach to literature on a value level was a reiteration of the theme of an earlier book on the theory of

teaching literature. In Literature as Exploration Dr. Rosenblatt acknowledged that "any knowledge about man and society that schools can give him [the student] should be assimilated into the stream of his life" (1938:3). She explored the role of literature teachers in relationship to their potential for dealing with human concerns and she rejected "the horrors of the didactic, moralistic [i.e., judgmental] approach" (1938:4). Her book presented the human possibilities of literature as a means for empathetic experiences, social understanding, personality development and heightened sensitivity and imagination. She believed that the reading of literature paralleled the living of life by involving both the intellect and the emotions. Because of this parallel, "the insights gained through literature may be assimilated into the matrix of attitudes and ideas which constitute character and govern behavior" (1938:274). She encouraged teachers to recognize the importance of allowing their students to integrate personal experiences with their reading experiences: "Any insight or clarification the youth derives from the literary work will grow out of its relevance to certain facts of his emotional or intellectual nature" (1938:182). Her theories of literature as personal experience and personal clarification were new in 1938. She was urging teachers to look beyond facts and concepts. Thirty-one years later the Simon/Kirschenbaum journal article appeared as the first attempt to provide a structure for teaching literature as experience.

RESEARCH RESULTS

A survey of preliminary research on valuing is included in the final chapter of Values and Teaching (Raths, 1966:205-229). Because the measurements were aimed at evaluating the process of valuing rather than the choice of a value, it was acknowledged that reliable research was difficult to conduct. The various studies were aimed primarily at measuring changes in the behavior of children who exhibited problems in their value-related behavior, e.g., apathy, uncertainty, inconsistency. The general hypothesis was the contention that value clarifying opportunities would improve problems in the students' value-related behaviors. The major samples were drawn from populations of elementary school children, but some samples were also drawn from populations of high school and college students. As a group, these early research results

contributed some support for the assertion that the value-clarification processes do make a difference in certain patterns of student behavior. In general it was found that students became more purposeful and active. (Raths, 1966:218-9)

Following the publication of the results of these preliminary studies, there was an hiatus in researched evaluation. Efforts were directed at further development of the theory and its applications rather than at additional testing. But a second wave of research began as colleges started to use values clarification in their teacher-education courses. The National Humanistic Education Center in Upper

Jay, New York has served as a clearing house for the published and unpublished research reports in this field. A research update report by Howard Kirschenbaum (1975b) reviewed the newer research efforts. The studies clustered around three variables: (1) self concept, (2) attitude towards subject matter, and (3) cognitive achievement.

The studies concentrating on measuring the effects of values clarification work on self-concepts were the most numerous. They were conducted on samples of elementary and college-age students. The general results showed improved self-concepts as reflected in such things as increased class participation, improved decision-making, and strengthened self-knowledge. The studies concerning the observation of the effects on student attitudes towards subject matters were conducted with secondary students in such diverse areas as chemistry, driver education, and psychology. Attitudinal pre- and post-tests in this area indicated only slight attitude improvement. These studies were hampered by the lack of control groups for comparative purposes.

The third area of study concerned the effects of integrating value-level work with the facts and concepts of a curricular area. Two studies were conducted with secondary students in biology and reading comprehension. Both studies were run with control groups receiving "traditional" instruction. The results showed that the integration of value-work measurably improved the cognitive achievement of

the students in the experimental groups when their achievement test scores were compared to those in the other group.

In general, the collective results of all studies involving value clarification in the classroom were positive:

. . . about eighty percent of the studies lend credibility to the assertion that use of the valuing process leads to greater personal value (e.g., less apathy, higher self-esteem, etc.) and greater social constructiveness (e.g., lower drug use, less disruptive classroom behavior, etc.). (Kirschenbaum 1975a:6)

Although values clarification theory has been aligned effectively with educational philosophy, the lack of substantial research dealing with its effects in the cognitive areas of secondary instruction points to the necessity for the development of more applicable methods.

SUMMARY

Value clarification theory evolved from work in humanistic psychology and merged with educational philosophy during the first half of this century. It seeks to strengthen an individual's value-related behavior by exploring and improving the valuing process. Activities were developed to facilitate this exploration. Although some preliminary work was aimed at integrating curricular work and value clarification, there is little material available which shows a teacher how to use the strategies effectively for both cognitive and affective growth. The study of literature involves, by nature, discussion of

values exhibited by characters and portrayed by authors. An applicable method for adapting value clarification techniques to augment the fact and concept content of the study of literature does not exist. The limited value-related research has given preliminary credibility to the benefits gained from using value clarification. A comprehensible method for adaptation might transfer the benefits to the classroom through the study of literature and would make additional research in this area possible.

Chapter 3

METHOD

INTRODUCTION

To be successfully integrated with a study of literature, value clarification principles must be adapted. The purpose of this chapter is to present a method which will facilitate this integration for teachers of secondary school literature classes. The chapter itself consists of the following components:

1. The specific fact/concept/value levels of a study of literature are identified.
2. The need for strategies, the reasons for adaptations, and the thirteen basic forms are discussed.
3. The valuing experience model, its components, and suggestions for its use are presented.
4. The role of the teacher in presenting and participating in value level work in a literature class is discussed.
5. A summary of the chapter is presented.

FACT/CONCEPT/VALUE COMPONENTS

The value clarification process attempts to create time and space for people to deal with their values: to enhance, elaborate, affirm, clarify, or change those values (Paulson, 1974b:8). Teachers often

expect that students, on their own, will consider the significance of Hamlet's soliloquy to their own lives. But secondary students have other classes, part-time jobs, and private problems, and may not have the time nor the opportunity for such considerations no matter how excellent the classroom motivation. The value component of a study of literature is more easily discernable than it might be in a skills course such as mathematics. One basic way of providing the opportunity for value reflection in a literature class is to structure each unit using the fact/concept/value level components. In this way the opportunity for value-related reflection would be provided in the class rather than left to the haphazard focus of individual students. The following examples illustrate this three-level integration for sample pieces of literature.

Cyrano de Bergerac

FACT: Cyrano has a long nose. His self-conscious feelings prevent him from declaring his love to his romantic ideal, Roxanne.

CONCEPT: Name a famous person's "Cyrano's nose." Name a famous person's "Roxanne."

VALUE: What is your "Cyrano's nose"? What is your "Roxanne"?

Don Quixote

FACT: Don Quixote is in love with a woman of his dreams, Dulcinea. He superimposes this image on a real lady, Aldonza.

CONCEPT: Dulcinea represents the concept of the ideal. What is Alexander Solzhenitsyn's "Dulcinea"?

VALUE: What is your "Dulcinea"?

The Stranger

FACT: Mersault is the main character. He is out-of-step with the mainstream of society.

CONCEPT: Does Mersault feel he is an outsider? Is he the same kind of outsider as Cyrano, Don Quixote, or Ivan Denisovich?

VALUE: In what social circles do you consider yourself to be a stranger?

STRATEGY ADAPTATION

In the context of literature study, however, the value level questions become predictable. Strategies were created by researchers to add variety to this level, but as the following example shows, they are very direct in asking individuals to respond to a values issue. Without adaptations, these strategies encourage the separation of the value level and the curricular material.

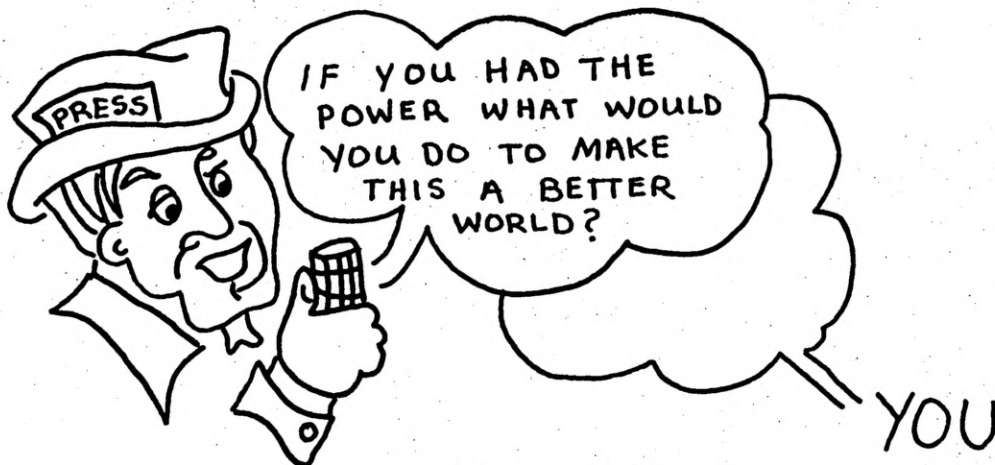


Figure 1

Sample Value Strategy
(Paulson, 1974a:64)

After surveying the published strategies, Paulson identified thirteen basic forms: values questions, here-and-now questions, incomplete sentences, incomplete dialogues, cartoons, lists, rankings, continuums, draw/write, writing, forms, simulations, and activities (Paulson, 1974b: 20). It is possible for the literature teacher to use the published strategies as a base and to make relevant adaptations which would integrate the strategy with the curricular material.

The following section of this paper defines each of the thirteen strategies, gives an example of each type in its published form, and gives an example of each type in an adapted form.

Values Questions

Values questions are open-ended, thought-provoking questions which attempt to elicit personal opinions, feelings, beliefs, or attitudes.

The word *I* is an integral part of a values question.

Example: Here are "Am *I* someone who . . .?" questions to use . . . Circle one of the codes. Y for Yes, N for No, and M for Maybe.

Am I Someone Who

- | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| 1. needs to be alone? | Y | N | M |
| 2. watches television soap operas? | Y | N | M |
| 3. would kill in self-defense? | Y | N | M |
| 4. would let my child drink? | Y | N | M |

(Simon, 1974:22-3)

Adapted Example: In introducing the book, The Little Prince, the teacher presents the issues of the book through these value questions.

What do you consider to be

1. The 3 most important qualities in a friend?
2. The 4 most destructive social forces?
3. The 4 most constructive social forces?
4. The 4 most desirable adult qualities?

Near the end of the work on this book students respond to these questions as they believe the author, St. Exupery, might. They then compare the two sets of answers.

Here-and-Now Questions

Here-and-now questions ask participants to respond to immediate circumstances. They are separate from values questions because of the necessity of reacting to direct stimuli.

Example: Right at this moment, what sources of energy are you using? What would happen if one of those sources were cut off right now? What would you do about its being cut off? (Paulson, 1974b:22)

Adapted Example: The book, The Little Prince, deals to some degree with thwarted creativity. The teacher asks students to take out pencil and paper and, in five minutes, to write down possible uses for an ordinary wire coat hanger. After this exercise students respond to the following here-and-now questions.

1. How many of you had an immediate mental block?
2. Were you frustrated?
3. Did you have fun?
4. Do you feel you came up with any workable ideas?
5. Would the Little Prince be proud of you?
6. Did you feel your creativity was limited?
7. Did you remember to include the obvious uses?
8. Did you include any destructive uses?
9. Are you going to try any of your ideas?
10. How many items do you think the Little Prince's list would include?

Incomplete Sentences

Incomplete sentences offer the participant the beginning of a

thought. The participant is to conclude the thought with something personally appropriate. These open-ended statements allow for various responses.

Example: To introduce the game, the teacher has the students complete in writing several stem sentences. Two that work well in this context are: "I feel best when I am in a group of people that" and "I feel worst when I am in a group of people that" (Simon, 1972:171-2)

Adapted Example: After completing the play, Cyrano de Bergerac, the teacher has the students complete the following sentences.

1. I learned that
2. I realized that
3. I re-learned that
4. I noticed that
5. I discovered that
6. I was surprised that
7. I was pleased that
8. I was displeased that
9. I wish that

Incomplete Dialogues

Incomplete dialogues are similar to incomplete sentences. The dialogues direct the participant to respond to a series of questions aimed at a particular issue. The dialogues are actually written role-playing.

Example: You: Are You concerned about this energy thing?
 Yourself: Well, _____, You: But, _____.
 Yourself: _____. (Paulson, 1974b:24).

Adapted Example: After each of the three major sections of The Odyssey, the teacher has the students work with dialogues which combine the fact/concept/and value levels.

X: I wonder if it was very smart of Penelope to stay home all that time?

YOU: Well, _____.

X: And what about Telemachus? He didn't get much of a chance to enjoy his youth?

YOU: I think that _____.

X: Well, if I had been in his place I might have handled things differently.

YOU: I think I would have _____.

X: Why?

YOU: Because I think _____.

X: Well, what do you think enjoying youth means?

YOU: _____.

X: I get it!

Cartoons

Cartoons are illustrated incomplete dialogues. They are a series of blank dialogue balloons.

Example: Students use the written entry as motivation for their responses.



Figure 2
Sample Cartoon Strategy
(Paulson, 1974a:73)

Adapted Example: Shakespeare's Othello has many possibilities for cartoon value strategies.

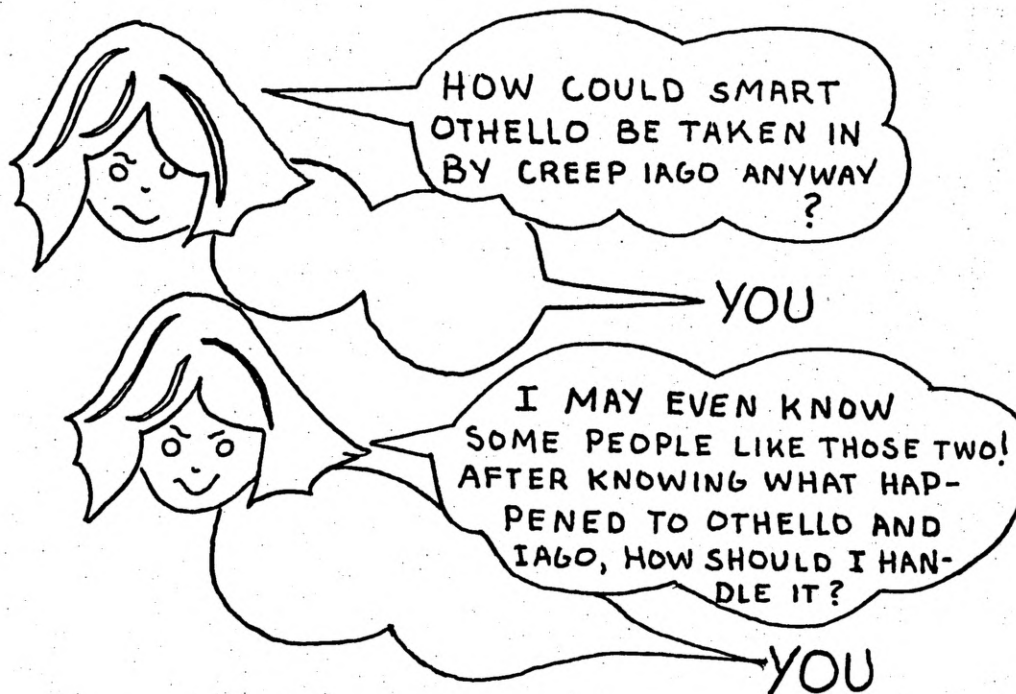


Figure 3

Cartoon Strategy Adapted for Othello

List

Lists ask participants to brainstorm about an issue and then to categorize that list using various symbols.

Example: The teacher passes out paper and asks students to write the numbers from 1 to 20 down the middle of the sheet. He then says, "And now will you please make a list of 20 things in life that you love to do . . ." When the lists are done, the teacher tells the students to use the left-hand side of their papers and code their lists in the following manner.

1. Put a dollar sign beside any item which costs more than \$3 each time it is done.
2. Place the letter "A" beside those items which you prefer to do alone.
3. Use PL beside those items which require planning.
4. Put the coding N5 next to those items which would not have been listed 5 years ago. (Simon, 1972:30-4)

Adapted Example: Herman Hesse's book, Siddhartha, deals with soul sickness of the rich. The teacher asks students to list those items they would purchase with one million dollars. Following completion of the lists, students use the following completion instructions to code them.

1. Put a dollar sign after items you probably couldn't buy unless you become a millionaire.
2. Put an "O" after items purchased for others.
3. Use an "S" to indicate items purchased for yourself.
4. Put a "P" after items that might appear on your parent's lists.

Rankings

Rankings are a follow-up to lists. Participants are given a list by the leader or they brainstorm a list in a group and then they are asked to determine the priorities in the list.

Example: Your birthday is coming up next week. Would you like your husband/wife to give you (a) \$15.00 to purchase your own gift, (b) a \$15.00 gift of his/her own selection, (c) a gift that was specifically made by him or her for you? (Simon, 1974:44-53).

Adapted Example: After reading the book, Don Quixote, students rank the people in this list following the instructions. Depending on your point of view, characterize the following people as either "S" (basically Sanchoistic) or "Q" (basically Quixotic).

Cyrano de Bergerac	Kissinger
James Bond	John Kennedy
Solzhenitsyn	Helen Keller
Hitler	Your Mother
Mark Spitz	Your Father
Jerry Lewis	Howard Cosell
Other than Quixote, name the most quixotic person you can think of.	
Other than Sancho, name the most sanchoistic person you can think of.	

Continuum

The continuum allows for all extremes of belief about a particular issue and asks the participants to declare their position.

Example: The teacher provides students with a worksheet containing a series of belief statements. Students complete the worksheet individually . . .

SA/Strongly Agree; AS/Agree Somewhat; DS/Disagree Somewhat; SD/Strongly Disagree

1. Students are losing respect for teachers.
 2. Man is basically good.
 3. There is life after death.
- (Simon, 1972:252-5)

Adapted Example: After reading Hesse's, Siddhartha, the students place themselves on this physical continuum. "There is an imaginary line running through the middle of the classroom. At one end of the line are all the people who believe that Siddhartha is a brilliant human being because he is constantly searching for new approaches to life. These people believe Siddhartha should try everything. At the other end of the line are all the people who believe that Siddhartha is the most ridiculous human being because he left a secure situation. These people believe that Siddhartha should be happy with what he has."

Draw/Write

In draw/write strategies the leader provides a stimulus and gives participants the opportunity to record their reaction in drawn or written responses.

Example: What we wish says something about what we value. You can have three different Magical Mystery Boxes, one very small, one medium-sized, and one as large as you want it to be. Best of all they can contain anything you want them to contain. Draw or write what each will contain. (Simon, 1974:93-4)

Adapted Example: After reading Othello the teacher provides students with this draw/write strategy exploring identities.

"The police have just arrested Iago, Roderigo, Desdemona, and Emilia on a disturbing the peace complaint. They have been instructed to empty their purses and/or pockets onto the table in the interrogation room. You are to inventory the contents and to prepare the final report for the head-quarter files. List and/or draw the items found in possession of each criminal."

In addition, students inventory their own possessions.

Writing

Writing is a strategy which is simply the written development of a values issue.

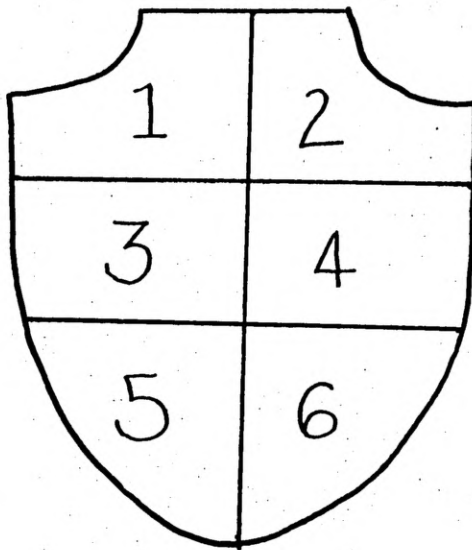
Example: You've been invited to address the legislature on your solution to the energy crisis. Your presentation is to last five minutes. Use this space to outline your speech. (Paulson, 1974b:30)

Adapted Example: Siddhartha means "he who has achieved his goal" in Sanskrit. Where are you/have you been/do you hope to be a Siddhartha?

Forms

Form strategies are those which ask the participant to label parts of a diagram or to fill in forms.

Example: This will be your coat of arms. You are asked to draw those desirable qualities which you would like to be associated with. On a large piece of paper or shirt cardboard copy the Coat of Arms illustrated on this page and answer the questions in the appropriate areas using words or pictures.



1. What do you regard as your greatest personal achievement?
2. Your family's greatest achievement?
3. The one thing others can do to make you happy?
4. What you would do with one year to live?
5. Your greatest personal failure?
6. The three words you'd like associated with you?

Figure 4

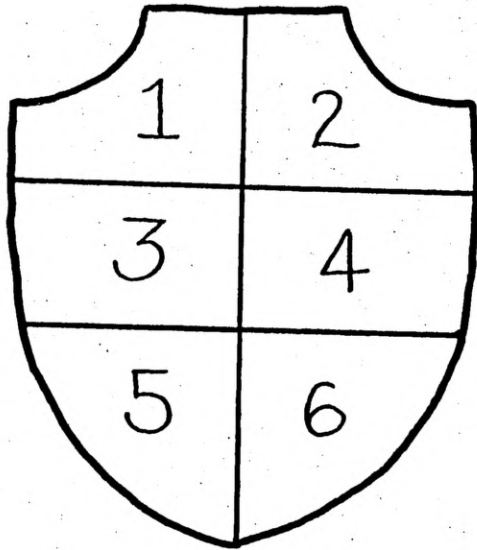
Sample Form Strategy
(Simon, 1974:81-3)

Adapted Example: Students are given a directive and a form sheet in using this strategy for Othello.

"Othello comes from an aristocratic family and needs a coat of arms. Since you are among the few people who know him quite well, he has asked that you be given the following message:

'I fetch my life and being from men of noble seige and have previously consented to have my coat of arms created. Since I have little time for such an undertaking, I beg you to complete the task in such a way that it shall manifest me rightly.

With deep sincerity,
Othello



1. 2 items the subject does well
2. The place the subject feels at home
3. The subject's greatest success in life
4. 3 most influential people to the subject
5. What the subject would do with 1 year to live
6. 3 words the subject wants used about him

Figure 5

Form Strategy Adapted
for Othello

Simulations

Simulations present the participant with a situation and ask for a response in the form of role-playing. These are issue-oriented role playing experiences.

Example: The teacher has students sit close together in one corner, the lights are turned out, the shades pulled and a candle lit. The situation: the class has been on a cave exploration outing; they are trapped in a narrow passageway. They need to form a single line to work their way out. Because of the strong possibility of a rock slide, the ones at the front of the line will have a higher probability

of survival. Each class member needs to give reasons why he should be at the head of the line. (Simon, 1972:287-9)

Adapted Example: The teacher passes out the transcript of the Russian trial of Joseph Brodsky. After reading about Alexander Solzhenitsyn, the students are directed to this question asked by the Judge: "But, explain to us, rather, how are we to evaluate your participation in our great progressive movement toward Communism?" The simulation experience is in two parts, (a) answer that question as you believe Solzhenitsyn would, (b) change the word "Communism" to "Democracy" and answer the question for yourself.

Activities

Activities make it necessary for participants to gather information of some type, usually from outside of the immediate setting.

Example: All too often we become lazy in our buying patterns . . . Madison Avenue asks you to look at your own and your family's pattern of buying to see how many value processes go into each choice. List 10 brand names found in your medicine cabinet and make 4 columns to the right of those brand names. In column 1 mark who selected that particular brand. In column 2 mark reasons why you think that brand was selected. In column 3 check if the product was selected by utilizing EACH of these standards: Selected after examining other choices, after considering negative and positive aspects, by free choice. In column 4 put an "R" if you plan to rethink your buying habit for that product. (Simon, 1974:77-9)

Adapted Example: After reading Thoreau's Walden, student volunteers wear the same outfit of clothing for three days in a row. Both the volunteers and other class members record the verbal and nonverbal responses of those who are unaware of the activity.

VALUING EXPERIENCE MODEL

The issue and the value strategy are only two parts of the valuing

experience. The issue is a common factor found in the curriculum and in student lives, the strategy is a vehicle which allows the student the time and the opportunity to reflect on that commonality. However, the student completes the valuing experience through working on the strategy and through sharing the results with others.

Working Structures

There are three possible working structures to aid in the response to a strategy, (1) individual, (2) small group, (3) total group (Paulson, 1974b:34). The individual working structure is one where the participant responds to a strategy on her/his own. The cartoon strategies are examples where this can be used effectively. The small-group working structure has a limited number of people pooling their ideas for strategy response. The coat-of-arms form strategy is an example of a possibility for this working structure. The total-group working structure has an entire group participating in a strategy. The here-and-now questions and continuums are examples of total group response.

Sharing Structures

Because values clarification involves a stimulus and a working structure for that stimulus, strategies also need sharing structures to allow for the verbalization and expansion of responses. Three possible sharing structures are: (1) focus, (2) milling, and (3) circle (Paulson, 1974b:35). The focus sharing structure centers

everyone's attention on one participant's responses. The ranking strategy would be a good one with which to share the results using focus. The milling sharing structure allows students to select a focus. This can be done by posting strategy results on a bulletin board or by allowing students to wander around the room and to look selectively at results of other student's work. The coat-of-arms strategy would work for either of these milling examples. The circle sharing structure is very open-ended. It gives participants access to each other's responses. It is usually an informal discussion about the results of a strategy. The simulation involving a response about one's role in the development of democracy would be a stimulating one in which to use a circle sharing structure.

Composite Formula

Once the four components of a value experience--issues, basic forms, working structures, sharing structures--are understood, the possible combinations for adapting published strategies are endless. Once a leader is comfortable with adapting published strategies, she/he can create her/his own. The following composite formula (Figure 6) shows how to create new or adapted value experiences.

ISSUE	+	STRATEGY FORM	+	WORKING STRUCTURE	+	SHARING STRUCTURE
E.g. identity		value question here-and-now questions incomplete sentences incomplete dialogues cartoons lists rankings continuums draw/write writings forms simulations activities		individual small group total group		focus milling circle
Select an issue appropriate to the students and the subject matter, a strategy form, a working structure, and a sharing structure for a complete valuing experience.						

Figure 6

Composite Formula for Values
Clarification Experience
(Paulson, 1974b:38-9)

TEACHER ROLE

The three values clarification ground rules--the right to pass, any answer as the right answer, leader as participant--have special implications for the teacher-leader. In part, the rules may seem in opposition to the usual teacher role in the classroom.

In class assignments involving value work based on a curricular

stimulus, it is useful to interpret the right to pass as the right to treat a value-related assignment in an other than serious manner, but not the right to ignore the assignment. In the simulation strategy involving a response to one's role in democracy, a student who might not feel comfortable enough to share a serious response could choose instead to respond humorously ("I pick up my gum wrappers and take the garbage out twice a week.") or satirically ("I learned how to spell in the second grade.") The thought process involving the serious answer has already taken place and the student has made the choice not to share that answer. The right to pass protects the student's right to privacy but does not exclude him from the strategy.

The second ground rule, any answer as the right answer for that person at that time, may seem in opposition to grading assignments. However, this rule and evaluation of assignments can work together. For assignments such as the written development strategies where students have spent a great deal of time and where the teacher feels recordable credit should be given, a number of options exist. A check could be entered in the grade book to reflect the completion of the assignment. A letter grade could be assigned to the results of the strategy as a reflection of the student's use of written English to communicate ideas. A letter grade could also be assigned as a reflection of the specific details a student uses to support the strategy's main idea, e.g., C=paper with some detail to support

generalizations; B=paper with numerous details to support basic ideas; A=paper with clear, specific details which allow the reader to follow the writer's process of thought.

In order to promote a secure sharing atmosphere in a class where students are working on value strategies, the teacher needs to participate. This participation must be non-threatening and must show an exchange of ideas rather than "the right way to think." The teacher's strategy responses could be posted on the bulletin board with student responses. The teacher could enter the sharing structure at any point where the honesty of student response would not be jeopardized.

Teacher strategy responses could be on file and available to students. The teacher does have the right to pass, however, and by using it honestly, will find that students will respect that right as they will their own.

SUMMARY

The literature teacher can identify easily the fact/concept/value components of a book to be used for study. Because of the basic value-orientation of literature, this dichotomy is a clear one. Because of the predictability of value level questions, strategies are effective as motivating vehicles for value level work. The published strategies are very direct and in their original form they tend to promote value work as an entity apart from the study of literature. Using the

published strategies as form definitions, it is easy to adapt them so they work with a piece of literature. A combination of a values issue common to a piece of literature and to student experience can be combined with a strategy form, a working structure, and a sharing structure to create a valuing experience for the classroom. The three ground rules for value work can also be adapted so they enhance both the curricular aspects and the value aspects of integrating value clarification techniques in the secondary literature classroom.

Chapter 4

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

Psychologists and educators have stressed the importance of experience in learning. A classroom placing value on total education has been seen as one where the requirements for life situations are among the resources provided by the teacher (Rogers, 1961:290). Values clarification theory was created to improve an individual's understanding of her/his relationship to society (Raths, 1966:4). Work in this area has evolved from theory (Raths, 1966) to vehicles for practice (Simon, 1972) to suggestions for integration with subject matter (Kirschenbaum, 1973) to formats for application (Paulson, 1974). Because of the continuing development in the area of theory, decisive research on the effects of values clarification does not exist. Preliminary data suggests that values clarification work improves performance in value-related behavioral areas. Although values theorists have attempted to integrate their work with school curriculums, the directed nature of the strategies has made it easier to treat them in a manner isolated from, rather than integrated with, academic subject matter.

The study of literature has been recognized for its potential to deal empathetically with human experiences and problems (Rosenblatt, 1938). The literature teacher who is aware of this potential and of

its benefits in both cognitive and affective areas could use the published work in values clarification to strengthen the learning experiences of students. The modifications necessary to effectively adapt values strategies for the study of literature involve the selection of an issue common to literary and student experiences; the selection of a strategy form to act as a stimulus; the selection of a working structure to provide the opportunity for reflection; and the selection of a sharing structure to promote further learning and deliberation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The literature teacher interested in adopting a values clarification approach to teaching should:

- (1) thoroughly read the major theoretical work by Raths (1966) which will provide a comprehensive overview of the values clarification approach as it applies to education in general;
- (2) study Rosenblatt's book (1938) for additional justification for teaching literature as experience;
- (3) examine her/his own goals in teaching;
- (4) explore the philosophy and goals of the department, the school, the district, and the community to insure the acceptance of this method;

(5) be confident that this approach will be beneficial to the students and consistent with the goals of the curriculum;
and

(6) most significantly, feel comfortable with the values clarification ground rules.

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