

THE VALUES OF GEOGRAPHICALLY MOBILE ADOLESCENTS/

By

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Thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty
of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Management, Housing, and Family Development

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August 18, 1975
Blacksburg, Virginia

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researcher would like to express her sincere appreciation to Dr. Michael J. Sporakowski for his guidance, support, and patience throughout this study and during her course work.

Gratitude is also expressed to Dr. Howard O. Protinsky, Dr. James F. Keller, and Dr. Nancy Barclay for their encouragement and guidance.

The cooperation of Mr. Parrish, Miss Mask, Mr. Weist, and Miss Stubbs of J.E.B. Stuart High School is gratefully acknowledged. The assistance of Miss Margaret Nutt in securing the population is sincerely appreciated.

I am grateful to my family and friends whose support and encouragement during the time spent working toward the degree enabled me to "see it through". I am especially indebted to my Mother and Judy Pugh for their aid in the typing of this manuscript. A special thank you goes to Mark A. Bishop who initiated the interest in the topic and supplied the motivating force in its completion.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The issues of geographic mobility and values are of concern to and directly affect educators, families and community organizations. The reasons for geographic mobility in our society have been studied by sociologists, anthropologists, demographers, and city planners among others. The degree of disruption and personality disorientation in a mobile society have been discussed and studied to a large extent as will be evident in the review of literature. The effects of repeated moves on the family, and especially the effects of these moves on the children, would appear to be relevant to parents and educators. The study of values has recently experienced increased interest, especially in the field of education. Rogers (1970) found the popularized stereotype of adolescents' values is liberal in nature and morally on the decline. These are not characteristics of young people in general but rather widely publicized views of a conspicuous and often vocal minority. The importance of aiding students in their value clarification has been recognized and studied by educators (Barr, 1970). Exercises have been developed to help in the differentiation and hierarchial ordering of an individual's values.

The literature on mobility is inconsistent concerning the disruptiveness and disorientation involved in a mobile society.

Some authors (Sticht and Fox, 1966; Sullivan and Pederson, 1964; and Locke, 1940) claim an association of mobility with personality disorders, psychiatric causality rates, and family disorientation. The literature concerning the effects of mobility on children (Harris and Wooster, 1972; Kantor, 1969; and Gordon and Gordon, 1958) shows mobility to be associated with emotional maladjustment, lack of a fully developed self-concept, and increased emotional disturbance rates which led to hospitalization. Other authors conclude that forced moves are associated with mental illness and psychiatric disorders (Hazelberg, 1969; Friedl, 1963). It is generally agreed that the less disruptive move would be that which involved a desired move, homogeneous in nature (from one situation to another that is similar), in which the children were adequately prepared for the move, and where a positive parental attitude toward the move prevailed. It can be concluded that mobility is a complex concept, and there are many aspects, psychological and nonpsychological in nature, which contribute to the effect of a move.

Other authorities believe mobility is non-disruptive and has positive implications for the family (Evans, 1966; Gans, 1963; and Schorr, 1956). It has been found that adjustment to mobility is a learned phenomenon and that the process can be studied. Integration into the new community then can be speeded up with the aid of social and community organizations. Since adjustment to mobility appears to be a learned phenomenon, proficiency in moving may be acquired with each additional move. This suggests the more mobile family

would be better at adapting. Adaptability and resiliency are characteristics that are found among successfully mobile populations (Mann, 1972; Evans, 1966). Qualities also found in highly mobile societies include socio-economic success (Lansing and Mueller, 1967) and an emphasis on flexibility and adaptation (Mann, 1972). It has been found that mobile populations have a higher frequency of occupationally desirable skills; this directly effects the families' socio-economic success. Hobbs (1942) found that migrants -- those who move across county lines -- are superior to non-migrants in those characteristics necessary for socio-economic occupational success.

Values, too, are a key concept in understanding human behavior. In our society the adolescents have an increasing number of choices in their value options. There is a great diversity of alternatives available to the adolescent and society in general. Increased exposure to differences in values is available through mass media. At the national level children are exposed to an increasing number of values primarily due to the influence of television. Children are being exposed at the neighborhood level to other families and their values. Dietz (1972) states there is a nucleus of values which permeates all of society. Variance in these values is seen in the different positions they are assigned in the individual's hierarchical ordering. Basic values are similar, the ranking that is assigned to each simply varies among individuals. Because of the increasing number of options and diversity of alternatives,

it is felt that values are in a state of confusion and transition (Inlow, 1972). The family, however, is still the major influence on values (Lehman, 1971). The peer group is important with matters of dress and grooming, but parental influence prevails in terms of basic value orientation (Rogers, 1972; Powell and Frederick, 1971). The values of adolescents have been found to be surprisingly traditional. The difference between the parents' values and the adolescents' is usually a somewhat more liberal interpretation of the parents' values (Hurlock, 1967).

The present study was undertaken in response to the increasing awareness the researcher had regarding mobility as it affects families. Specifically, the relationship between mobility and the value orientation of adolescents was investigated. The purpose of the study was to compare the values of geographically mobile adolescents with the values of geographically stable adolescents. Leonard Gordon's Survey of Interpersonal Values (1960) was used to compare these two groups on six interpersonal values. The six values were:

1. Support -- being treated with understanding, encouragement, kindness and consideration.
2. Conformity -- doing what is socially correct, acceptable and proper.
3. Recognition -- being admired, looked up to, considered important and attracting favorable notice.
4. Independence -- being able to do what one wants to do, making one's own decisions, doing things in one's own way.

5. Benevolence -- doing things for other people, sharing and helping.
6. Leadership -- being in charge of others, having authority and power.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the two groups on the six scores.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The available literature on mobility is easily divided into two distinct categories. The first is popular in nature. Two recent books which were well received by the general public are Alvin Toffler's (1970) Future Shock, and Vance Packard's (1972) A Nation of Strangers. Both of these authors viewed mobility as an outcome of the new growth in technology. The impression left with the reader was that mobility is disruptive to the individual, the family and society. Gans (1972) referred to this type of writing as journalistic sociology and felt it misrepresented the real issue. He argued most of what was presented was observational in nature with no valid, scientific research facts to back up the authors' statements.

A second category of literature is research oriented, a report of it will comprise the majority of this chapter. The studies commented upon were selected because of their relevance to the development of children and their families.

Mobility

Lansing and Meuller (1967) in a report for the U. S. Government concluded from the 1963 census: highly mobile individuals and families are typically those possessing a desirable occupational

skill, more educated than average, and young. They were usually better paid and consequently more secure financially. Suval and Hamilton (1965) from 1960 census data also found migrants (those who move across county lines) to be better educated than non-migrants. Bogue, Shryach, and Hooman (1951) concluded from 1935-1940 census data: migrants were better educated. Leslie and Richardson (1968) reported renters were more likely to move than home owners. Fredland (1974) found job related reasons for moving to be the cause of 12% of the short distance moves (within county lines), 62% of the migration moves (across county lines), and 90% of the long distance moves (across state lines). Mustian and Clifford (1971) reported from 1948-1967 census data, a high rate of internal movement. One person in five changes residences annually. Packard (1972) pointed out that business in our society, especially larger firms, is built to operate with interchangeable executives. For many business executives, mobility has become a way of life. Burchinal and Bauder (1970) theorized if a move is homogeneous in nature (from one situation to another that is similar) there will be faster and easier assimilation into the new situation. They found the transition to be easier for those who have more financial resources available to them. A move from one large city to another large city will cause few disruptions for the family. This could be seen in the involvement with the major social systems where disruptions occur most readily. Burchinal and Bauder (1970) also discovered that mobile families join similar organizations to those

they had previously been involved in, and so they continue in their social participation.

Schorr (1956) did a study of family services in Pike County, Ohio. An agency office was needed by the community due to an influx of many families related to many newly created jobs. The community was built as the families arrived. There was a lack of professional help, and need exceeded services available. He found that the newly mobile families did not produce problems that were especially different either in number or in kind from those known to family agencies in most communities. He contacted 122 mobile families, 76 of them had problems related to their mobility. He concluded the special strains connected with mobile family life are greater in an unorganized area than when a move is from one established community to another.

When the change in residency results in a major cultural change, the individual and family will usually segregate themselves and not participate at the level they had prior to the move (Killian, 1970). The literature on the immigration to the U.S.A. is a prime example of this type of move. With time, immigrating individuals and families were found to assimilate into the new reference group (Handlin, 1950). The difference in a move of this type and a move which involves similar communities is that the former involves a greater length of time in which to assimilate into the new community.

Oscar Handlin's (1951) The Uprooted portrayed the story of the great immigration to the U. S. and how the immigrants gradually became a part of American society. The newcomers were not compelled to conform to the existing pattern of action or to accept the existing standards. They insisted on trying to maintain the customs found in their country of origin. It was a lonely survival for many. The American offspring turned their parents' group conscientiousness into nationalism. Killian (1970) reported similar reactions made by southern, white migrants to northern, urban communities. He found the southern, white migrant gradually developed a new reference group as he conformed to the northern urban pattern of behavior.

Hazelberg (1969) argued that foreign born had higher rates of first admission to mental hospitals than native born. He suggested an association of immigration with mental illness. Roberts and Myers (1954) drew a similar conclusion when they reported foreign born representation in psychiatric hospitals was out of proportion to their numbers. Hollingshead and Redlich (1954) found no relation to foreign birth and diagnosis of schizophrenia. This conclusion was drawn after studying reports from public sources in particular state hospitals. Kantor (1969) reported inconsistent data in the area of migration and mental illness. She stated that migration in and of itself does not precipitate the development of mental illness. It does involve a

change in environment which implies adjustment and which can be reflected in improved or worsened mental health. She concluded the relationship between migration and mental illness varies with the social characteristics of the migrants, the social psychological aspects of the situation surrounding the migration, and the characteristics of the sending and receiving communities.

It can be concluded that a move involving major changes in environment and social and cultural norms has a greater chance of being disruptive in nature. Much of the research concerning the disruptiveness of moves could still have its roots in the crisis created by this large migration. The primary difference in migratory moves and present day mobility lies in the fact that the latter has a greater probability of being homogeneous in nature.

There is disagreement among authorities as to the disruptions caused by mobility. Alvin Toffler (1970) stated relocation, even under the most favorable circumstances entails a series of difficult psychological readjustments. Stecht and Fox (1966) studied 90 undergraduates (42 males, 48 females) enrolled in an introductory Psychology class. The ages ranged from 18-32 years with a median of 20. They found those subjects who experienced frequent changes of residency were more dogmatic and anxious. They also indicated the age of the individual at the time of the move seemed to have some significance. If the move was before the individual's fifth year it was more disruptive to the development of his personality. The

pre-school years require permanence and stability in the environment, and a change at this stage was found disruptive to later development. Wooster and Harris (1972) studied 16 year old boys. They matched 15 boys in an Army School with 15 boys in a school in Britian. They found self-concept development to be impaired in the mobile Army School boys. Positive self-concept development was difficult under conditions of frequent change. Highly mobile children were deprived of stable reference groups whose assessment could be understood and evaluated. Stubblefield (1955) suggested, especially during adolescence, the peer group becomes important and cliques have been formed. Often the adolescent from mobile families loses out on participation in such peer groups and feels alienated.

Friedl (1963) in his personal observations of forced relocation from an urban slum in West End Boston thought it a highly disruptive and distrubing experience to those involved. West End Boston consisted primarily of individuals and families of the lower socio-economic classes. A loss of sense of "spatial identity" and "fragmentation" was strongly felt. Bower (1967), who observed families in overseas communities, found a vast kaleidoscope of problems due to the differences in styles of community life. Many of the families had experienced a cultural shock. Locke (1940) argued mobility significantly but indirectly was related to the disorganization of the individual families and to the disorganization of families' folkways and mores. The individual family dis-

organization was the result of moving to a strange community which tears the family from its social matrix and detaches it from extra-familial social activities which give it support. Gordon and Gordon (1958) reported that as mobility rates increased, the rates of emotional disturbance in the children studied also increased. Pederson and Sullivan (1964) suggested that mobility was associated with psychiatric causality rates. They believed relocation to be the source of stress which caused these problems. They also associated parental attitude and acceptance of mobility as a factor aiding the children in experiencing a less disruptive move. Wattenberger (1948) theorized change in residency adds to the insecurity of young people. When they move they immediately face the problem of finding new friends. He also suggested involving the children in the move decision so they will not feel rejected and unwanted. Wattenberger studied the 1935-1940 Census Bureau Statistic reports prior to making these suggestions. Kagan and Cole (1972) stated:

geographic mobility alters the face of the country and the nation's social institutions including the family. The price for position and social mobility is a willingness to be geographically mobile. Changes have weakened the stability and interdependence of communities and impaired communication between families and other social and political institutions. It shrinks the size of the family (and its resources of natural and psychological support) from the extended family to an isolated nuclear family. The changes have made family burdens greater and increased difficulties in child rearing. (1972, p. 197)

Other authorities feel that mobility need not be disruptive to the individual or family. Mann (1972) stated the impact of mobility

depends on the person making the move, the reason for the move, and the amount of change involved. There are factors in the environment, psychological and non-psychological in nature, which affect the disruptiveness of mobility. Mobile families and individuals exhibit a greater tolerance to new and uncertain situations as a consequence of more diverse experiences. He also reported males were found to have greater emphasis on autonomy and were more individually oriented when they were mobile. He based these conclusions on a personality inventory administered to 26 male and 43 female undergraduates at the University of Texas at Austin.

Bevis and Fauna (1964) reported on the activities of a Youth Development Project of the Community Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County, Minnesota. They suggested, at times, mobile children are a minority in our schools but in some schools, particularly in economically depressed urban areas, it was the non-mobile child who was in the minority. Some schools in New York were cited to exemplify schools with 100% turn-over in student population within a year. These authors expressed two views on how these frequent moves affected the children. The first view was that it had a weakening effect on students' achievement and their adjustment to school and social situations. The second view was that travel exposed children to a wide variety of experiences enabling them to have a more "broad" education, which

provided for better motivation for achievement and helped to bring about a better integrated individual. These authors did call attention to problems associated with children moving into schools with a different socio-economic level than the school in which they had previously been enrolled.

There has been much written regarding the relationship of extended family ties and mobility. Letwick (1960) from personal observations argued that a move which involved large geographic distances, did not lessen the family ties. Technology in the area of communication had enabled the kinship ties of the extended family to extend over the distance. Kinship ties did not inhibit a family's decision to move. Gabower (1960) found parental attitude toward the change influenced the relocation stresses felt by the family members. Parental help in initiating the childrens' activities in organizations in the new community aided in their adjustment to the new community. She studied the behavioral problems of children in Navy officer families and found the childrens' behavior was more closely related to the way in which the parents dealt with the children than to the conditions of the physical environment in which the subjects were located. She had two groups. The controls were children of Navy officers whose parents helped prepare the child for the move, helped the child find new friends, would guide him to group activities, helped him keep in touch when father was absent, helped him identify with the community through participation

and would ask or use the available psychological help. This group consisted of 8 boys and 7 girls ranging in age from 3-17 years. The parents of the experimental group (selected to match the controls) were less active in aiding the child's integration into the new community. Gabower (1960) found the experimental group had more troubles with physical health, the parents frequently had financial problems, and the parents did not agree on child rearing practices. The experimental group lacked spontaneity, acquired fewer attributes of life from the different places, had problems relating to other children and had difficulty accepting father's absence.

Evans (1966) in his work at Bunker Hill Air Force Base found mobility did not have an adverse effect on the students' academic achievement. He studied the cumulative record cards of 98, 5th and 6th grade students. He concluded these children had a definite ability to adjust, with each move they displayed a strong resiliency of personality and would bounce back from these moves and achieve again. Dreikurs (1958) said decisive changes in the external situation acted as a touchstone for the child's ability to adapt himself to the needs of social living. The resulting difficulties would provide an occasion for amending the defects in the child's earlier preparation for life. For younger children a change in the external situation could be used as an opportunity for establishing better conditions for the child's development.

The necessity of adjusting to a new environment made the child more amenable to a change in order and requirements. The move offered the possibility of establishing new order from the outset and for a chance to create a new and more advantageous setting for the whole process of training. Gans (1963) stated the move from city to suburb in itself had no effect on the mental health of the mover other than a positive one. This conclusion was drawn from the results of three different studies in three different locations. Others who have made statements concerning the positive aspects of mobility include: Chudocoff (1972) who studied 1775 prime age men in Omaha between the years 1880-1920 stated residential impermanence and social and psychological instability are not necessarily inter-related characteristics; Whyte (1953) who maintained periodic transfer had a positive outcome in itself; Rossi who (1955) observed that whatever other effect mobility has upon households, its direct impact upon them was very slight; and Gutman (1963) who stated mobility had been written into the middle class American character, after studying the census data from 1850 and 1940 which tried to follow the nations' mobility.

The ability to make the transition after a move can be a learned phenomenon. Fellin and Letwick (1963) theorized that the negative effects of mobility can be done away with, and the process of socialization into the new situation can be speeded up if steps toward that goal will be taken. They proposed a new section of

social organizations which would deal with this growing need of the population. The main emphasis of this organization would be to help with integrating the newcomers and aid in promoting positive group feelings toward moves. Stubblefield (1955) suggested methods could be developed which would minimize the traumatic effect of these families' moves and which would permit the children to develop positive attitudes about new friends and new experiences. If ease in transition can be learned, and if the transients studied move frequently it would appear that with more moves and experience in moving, moves could become an occurrence with minimal disruption.

The human being requires stability in his life. Lyon and Olkakee (1967) maintained that even with frequent residential changes, certain aspects of an individual's environment can remain stable. When they looked at military families and their children in school, they discovered some factors did provide security for these children. A stable, close family circle was important to both children and families. The cultures in which they were living were homogeneous. The schools had children who were very similar. There was little variation in intelligence of the children; no educably mentally retarded children and only a few gifted children. They came from similar backgrounds and homes. The homogeneity of the culture was evident. They described the military child in a military community as a mobile child in a mobile community who develops expectations of mobility in a culture in which this is the norm.

Some studies have looked at mobile families and compared them with stable families on differing factors. One such study looked at the creativity of eighth grade students who were residentially mobile. Lawton and Busse (1972) studied the relationship of frequency of moving with the development of creativity. They found no significant differences between the mobile and stable group of 293 eighth grade students enrolled at an exurban junior high school. A similar study looked at the self-concept development of highly mobile boys from military families. Wooster and Harris (1972) hypothesized that the mobile life of service sons deprived them of the opportunity to develop their self-concept to the level of their geographically stable peers. Using 16 year olds for their subjects, they predicted the mobile sample would have impaired ability to formulate judgemental categories and their application would be difficult in the assessment of themselves and others. The results found the stable group better able to make clear judgements involving self reference.

It is a common view in the popular literature to list the receiving of varied background experiences as one positive experience in mobility. Adaptation and flexibility are two other valued characteristics. Mann (1972) studied mobility as an adaptive experience among college freshmen adjusting to college life. Positive adaptation to mobility was most evident in the male sample. The reason for this was that the female roles

remained more clearly controlled through her differing experiences; less diversity was accepted. The males were found to have greater emphasis on individual interests and autonomy. Lerner (1964) maintained that the experience of mobility through successive generations gradually evolved a particular life-style which is very typical today. He went on to say the mobile personality has a high capacity for identification with new aspects of his environment and is equipped with the many mechanisms needed to incorporate the new demands that arise outside of his habitual experience. Empathy is an inner mechanism which enables the newly mobile person to operate efficiently in a changing world.

Values

The literature previously cited illustrates work that has been done with mobile families. Values being affected by a transient society have only been hinted at and were mentioned minimally in the popular literature. Vance Packard (1972) in A Nation of Strangers suggested that hedonism as a way of life was developing due to the mobility. He also stated that individualism is becoming more important than friends and family. The need seems to remain for work in the area of the values of transient families. This review of literature indicated a discrepancy in the field as to why and how moves are disruptive in nature.

The literature on values was found to be more consistent than that on mobility. Values and value clarification have recently been of major concern in the area of education. Values

are considered a vague and difficult to define concept. Inlow (1972) found values and value systems to be many dimensional and controversial. She illustrated the variety of different definitions of values by giving three meanings of values,

to Jules Henry, a value is something that is considered good; to Carl Rogers a value is the tendency of a person to show preference; and Raths, Harmin and Simon explained that out of an experience came general guides to behavior; these guides tend to give direction to life and are called values. (1972, p. 14)

The latter authors indicated that values are those elements which show how a person has decided to use his life. Robinson and Shaver (1970) viewed the realm of values as consisting of enduring and central clusters of beliefs, thoughts, and feelings that influence or determine important evaluations of choices in regard to people and situations. Robinson and Shaver (1970) differentiated values from attitudes in that attitudes were operationally found in greater numbers, are more general, central and pervasive, less situation bound, more resistant to modification, and may be tied to developmentally more primitive or dramatic experiences. Values, in contrast, influence judgements and actions beyond an immediate or specific situation or goal by providing an abstract frame of reference for perceiving and organizing experiences and for choosing among courses of action. Kluckhohn (1951) defined value orientation as a blend of affective cognitive (value) and strictly cognitive (orientation). A value orientation is a generalized and organizational concept which influenced the behavior

of nature, of man's place in it, of man's relations to man, and of the desirable and non-desirable as they related to man's environment and inter-human relations. Kluckhohn added, value orientations may be held by individuals or by groups and vary on a continuum from explicit to implicit. Nye (1967) believed values to be a key concept to understanding human behavior. He defined values as a high abstraction which encompasses a whole category of objects, feeling, or experiences. He elaborated on the concept of values as having hierarchical characteristics. It can be seen from the work of these individuals that values is a concept which is not easily defined, but which is very fundamental and important to the life of an individual.

The measurement of values is an area of difficulty which behavioral scientists have encountered in the process of identifying values. Handy (1970) concluded there is disagreement in the literature on what value measurement is and what values are in general. Difficulty is evident in that some maintain differences in personal values and what is socially preferred. Handy believed a value is not a value unless both individual and social aspects are involved. He reported values which were measured by behavioral scientists were trivial and that existing measurement techniques were inappropriate for more significant values. Robinson and Shaver (1970) stated that values were based on irrational and inexpressible feelings which were not accessible to psychometric techniques. They maintained the empirical investigation of values remained on isolated area within the field of social psychology

but stated that it was important within that field. These authors specified two problem areas within value testing. The first area dealt with the proper specifications of the universe from which value items are to be samples. The items could not be too general or they would elicit cultural cliches and miss individual differences, but they could not be too specific or they would test attitudes, beliefs, or motives. The second problem dealt with how these tests overlook the theoretical and methodological distinctions of what ought to be desired as compared to what is desired. The difficulty of measuring values, when added to the problems of definition, illustrates the troubles encountered by behavioral scientists who are involved in the study of values.

Research in the area of values and valuing has uncovered evidence which confirms the process involved in the acquisition of values. Rice (1975) stated that from social learning theory it became known that values were acquired through a process of identification, internalization and reinforcement. The family was a primary source in this process. When social institutions emphasized values similar to those of the family these values were enhanced. Rogers (1972) argued that in spite of changing emphasis within the modern family, young people were still influenced by their parents. Peer groups' standards determined such matters as dress and grooming, but parental influence prevailed in terms of basic value orientation. Lehman (1971) reported general

agreement concerning attitudes and valuing having their origin in the home with one's family. He did find a lack of agreement as to why and how some values or attitudes were adopted while others were modified or altered. Hurlock (1967) maintained the most accepted adolescent as the one who conformed most closely to the interests and values of his particular group. Adolescents who accept parents' values which were out of step with the peers' were often socially rejected. The adolescent often blamed this rejection on his parents. The adolescent frequently would accept a more liberal interpretation of his parents' values to avoid this problem. Brown, Harrison and Couch (1947) found the family unit had a less significant role in value formation when the children were ages ten to sixteen. Adams (1973) perceived adolescence as a period of transition during which the hierarchy of values was established. Rice (1975) argued that the reference group during adolescence was a most significant influence in molding moral values. Rath, Harmin, and Simon (1966) theorized values came from experiences. People with different experiences gave rise to different values. The values were related to the experiences which shape them and test them. They described a seven step process of valuing which included: 1) choosing friends; 2) choosing from alternatives; 3) choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative; 4) prizing and cherishing; 5) affirming; 6) acting often on the choices; and, 7) repeating. They emphasized choice as being

important in values and the development of values as being a life long and personal process. Fromm (1959) stated values were rooted in the very condition of human existence. He elaborated, that adding knowledge of these conditions (of the human situation) led to establishing values which have objective validity. Inlow (1972) found values inherent in individual man but also inherent, perhaps less definably so, in collective man. She saw it as a circular process. Values exist in the individual which flow into and shape the culture, which in turn flows into the individual. She viewed values as determiners of life choices and those of man's behavior. Some were handed down from past generations, others were original to the present generation. Inlow emphasized that values are always dynamic. Werkemeister (1967) saw no value experience as occurring in isolation. Experiences were always seen in context, both retrospective and prospective. Interconnectedness of the social and historical setting of the community with the experiences was seen as important. Crow and Crow (1956) argued that developing ideals, changing relative understanding, and broadening moral concepts all represented factors in the integration of life's values.

Values and socio-economic status are two variables which have been found to be interrelated. Lehman (1971) stated psychological and sociological research had demonstrated that socio-cultural differences in attitudes and values exist. Differ-

ences exist among lower and higher social status homes not only in child rearing but also in attitudes and values fostered and practiced in these homes. He indicated that within these same socio-cultural areas there seems a common value structure present. McCandless (1970) specified some of the differences between middle and lower class homes. The former he characterized as being tighter and more tense in atmosphere; a child from this type of home adjusts better to the educational system. The latter home is characterized by a need for immediate gratification. Kohn (1967) who did work with ten and eleven year olds of middle and working class families found each socio-economic group fostering different qualities. The parents were likely to accord high priority to those values that seemed both problematic (difficult to achieve) and important (failure to achieve would affect a child's future adversely). Both middle and working class mothers agreed that happiness, honesty, consideration, obedience, dependability, and self-control were highly desirable. Desirable qualities were: popularity, scholarship (especially boys), cleanliness (especially girls), and curiosity. The working class mothers favored obedience and neatness; few regarded happiness as important for boys. Important values for boys included: dependability, scholarship, and ambition. Values important for girls were: happiness, good manners, and neatness. The middle class mothers considered self control, sympathetic concern, curiosity,

and consideration as important for both boys and girls. They did not separate qualities as to sex as did the working class mothers.

Interest in the values of the youth of our society has become a recent concern of parents and educators. Conger (1973) observed that the perception of adolescents' beliefs and values on the part of adult society had become disproportionately influenced by the widely publicized views of a conspicuous and articulate minority. This view is not representative of young people in general. He added that the values of the average contemporary adolescent do appear to be changing in a number of respects, but the extent of these changes do not begin to approach current popular stereotypes in either extent or quality. He typified the youth of today as "flaming moderates." Generational differences do exist; youth are more willing than their parents to increase reform. Their attitudes reflect flexibility, tolerance and lack of prejudice. He defended the youths' confused value system and attributed it to the fact that adolescents have no frame of reference as do their parents. Adolescents are looking for ways of living in the present, their parents are nostalgic. As Dietz (1972) looked at the values of contemporary society he found a nucleus of values permeating all of society. Variance existed in the priority given the differing values within the hierarchical ordering. Two different groups may have the same values, i.e. values 1, 2, and 3; the difference can be seen in the order given these values. Group one may have

a hierarchial order of 1, 2, 3, while group two may assign their order as 2, 3, 1. The same values were central to both groups; the variance was in which was held in greatest esteem. Dietz found few characteristics given in his study which were not common to all groups. Lipset (1961) stated the American culture was better characterized by its likeness in value systems than its diversities. Maslow (1959) argued for a single ultimate set of values for mankind. The goal toward which all men strive is known by many names: self-actualization, autonomy, psychological health, but the ultimate goal is the same. Jacobs (1957) in his study of the values of college students found marked uniformity among the students and their values. Three-fourths of the students were contented with the present and the outlook for the future. He found the value fiber to be what he classified as flabby, this was due to the fact that they accepted the conventions of business as the context within which they realized personal desires. Other authorities felt that the values of our society are not this consistent but rather are an area of confusion. Kluckhohn (1958) theorized no single value can be held in identical form by two different persons. The "same" value undergoes changes in a single individual as he matures and his environmental situation alters. He further discussed regional, ethnic and class variations in values as they illuminate by contrastive perspective the "dominant" values of American society. He was convinced without going into an

empty level of abstraction no one can talk of American values. He continued by stating no matter how much compliance there may be, there is no complete internal acceptance of any one conventional point of view on everything or any general notion that the deviation of others from that viewpoint is wrong or bad.

Inlow (1972) stated the fundamental values that make up the fabric of our society constitute a potpourri. As an example she used the idealistic view of our society, but commented on the strong leaven of materialism also present. She concluded the country's values are unquestionably in a state of confusion and transition. Getzel (1957) saw similar dilemmas in the value structure of our country, examples he selected to illustrate these dilemmas included the values:

of "survival of the fittest" but "people ought to stand together for the common cause"; "poverty is deplorable and should be abolished" for "poor are always with us" and "everyone should try to be successful" but "the kind of person you are is more important than success". (1957, p. 99)

Because of these dilemma values were found to be a central and serious problem facing the schools. The self-identity of a person depends on the nature of the values he internalizes. Growing up successfully was seen to involve the acquisition of a satisfying set of values to live by and attaining a stable self-identity. If a child was having difficulties in adapting, two solutions were common. The first was an inflexible incorporation of one model which resulted in over-identification

and consequently neurotic restriction or the other common solution was a renunciation of all models of identification and delinquent license. Both solutions result in serious inadequacies in the child's personal development. Getzel further maintained society had failed the child, his solution was to make explicit to self and children the complexities of a value system. Spindler (1955) believed the American culture was undergoing a transformation that produced a conflict in the core values of American culture from traditional to emergent. The traditional values he classified as: puritan morality, work success ethic, individualism, achievement orientation, and future time orientation. The emergent values towards which the American culture was moving were classified as: sociability, relativistic moral attitude, consideration for others, hedonistic -- present time orientation, and conformity to the group. Spindler found this shift to be producing dysfunction and conflict.

Riesman, Glazer and Revel (1950) in The Lonely Crowd stated society depends on traditionally directed children but that the mass media were influencing children in a different manner which resulted in a change toward non-directed children. Kluckhohn (1958) pointed out eight trends in the shifting values over the past generation. He referred to these as a "free-hand sketch" and not a "final common path." The trends were taken from his extended review of the literature on values. These trends were:

1) strictly personal values had receded in importance at the expense of more publicly standardized "group values," 2) concomitant use of the psychological values related to mental health, education and training of children and the like, 3) values of future success had receded in favor of respectable and stable security in shorter time ranges, 4) aesthetic values had noticeably risen, 5) values of institutionalized religion was greater but in terms of numbers 1 and 3 above, 6) heterogeneity was becoming one of the organizing principles of the dominant American value system, 7) ideals of American women and their place in society had altered as had the sexual code, and 8) increased overt concern for abstract value standards, greater value being placed on explicit values.

Many believe the concept of values is out-dated. Allport (1969) believed the values of our society are not out-dated, just "rusty". He predicted if they are not revitalized, youth may not have the personal fortitude and moral implements that the future will require. Borr (1971) pointed out the increased number of options available from which the youth are able to choose. The value alternatives are also very diverse. This creates problems for the youth. Rath, Harmin and Simon (1966) have argued the result of this diversity of value alternatives and increased value options to be an individual who is unclear in his values. Characteristics typical of this type of individual were: apathetic, flighty, uncertain, inconsistent, drifter, over-conformer, over-

dissenter, and role player. These authors commented on the disruptiveness of families' moves on the emotional stability of the children. They back this up with the idea that the children's friendship pattern is destroyed and they must become oriented toward new community, new neighbors, new congregations, and a new and different pattern of life. Crow and Crow (1965) commented that mobile children and adolescents are able to mingle with others of their own age who have been reared in different homes which represented attitudes and behavior patterns that may differ completely from their own. These youth were confronted with the problem of determining which cultural values were most worthwhile.

Research which verifies the values of adolescents has been successfully undertaken. Conger (1972) found open, honest, meaningful interpersonal relationships important to adolescents. In the area of vocations, he found jobs that were meaningful rather than successful were more important to the adolescent. He also found that they viewed the future as unpredictable. In a later writing, Conger (1973) called the values of youth "still traditional." Values which were held important to youth included the ideals: 1) competition encourages excellence, 2) the right to private property is sacred, 3) a person can control what happens to him, 4) society needs some authority, 5) hard work leads to success, and 6) success is worth striving for. He found nine-tenths of all youth studied valued true friendships and love.

Allport (1969) commented on how youth subscribes to traditional values. Values which he listed as held important for adolescents included sincerity, honesty and loyalty. He added, adolescents were indulgent concerning the laxity in moral standards. When he compared our youth with other cultures he found them refreshingly frank, open and cooperative. The meaning given to values by contemporary youth is perceived as related to themselves. They are concerned for a private, rich, full life for themselves with little concern for national welfare. Friedenberg (1965) did a study involving the judgements of what is valuable in a human. His results illustrated values held by adolescents which were: 1) the importance of making a good impression, 2) distrust of autonomy when not directed and controlled by the school and 3) skepticism of the purpose of the study. He commented how throughout the study the authority figure was viewed as doing a job and not invading privacy. He found the youth studied to be most cooperative.

Bachtold (1968) compared the scores from Leonard Gordon's Survey of Interpersonal Values for 73 gifted and 190 average boys and girls in the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades. She found the gifted and average boys were both lower on support and benevolence and high on leadership. The average boys were also high in independence. The gifted boys were lower on recognition. The gifted girls were higher on independence than the average girls. In general, the boys were higher on independence and leadership and the girls were

higher on support, comfort and benevolence. Stafford (1969) studied 524 seniors from an urban Oklahoma High School, work was done with values, social integration and interpersonal orientation of mobile youth. He found no significant differences in these qualities as related to the magnitude of the mobility involved. Mobility did not have statistical significance on the effect on students' values. He commented that highly mobile students tended to hold more traditional values.

In summary, the literature reviewed indicates youth as being stereotyped as liberal in their value orientation, when in reality the majority are very traditional. The home and parental influence still prevail in directing the value formation of children and youth. In today's society, the children and youth, through television and other forms of mass media, are exposed to a much larger diversity of values. The options available are also increasing. The result is a concern on the part of educators and parents for the value clarification of adolescents.

CHAPTER III
PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

Purpose

The present research was designed to study the values of adolescents from families that were geographically mobile as compared to those from geographically stable families. The six values to be tested were: support, conformity, recognition, independence, benevolence and leadership.

Hypothesis

The subscales scores on the Survey of Interpersonal Values (SIV) will vary independently of mobile/stable status for adolescents.

Subscales are:

- a. support
- b. conformity
- c. recognition
- d. independence
- e. benevolence
- f. leadership

Rationale for the Hypothesis

Society, through mass media and an increasing homogeneity of social institutions, is becoming more unified psychologically and socially. This directly affects the mobile family. Special strains are often associated with moves, however these strains are greater when the move is not homogeneous in nature (Bauder and Burchinal, 1970; Schorr, 1956). Making a move that is

homogeneous is more likely to occur in contemporary society than it was in past decades. The integration process after a move has been found to be more easily accomplished when a family affiliates with community organizations and devotes time and energy to community activities. The individual will be participating in a different social system, but in our mass society these systems closely resemble the ones associated with in the previous community (Bauder and Burchinal, 1970; Gutman, 1963). Methods can be developed which will minimize the traumatic effect of moves by speeding up the process by which strangers are socialized, e.g. community "welcome" associations (Letwich, 1963; Stubblefield, 1955). Because society has experienced increased homogeneity in its institutions and organizations and knowledge is available to aid the socialization of newcomers, it seems logical to predict that moves are becoming less disruptive with greater ease in transition being experienced. Further it appears that mobile and stable families will share similar psychological and social environments.

The homogeneity of the society affects interpersonal and personal values. Dietz (1972) reported a nucleus of values which permeate all society. Variations in the hierarchy of these values are observable among different groups. The variance among individuals concerning their priority ordering of these values has been studied. Currently children and adolescents are confronted with more choices than in the past. Value options are increasing in these choices. There is a diversity of alternatives

available to children and adolescents (Borr, 1971; Rath, Harmin and Simon, 1966). Crow and Crow (1965) believe children and adolescents of mobile families mingle with others their own age who have been reared in different homes which represent attitudes and behavior patterns that may differ completely from their own. The mobile group is confronted with problems of determining which cultural values are most worthwhile. Similar statements have been made by Locke (1940) and Bower (1960) which reinforce this belief: 1) mobility increases contact with different patterns of behavior, and 2) a vast kaleidoscope of problems with overseas children were found due to the difference in styles of community life. While the mobile adolescent is additionally exposed to varying values and is posed with determining which are most worthwhile, a similar process is occurring in the stable adolescent who is being confronted with the same variety of values through the mass media. Therefore, it seemed appropriate to hypothesize that the subscales of the Survey of Interpersonal Values would vary independently of mobile/stable status for adolescents.

Sample

The subjects selected for this study were students who attended J.E.B. Stuart High School in Fairfax County of Northern Virginia. The subjects were ranked to the degree of mobility they had experienced in their life time. The resulting groups consisted of thirty-seven adolescents who had made five or more

moves and thirty-nine adolescents who had made only one move or had never experienced a move. None of the subjects had moved during the last six months. These groups were labeled respectively the mobile and stable groups.

Instruments

The researcher used Leonard Gordon's Survey of Interpersonal Values (1960) for assessing the values of the two groups. This instrument was designed to measure the relative importance ascribed to each of six factored, interpersonal value dimensions. The six dimensions are: 1) support -- being treated with understanding, encouragement, kindness, and consideration; 2) conformity -- doing what is socially correct, accepted and proper; 3) recognition -- being admired, looked up to, considered important and attracting favorable notice; 4) independence -- being able to do what one wants to do, making ones own decisions, doing things in ones own way; 5) benevolence -- doing things for other people, sharing and helping; and, 6) leadership -- being in charge of others, having authority and power.

The SIV was forced choice in nature and consisted of 30 groups of three statements. Each triad reflected an interpersonal value. The subject checked the statement most and least important to him. The items within each triad had been equated for social desirability. The instrument is available through Science Research Associates.

Test-retest reliability coefficients of the SIV ranged from +0.78 to +0.89 for the six value scores. The median value for these was $r = +0.84$. The Kuder-Richardson reliability results range from +0.71 to +0.86, with the median being $r = +0.82$.

The Survey of Interpersonal Values was developed through the use of factor analysis. The SIV scales may be considered to represent reliable, discrete categories and can be said to have factorial validity. In study prior to the factor analysis, the scales maintained their internal consistency through repeated item analyses across various samples.

The McGuire-White Measurement of Social Status (1955) in its short form was incorporated into a background questionnaire which the researcher developed (Appendix A). The three indexes considered for socio-economic status were occupation, source of income, and education. This instrument was selected due to the fact it does not require the amount of family income, it was readily accessible, and its short form would combine easily into the background questionnaire. The background questionnaire also asked for age, sex, grade in school, race, family size, family position, and number of residential moves the individual had made in his life time. This questionnaire was used to 1) rank the sample to degree of mobility experience and 2) control homogeneity of socio-economic status.

Administration of the Instruments

The Survey of Interpersonal Values and background questionnaire were administered to five English I (9th and 10th grade) classes and two English II (11th and 12th grade) classes at J.E.B. Stuart High School in Fairfax County of Northern Virginia. The instruments were administered by the researcher who introduced herself as a graduate student at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University who was doing research on the value orientations of students. She then thanked the teachers for their cooperation and asked the classes for theirs' also. An explanation of how to fill in the background questionnaire was followed by the directions for filling in the Survey of Interpersonal Values. Any questions which arose were then answered. The students were allowed to have as much time as they needed to fill out the survey. When all the students had completed the instruments, they were collected and the class was thanked for their cooperation and returned to their English teachers.

Analysis of Data

Students' t-tests were performed comparing the two groups on the six subscales. Variables examined included: geographic mobile status, interpersonal value dimensions, and sex. The two groups were matched on the basis of age, race and socio-economic status.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sample

Geographic areas with a highly mobile population have become a common occurrence in our society. Typically a high mobility area can be found in a large metropolitan area or near a military base. A stable area is not necessarily found in conjunction with the mobile area. Rural areas are most noted for permanence in residency. To avoid securing a mobile urban sample and a stable rural sample, an area was sought which offered both mobile and stable populations. The sample was taken in Fairfax County in Northern Virginia, an area that met the above criteria.

After reviewing the proposed survey, the administration of the Fairfax County Schools granted permission for the use of English classes at J.E.B. Stuart High School. Use of classes as sources of subjects were contingent upon the agreement of the department. Arrangements were made to have the researcher distribute the survey to those English classes in which the teacher agreed to volunteer class time. Students at J.E.B. Stuart are required to take two courses in English. English I, for grades 9 and 10, is the first course with English II, for grades 11 and 12, the second course. Three teachers and seven classes participated in the study making the total number of surveys completed 176.

The initial group of subjects was ranked according to the degree of individual's mobility. From this larger group, two samples were selected representing students who could be classified as geographically mobile and geographically stable. These groups were further classified based on age, race, and socio-economic status. The final subject group selected was fourteen through seventeen years of age, white, and belonged to the upper middle socio-economic class as defined by the McGuire-White Measurement of Social Status (1955).

The mobile group was made up of thirty-seven subjects, two were fourteen years old, sixteen were fifteen years old, sixteen were sixteen years of age and three were seventeen years old. The mean age was 15.78. The mobile sample contained sixteen (43%) females and twenty-one (57%) males. The family size of the subjects ranged from two to ten children with a mean of 3.865. The average number of moves was 7.676 and ranged from five to sixteen in number.

The stable group was comprised of thirty-nine subjects, five of whom were fourteen, fifteen were fifteen years old, ten were sixteen years old, and nine were seventeen years of age. The mean age was 15.56. There were fifteen (38.5%) females and twenty-four (61.5) males in this sample. The mean number of children in the family was 3.385 and ranged from one to seven children. The average number of moves was 0.385 (Table 1). A t-test was run to

TABLE I

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS

	<u>Stable</u>	<u>Mobile</u>
AGE		
mean	15.56 years	15.78 years
range	14-17 years	14-17 years
SEX		
males	24 (61.5%)	21 (57%)
females	15 (38.5%)	16 (43)
NUMBER OF MOVES		
mean	0.385	7.676
range	0-1	5-16
NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY		
mean	3.385	3.865
range	1-7	2-10

compare the differences in family size between the mobile and stable groups. No statistically significant difference was found.

Hypothesis Tested

It was hypothesized that the subscale scores of the Survey of Interpersonal Values would vary independently of the adolescents mobile/stable status. The rationale for the hypothesis briefly states that due to the increased homogeneity of society's institutions and organizations and the available knowledge to aid the socialization of new comers, moves are being experienced as less disruptive. It would appear that families, regardless of mobile/stable status, share similar psychological and social environments. In addition there would appear to exist a nucleus of values which permeate all of society. The mobile adolescent is exposed to varying values and is faced with determining which are most worthwhile. A similar process occurs in the stable adolescent who is exposed to value alternatives through mass media. Therefore it was hypothesized that the subscale scores of the SIV would vary independently of the mobile/stable status of the adolescent.

Difference of mean tests were run comparing the mobile and stable adolescents on the six subscales of the Survey of Interpersonal Values. Statistically significant differences were not evidenced in the comparisons, although two subscale comparisons, support and leadership, approached such significance (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

SURVEY OF INTERPERSONAL VALUES SUBSCALE COMPARISONS

Geographically Mobile vs. Geographically Stable

Subscale	Stable N=39	Mobile N=37	t Value	Probability
Support mean	18.5897	16.6757		
standard deviation	4.0960	4.5030	-1.9400	0.0570
Conformity mean	11.7179	11.5405		
standard deviation	6.3950	6.1400	-0.1200	0.9020
Recognition mean	12.2308	10.6486		
standard deviation	4.9440	4.9850	-1.3900	0.1690
Independence mean	17.6410	18.5405		
standard deviation	6.5710	7.6800	0.5500	0.5860
Benevolence mean	17.7179	18.1351		
standard deviation	6.0130	5.4830	0.3200	0.7530
Leadership mean	12.0513	14.2973		
standard deviation	5.6100	5.6370	1.7400	0.0860

The results of this study indicated that the adolescents' values did not significantly differ with mobile/stable status. The value subscales for conformity, recognition, independence and benevolence illustrate this similarity in value orientation as held by the two groups. The mean scores of the two groups were noticeably similar on the subscale for conformity. This similarity, as well as those evidenced on the other subscale scores, could be due to the similar psychological and social environments experienced by the groups as stated in the rationale for the hypothesis. The value subscale scores on conformity, independence, and benevolence indicate that these values commonly viewed as important during the adolescent period were held in common between the two groups. A popular view of the adolescent portrays the youth struggling for independence in association with his striking out through the advocacy of non-conformity. It is evident from the subscale scores on independence and conformity that the mobile adolescent does not have any more trouble with these areas than the stable adolescent as some authorities would believe.

Although not statistically significant, the data seem to indicate that the mobile group put less value on being treated with understanding, receiving encouragement from other people, and being treated with kindness and consideration (supported) than the stable group. The mobile group scored higher than the stable group on the subscale for leadership. This might indicate that the mobile group values being in charge of other people, having authority over

others, and being in a position of leadership or power more than its stable counterpart. It is interesting to note that on the subscale for recognition, the stable group had a higher score than the mobile group. Recognition involves valuing being looked up to and admired, being considered important, attracting favorable notice and achieving recognition. This value differs from leadership in that the latter is self-appraised while the former reflects how others appraise the situation. This may suggest that the stable group is more conscious of how others view them than the mobile group. The raw scores of the two groups can be found in Appendix B. The reader should be reminded once again that these data did not exhibit statistically significant differences but at best may indicate possible trends.

Controlling for Sex and Mobility

Science Research Associates (1963) reported significant sex differences occur on the subscales for support and leadership. They found females scored higher on support and lower on leadership than the males. With the current samples, when the degree of mobility experienced was held constant and sex differences studied, this was found to be true for the stable group (see Table 3). However with the mobile group the same trends were indicated but the differences were not significant. The benevolence scores of the mobile female were found to be significantly higher than those of the stable females. Mobile females scored significantly lower on the recognition subscale than the stable females. When

TABLE 3

SEX DIFFERENCES HOLDING MOBILITY CONSTANT

Mean Scores from t Comparisons

Subscale	STABLE		MOBILE	
	males N=24	vs. females N=15	males N=21	vs. females N=16
Support	17.5833	20.2000 *	16.0952	17.4375
Conformity	11.7083	11.7333	10.6667	12.6875
Recognition	12.0417	12.5333	11.7619	9.1875
Independence	18.0833	16.9333	19.6190	17.1250
Benevolence	16.9583	18.9333	16.0952	20.8125 **
Leadership	13.4167	9.8667 *	15.4762	12.7500

*
Significant at 0.05 level

**
Significant at 0.01 level

sex was held constant and mobility differences were studied there were no significant differences in the scores of the mobile and stable males (see Table 4).

Comparison with Science Research Associates Norms

Science Research Associates (SRA) established normative data for the subscale scores of the Survey of Interpersonal Values for males and females. Comparisons of their norms and data from the present samples are found in Tables 5 and 6. Visual comparison of these data would seem to indicate that with the exception of the conformity subscale the present samples exhibit values which are essentially similar to those of the SRA norm group. With regard to the conformity subscale, the means of both males and females in the current study are substantially lower than their SRA norm counterparts. It would appear that the current subjects value conformity considerably less than their SRA normative counterparts did when the original norms were published in 1963. Mobile/stable differences in scores appeared to be minimal.

Discussion

Support for the rationale for the hypothesis was found in the lack of significant differences between the six subscale scores of the Survey of Interpersonal Values (SIV) for both geographically mobile and geographically stable adolescents. The overall insignificance of the results could possibly be related to the homogeneity of the subjects. The controls for socio-

TABLE 4

MOBILITY DIFFERENCES HOLDING SEX CONSTANT

Mean Scores from t Comparisons

Subscale	MALES		FEMALES	
	Stable vs. N=24	Mobile N=21	Stable vs. N=15	Mobile N=16
Support	17.5833	16.0952	20.2000	17.4375
Conformity	11.7083	10.6667	11.7333	12.6875
Recognition	12.0417	11.7619	12.5333	9.1875 *
Independence	18.0833	19.6190	16.9333	17.1250
Benevolence	16.9503	16.0952	18.9333	20.8125
Leadership	13.4167	15.4762	9.8667	12.7500

*

Significant at 0.05 level

TABLE 5
 COMPARISON OF SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES NORMS
 WITH PRESENT SAMPLE: FEMALES

(Means and Standard Deviations)

Subscale	SRA N=666	Stable N=15	Mobile N=16
Support mean	17.5	20.2	17.4
standard deviation	4.8	4.0	5.6
Conformity mean	16.0	11.7	12.7
standard deviation	6.1	6.6	6.3
Recognition mean	12.7	12.5	9.2
standard deviation	4.8	5.2	3.8
Independence mean	14.3	16.9	17.1
standard deviation	6.6	6.7	8.1
Benevolence mean	18.9	18.9	20.8
standard deviation	5.9	7.1	4.6
Leadership mean	10.3	9.9	12.8
standard deviation	6.0	4.7	6.0

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES NORMS
WITH PRESENT SAMPLE: MALES

(Means and Standard Deviation)

Subscale	SRA N=782	Stable N=24	Mobile N=21
Support mean	15.4	17.6	16.1
standard deviation	5.5	3.9	3.5
Conformity mean	14.8	11.7	10.7
standard deviation	6.4	6.4	6.0
Recognition mean	12.6	12.0	11.8
standard deviation	4.9	4.9	5.6
Independence mean	18.3	18.1	19.6
standard deviation	7.3	6.6	7.3
Benevolence mean	14.7	17.0	16.1
standard deviation	6.3	5.2	5.3
Leadership mean	14.2	13.4	15.5
standard deviation	6.6	5.8	5.1

economic status and age possibly biased the investigation. It would appear a universal value structure was found possibly due to the similarity in age and socio-economic status. Therefore the results of this study indicate that adolescent values may not differ based on geographic mobility. When comparisons based on sex and mobility were made the basic similarity of the sample was again evident. The significant sex differences evidenced with this sample were the same differences found in other research which used the SIV. The similar value orientation of this sample was again reinforced when comparisons were made with the Science Research Associates (SRA) normative data on the SIV. The visual differences of this sample across mobility and sex when compared with the SRA's norms exhibited a lessened value placed on conformity. This could possibly be interpreted as evidence of a changing value system, from "traditional" to "emergent" (Spindle, 1955) for adolescents over the past 12 years. Present day adolescents may well not value conformity to the same degree as adolescents of 1963.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between mobility and the value orientations of adolescents. Two groups, one geographically mobile the other geographically stable, were compared on subscale scores of the Survey of Interpersonal Values. The SIV was administered to 176 students at J.E.B. Stuart High School in Fairfax County of Northern Virginia. These surveys were ranked by the degree of mobility the subject experienced. Mobile and stable samples were selected. Controls were exercised so all subjects were white, upper middle class and fourteen to seventeen years of age. It was hypothesized that subscale scores of the SIV would vary independently of the adolescents' mobile/stable status.

When values scores for the geographically mobile and geographically stable samples were compared no statistically significant differences were evident. When sex of the respondents was controlled three statistically significant differences were evidenced. It was found the stable females scored lower on support and higher on leadership than stable males. The mobile females scored higher on benevolence than mobile males.

A comparison of current subjects subscale scores with 1963 SRA-SIV norms indicated an essential similarity of values except

in the area of conformity. The current subjects valued conformity considerably less than the 1963 normative group.

Conclusions

Overall it can be concluded that the value scores on the subscales of the Survey of Interpersonal Values did not appear to be influenced by the mobile/stable status of the adolescents tested. This would appear to support the basic theoretical rationale for the hypothesis tested. The rationale proposed that due to similarity in psychosocial environments and the homogeneity of values in the larger society, mobile and stable adolescents would hold similar value orientations.

The selectiveness exercised in obtaining subjects for the current study and the resulting homogeneity of these subjects may have limited the finding of value differences. Reliance upon or development of empirical investigations in values is needed to avoid such enormous dependence on theoretical and assumed descriptions of values. If additional research were to be done examining the relationship of mobility and values, some of the following might be explored:

1. Variability across socio-economic status, i.e. values of geographically mobile vs. geographically stable lower class, lower middle, or upper class adolescents; or lower class vs. upper class geographically mobile or geographically stable subjects.

2. Variability across age and stage of the life cycle,
i.e. values of geographically mobile vs. geographically
stable elementary, junior high or adult subjects.
3. Variability related to ethnicity and cultural
assimilation.
4. Variability by sex as related to 1-3 above.

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APPENDIX A

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Age _____

Present grade in school _____

Sex _____

Race _____

Number of children
in your family _____

Your position in
the family _____

Fathers Occupation-- if military indicate rank and branch of service,
if business indicate type and position. (If father is absent
indicate reason and give mothers occupation.)

Primary source of income-- e.g. hourly wages, investments, welfare,
inherited wealth, seasonal work, salary

Fathers highest educational attainment _____

Number of residential moves you have made during your life time--
a move must have been from at least one county to another.

Indicate the date of your last move _____

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF INTERPERSONAL VALUES SCORES AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Geographically Mobile Group

Number of Moves	Number of Children	Sex	Age	Support	Conformity	Recognition	Independence	Benevolence	Leadership
5	2	F	15	22	7	12	13	23	13
5	2	F	15	14	19	8	6	25	18
5	4	F	15	25	15	15	8	21	6
5	3	F	16	22	9	6	21	20	12
5	5	M	15	19	9	13	24	11	14
6	5	F	16	17	16	7	10	26	14
6	4	M	15	17	6	8	25	17	17
6	6	F	16	18	13	10	16	21	12
6	5	M	16	20	21	5	12	20	12
6	6	M	15	13	7	14	9	27	20
6	4	M	15	15	11	7	20	23	12
6	10	F	16	13	8	8	9	30	22
6	3	F	15	23	6	9	30	15	7
6	3	M	15	22	17	22	5	9	15
7	3	M	17	9	23	4	23	18	13
7	3	F	16	20	8	5	31	20	6
7	3	F	16	21	14	12	22	18	3
7	3	F	16	8	28	5	12	18	19
7	2	M	14	16	13	11	16	26	8
7	3	M	15	20	3	9	30	10	18
7	4	M	16	16	14	16	18	17	9
8	3	F	16	7	13	5	20	22	23
8	2	M	16	16	12	17	13	16	16
8	3	M	16	15	8	14	21	17	14
8	7	M	17	18	6	4	32	18	12
8	3	F	16	15	15	18	11	12	19
8	4	M	15	16	3	9	27	18	14
8	3	M	16	14	12	15	18	7	24
9	3	M	15	23	5	16	26	10	10
9	3	M	15	17	10	20	16	15	12
10	4	F	15	25	2	12	27	15	9
10	5	F	15	16	11	7	25	22	9
10	2	M	16	14	8	21	12	13	22
11	4	M	16	11	17	7	13	19	23
12	4	F	14	13	19	8	13	25	12
13	3	M	15	11	1	7	29	15	27
16	4	M	17	16	18	8	23	12	13

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF INTERPERSONAL VALUES SCORES AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Geographically Stable Group

Number of Moves	Number of Children	Sex	Age	Support	Conformity	Recognition	Independence	Benevolence	Leadership
1	4	M	14	16	12	10	23	21	8
1	5	F	15	25	3	17	21	17	7
1	4	F	17	21	15	8	15	24	6
1	3	F	17	15	5	21	17	13	19
1	3	M	15	20	5	17	23	17	8
1	4	F	15	23	10	5	24	21	7
1	3	M	16	20	11	14	22	12	11
1	2	M	15	21	5	18	19	6	21
1	3	M	15	23	12	23	13	14	5
1	4	F	15	20	13	13	10	23	11
1	6	M	16	19	9	14	17	11	20
1	4	M	17	17	3	4	30	11	25
1	2	F	16	17	8	11	21	19	19
1	5	F	15	24	15	20	18	5	8
1	3	M	16	24	9	17	14	18	8
0	3	M	16	15	7	7	27	25	9
0	3	M	17	14	16	6	22	19	13
0	3	M	17	21	2	8	23	26	10
0	3	F	17	11	25	6	13	28	7
0	3	M	17	19	4	14	15	21	17
0	3	F	15	24	15	16	20	12	3
0	1	M	14	8	18	12	5	22	25
0	3	F	15	23	17	11	8	16	12
0	3	M	16	19	10	14	23	16	8
0	2	M	14	24	5	17	10	17	17
0	7	M	15	15	25	12	3	26	9
0	2	M	15	17	25	3	21	16	8
0	3	M	15	18	14	6	22	21	9
0	5	M	16	18	17	12	9	18	16
0	2	M	16	13	13	12	19	11	20
0	2	F	15	17	19	7	12	29	6
0	3	F	17	24	2	17	25	8	14
0	3	M	17	19	10	10	22	19	10
0	4	F	16	21	11	16	6	24	12
0	4	F	14	16	15	13	14	25	7
0	2	M	15	11	20	9	18	17	12
0	5	M	14	15	16	17	15	11	16
0	4	F	15	20	3	7	30	20	10
0	4	M	16	16	13	13	19	12	17

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THE VALUES OF GEOGRAPHICALLY MOBILE ADOLESCENTS

By

Faden Fulleylove

(Abstract)

Investigation of the relationship between mobility and the value orientation of adolescents was the purpose of this research. Two groups, one geographically mobile the other geographically stable, were compared on their subscale scores of the Survey of Interpersonal Values (1960). Because of the increased homogeneity of society, the similar psychological and social environments of the mobile and stable families, and the similarity of the valuing processes of the mobile and stable adolescents, it was hypothesized that the subscale scores would vary independently of the adolescents mobile/stable status. The SIV was administered to 176 students at J.E.B. Stuart High School in Fairfax County of Northern Virginia. The Surveys were ranked by degree of mobility the subjects experienced as evidenced by the subjects response to a Background Questionnaire. Subjects were white, upper middle class, and fourteen to seventeen years of age. Thirty-nine stable and thirty-seven mobile subjects comprised the sample. T-test comparisons were run comparing subscale scores of the SIV across the two groups. Statistically significant differences were not found.