INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

University Microfilms International
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 USA
St John's Road, Tyler's Green
High Wycombe, Bucks, England HP10 8HR

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL'S LEVEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

A Dissertation

Presented to the

Faculty of the School of Education

The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

---

by

James L. Young

May 1978

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL'S LEVEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

by

James L. Young

APPROVED	DATE
William Bullock, Jr. (CHAIRMAN)	4.26.78
Armand J. Galfo	4.26.78
Robert Wainscott	4.26.78

Doctoral Committee

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Sally Harrison Young; to my two sons, Stirling and Robby; to my father, Robert Bonnell Young; and to my mother, Sybil Whigham Young, from whom I learned the meaning of the phrase, "To have the courage of your convictions."

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to Dr. William Bullock for his guidance as the chairman of my doctoral committee, and for his personal and intellectual encouragement as my professor and friend. I also express my appreciation to Professors Armand J. Galfo and Robert Maidment for their long-standing academic and personal support.

The professional cooperation of the principals and faculties who took the time to assist in this study is gratefully acknowledged.

I extend my thanks to Dr. Andrew E. Hayes, University of North Carolina, for his assistance in completing the computer analysis of data from the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, to Dr. Andrew W. Halpin, who encouraged me and provided me with valuable information; to Dr. Robert Bloom for his help in conceptualizing the moral development portion of my research design, and to David Reed in the Computer Center of the College of William and Mary, who walked me through the mysteries of computers and data cards.

Table of Contents

Appendix

List of Tables

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL'S LEVEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Chapter 1

Introduction

The past decade in the social history of the United States has been characterized by an emergent sense of ethical and moral awareness. In the institutions of government, business, medicine, and law, moral controversies have been made manifest by such dilemmas as euthanasia, political patronage, false or misleading advertising, and court-ordered busing.

Education in the United States has wrestled with moral education and values for a century or more in the public schools. While some teachers traditionally have assumed a cultural mandate to prescribe morality, recent concerns have shifted the focus on morality outside the classroom to encompass the entire educational environment. A freedom of information doctrine has opened heretofore closed meetings of public school officials while students and parents now may challenge the contents of educational records. The concept of in loco parentis must be balanced by the school administrator with court-recognized rights of the student. All of these considerations give rise to the existence of an added dimension to the concerns of the educational administrator--the moral or ethical dimension.

In the domain of educational administration, empirical research on moral considerations has been nonexistent until recently. Research in administration heretofore has been concerned primarily with such concepts as administrative technology or management systems.

Research which delved into the personality dimension of administrative leadership tended to focus on such psychological constructs as motivation, attitude, drive, or need-dispositions (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968). Morality, if considered at all, was deemed to be the province of the philosopher and, thus, not viable as the subject of heuristic study.

In business, however, ethics have been the subject of considerable expository, if not empirical, examination. A close review of institutional literature reveals that the executive's influence on the quality of decision-making within the organization has been considered pervasive (Baumhart, 1961). Selekman (1958), for example, has postulated that the moral atmosphere projected by the chief executive and his management group is the most potent source of management authority operating in organizations. Johnston (1961) considered almost every business decision an executive must make as an inherently ethical one, and, therefore, felt that the manager's system of values was critical to the fabric of the organization. Baumhart, in reporting the findings of a survey of 1,700 Harvard Business Review executive readers, was quite specific about the ethical relationships perceived in business organizations. He found ethical behavior on the part of executives attributable to their own set of values and the influence of their superiors; whereas unethical acts, the respondents felt, emanated from the ethical climate of the industry as well as from the behavior of the superiors. Ethics and climate, then, are considered by authors in the business world to be inextricably bound together in a reciprocal relationship.

The current interest in ethical matters, as they relate to institutions in general and education in specific, requires a definition of morality in terms of the behavior of the educational administrator. Furthermore, it also demands an examination of just what consequences in the educational environment might be expected from varying degrees of moral development exhibited by educational leaders.

Theoretical Background

Moral Development

In the context of current research in the moral domain, measurements of moral reasoning are not a grading of "goodness" or religious piety. Rather, they are assessments of sophistication in moral judgment, reasoning, and decision-making (Kohlberg, in Goslin, 1969). Central to the issue of moral development is the problem of cultural relativity in regard to what is morally right or wrong. Is morality based on what a specific culture dictates as right? Or are there values which are not culture-specific and which define a universal set of moral behaviors?

Kohlberg's (1958) findings of psychological research showed culturally universal stages of moral values. These findings suggested that liberty and justice are not values peculiar to the culture of the United States but are universal moral principles independent of cultural or religious membership, education, or belief. To arrive at this conclusion, Kohlberg studied the moral development of hundreds of boys, aged 9 to 23, in the United States, Taiwan, Malaysia, Turkey, Mexico, and a Mayan Indian village. The subjects were interviewed

about a variety of moral dilemmas appropriate to their cultures, and their responses were classified into a system of cross-cultural stages of moral reasoning. The assertion that the stages are culturally universal emanated from the cross-cultural facet of the studies which showed similar classifications of moral responses across age levels between, for example, boys of Taiwan and the United States (Kohlberg in Sizer, 1967).

From these studies, Kohlberg (in Sizer, 1967) developed a taxonomy of moral stages and sequences. Implicit in the concept of stage is the requirement for invariant sequence. That is, each individual must move step-by-step through each of the stages of moral reasoning as he develops. It is possible for each individual to move at varying speeds and to become arrested at any level, but if he continues to move upward he must do so sequentially. Table 1 presents Kohlberg's classification of moral levels and stages.

According to Kohlberg (1972), moral principles, as opposed to a moral rule such as "Thou shall not kill," are guides to effective moral behavior and problem solving. Whereas moral rules are mandates for specific actions in specific situations, moral principles are guides for choosing between alternative (and sometimes conflicting) behaviors. Thus, moral principles are free from culturally defined content and represent a universal structure of human ehtical values.

The principle of justice, stated Kohlberg (1972), is central to the development of moral judgment. He defined justice as "the primary regard for the value and equality of all human beings, and for reciprocity in human relations [p. 14]." In arguing for an

Table 1

Classification of Moral Judgment into

Levels and Stages of Development

Levels	Basis of moral judgment	Stages of development
I.	Moral value resides in external quasi-physical happenings, in bad acts, or in quasi-physical needs rather than in persons and standards.	Stage 1: Obedience and punishment orientation. Egocentric deference to superior power or prestige, or of trouble-avoiding set.
		Stage 2: Naively egoistic orientation. Right action is that instrumentally satisfying the self's needs and occasionally others'. Awareness of relativism of value to each actor's needs and perspective. Naive egalitarianism and orientation to exchange and reciprocity.
II.	Moral value resides in performing good or right roles, in maintaining the	Stage 3: Good-boy orientation. Orientation to approval and to pleasing and

Table 1 (continued)

Levels	Basis of moral judgment	Stages of development
	conventional order and the expectancies of others.	helping others. Conformity to stereotypical images of majority or natural role behavior, and judgment by intentions. Stage 4: Authority and social-order maintaining orientation. Orientation to "doing duty" and to showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. Regard for earned expectations of others
III.	Moral value resides in conformity by the self to shared or shareable standards, rights, or duties	Stage 5: Contractual legalistic orientation. Recognition of an arbitrary element or starting point in rules or expectations for the sake of agreement. Duty defined in terms of contract,

Table 1 (continued)

Levels	Basis of moral judgment	Stages of development
		general avoidance of violation of the will or rights of others, and majority will and welfare.
		Stage 6: Conscience or principle orientation. Orientation not only to actually ordained social rules but to principles of choice involving appeal to logical universality and consistency. Orientation to conscience as a directing agent and to mutual trust and respect.

Note. From "Moral and religious education and the public schools: a developmental view" in L. Kohlberg in T. Sizer (Ed.), Religion and public education. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1967. P. 171.

active recognition of the school's responsibility for moral education of youngsters, Kohlberg (in Sizer, 1967) posited his argument for the incorporation of moral principles into the broader fabric of educational administration.

> The school, like the government, is an institution with a basic function of maintaining and transmitting some, but not all, of the consensual values of society. The most fundamental values of society are termed moral values, and the major moral values, at least in our society, are the values of justice. According to any interpretation of the Constitution, the rationale for government is the preservation of the rights of individuals, i.e., of justice. The public school is as much committed to the maintenance of justice as is the court [p. 165].

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate has been described, variously in the literature, as: organizational environment (Forehand & Gilmer in Deci, Gilmer, & Karn, 1972), psychological climate of the relationship between superior and subordinates (McGregor, 1960), social system (Getzels et al, 1968), and group atmosphere (Fiedler, 1962). Tagiuri (in Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968) defined it more specifically as:

> A relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that is (a) experienced by its members, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of the particular set of characteristics

(or attributes) of the organization [p. 27].

Halpin (1966), who has been in the forefront of organizational climate research for the past 20 years, declared, "Personality is to the individual what Organizational Climate is to the organization [p. 131]." Halpin's reference to the "personality" of a school denoted his perception of how schools differ from each other in their "feel." Certain schools seem to exude enthusiasm and purposefulness in what they do while others seem to reflect a mechanical or ritualistic environment. It was this "personality" or "feel" which he described as the "Organizational Climate," and this observation was the major impetus for his research (Halpin & Croft, 1963) to map the domain of climate, to identify and describe its dimensions, and to develop a dependable measure of its characteristics.

Another impetus to Halpin and Croft (1963) for studying the concept of organizational climate was the work done in the Ohio State Leadership Studies using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Halpin, 1956). Although these studies focused on leadership behavior, the researchers recognized that, for a leader to be effective, there had to be some congruence between the leader's style and how ready the group members were to receive that style. Halpin and Croft, then, swung their attention to the group members and, whereas the LBDQ provided data needed to analyze leader behavior, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was developed by them to analyze organizational behavior. The OCDQ was used in their investigation to measure the organizational climate in elementary schools as it was perceived by the teachers in those

schools.

Halpin and Croft (1963) analyzed the climate of 71 elementary schools located in six different regions of the United States. After factor-analysis of the responses of the 1,151 teachers, they were able to identify six organizational climates which constituted a continuum defined at one end by an "Open Climate," and at the other by a "Closed Climate." Table 2 provides a brief description of each of the climates in this continuum.

Problem

Statement of the Problem

The problem of the present study was to investigate empirically the relationship between measures of climate openness and the measure of the level of moral development of principals in elementary schools. In addition, data were sought to determine which dimensions of organizational climate were most related to the level of principal's moral development and, furthermore, to determine the relation of length of position incumbency of the principal and the school climate. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. To what degree does the level of moral development of elementary school principals relate to the organizational climates of their schools?

2. Is there a significant relationship between high- and low-stage moral development of administrators and teachers' perceptions of administrative behavior?

3. Is there a significant relationship between high- and

Table 2

Six Organizational Climates

Description [direct quote]
Open
The Open Climate depicts a situation in which the members enjoy extremely high Esprit. The teachers work well together without bickering and griping . . . . They are not burdened by mountains of busywork or by routine reports; the principal's policies facilitate the teachers' accomplishment of their tasks . . . . On the whole, the group members enjoy friendly relations with each other, but they apparently feel no need for an extremely high degree of Intimacy. The teachers obtain considerable job satisfaction, and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustrations. They possess the incentive to work things out and to keep the organization "moving." Furthermore, the teachers are proud to be associated with their school.
Autonomous
The distinguishing feature of this Organizational Climate is the almost complete freedom that the principal gives to teachers to provide their own structures-for-interaction so

Table 2 (continued)

Description [direct quote]
that they can find ways within the group for satisfying their social needs. When the teachers are together in a task-oriented situation they are engaged in their work. The essential point is that the teachers do work well together and accomplish the tasks of the organization.
Controlled
The Controlled Climate is marked, above everything else, by a press for achievement at the expense of the social-needs satisfaction. Everyone works hard, and there is little time for friendly relations with others or for deviation from established controls and directives. This climate is overweighted towards [sic] task-achievement and away from social-needs satisfaction. Nonetheless, since morale is high (Esprit), this climate can be classified as more Opened than Closed.
Familiar
The main feature of this climate is the conspicuously friendly manner of both the principal and the teachers. Social-needs satisfaction is extremely high while, contrariwise, little is

Table 2 (continued)

Description [direct quote]
done to control or direct the group's activities toward goal achievement. No one works to full capacity, yet no one is ever "wrong"; also, the actions of the members--at least in respect to task accomplishment--are not criticized (low Production Emphasis).
Paternal
The Paternal Climate is characterized by the ineffective attempts of the principal to control the teachers as well as to satisfy their social needs. . . . his behavior is non-genuine and is perceived by the teachers as nonmotivating. The climate is, of course, a partly Closed one.
Closed
The Closed Climate marks a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task-achievement or social-needs. In short, the principal is ineffective in directing the activities of the teachers; at the same time, he is not inclined to look out for their personal welfare. This climate is the <u>most</u> closed and the least

Table 2 (continued)

Description [direct quote]
genuine climate . . . identified. This climate characterizes an organization for which the best description is radical surgery.

Note. From Theory and research in administration by A. W. Halpin, New York: Macmillan Co., 1966. Pp. 174-181.

low-stage moral development in administrators and teachers' perceptions of teacher behavior?

4. What elements of organizational climate are most strongly related to the level of moral development of the administrator?

5. To what degree does the level of moral development and years of job incumbency of principals interact with organizational climate?

Significance of the Problem

Kohlberg's (in Goslin, 1969) model of cognitive-developmental approach to moralization was based on the premise that moral stage is related to moral behavior. In essence, to act in a morally high way requires a high stage of moral development since one cannot adhere to moral principles in his behavior if one cannot understand them. Kohlberg has found consistent results between stage level and behaviors such as honesty, civil disobedience, bystander intervention, and refusal to inflict pain on another. He does state, however, that one can reason based on moral principles, but not live up to them. A variety of personal and situational factors determines whether a person lives up to his stage of moral development in a given situation. Nevertheless, moral stage has shown to be a good predictor of action (Kohlberg in Lickona, 1976, p. 32).

How, then, are the gaps between leader morality, leader behavior, and group climate theoretically bridged? Kohlberg (in Goslin, 1969) partially constructed the bridge with the conclusion that stage of moral reasoning leads to corresponding moral behavior. Halpin (1966), in summarizing the findings of a series of leader

behavior studies, completed the bridge when he stated: "Changes in the attitudes of group members toward each other, and group characteristics such as harmony, intimacy, and procedural clarity, are significantly associated with the leadership style of the leader [p. 98]."

Since leadership style is manifested by the leader's behavior (determined in part by his morality), then leader morality also must be related to those group characteristics of "harmony" and "intimacy," both of which are integral components of climate. In short, a leader's morality is a predictor to his behavior and to his leadership style which is closely associated with factors comprising organizational climate.

Educational administrators should seek to refine and describe the factors which influence the practice of educational management and its environment. Only by empirical illumination can the factors accurately be assessed and effectively manipulated in order to achieve stated institutional goals. In short, the question, "Does stage of moral development have significant effects in the educational administration milieu?" promises to have significant impact, as empirical data are compiled, on the subject of the environmental consequences of administrative behavior. The present study was an attempt to add to that body of empirical evidence.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the operational definitions given here were adopted. Understanding the terms and reasoning included in the theories under discussion will aid in conceptualizing the hypotheses presented later in the text.

Moral Development

The degree of administrator moral development was measured in this study by the Defining Issues Test (DIT) developed by Rest (1974b). The raw data from this instrument yielded a "Principled" morality score ("P" Score) which is interpreted as "the relative importance attributed to principled moral considerations [p. 2-2]" in making a moral decision. The "P" scores were divided at the subject sample median to designate High Moral Development and Low Moral Development.

Climate

The organizational climates of the schools in this study were measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire developed by Halpin and Croft (1963). The raw data from this instrument yielded scores which produced a profile of the organizational climate of the school. This profile allowed each school to be placed on a continuum from Open to Closed organizational climate. In addition, the data yielded an Openness score for each school. The higher the Openness Score, the more open the climate. The definition of Open climate is provided in Table 1.

Principal and Teacher Behavior

The items on the OCDQ were divided by Halpin and Croft (1963) into two sets of behaviors, Teacher and Principal, and were scattered randomly throughout the test. The raw data from the instrument provided scores for each school on the eight dimensions of climate, four of which were Principal Behaviors and four of which were Teacher Behaviors. These eight dimensions are described in Table 3. Thus, besides providing a score on openness for each school, the OCDQ also

Table 3

The Eight Dimensions of Organizational Climate

Description [direct quote]
Dimension of Teacher Behavior: Disengagement
Refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it." This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions," a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand.
Dimension of Teacher Behavior: Hindrance
Refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary "busy-work." The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.
Dimension of Teacher Behavior: Esprit
Refers to morale. The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

Table 3 (continued)

Description [direct quote]
Dimension of Teacher Behavior: Intimacy
Refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.
Dimension of Principal Behavior: Aloofness
Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation.
Dimension of Principal Behavior: Production emphasis
Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss." His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

Table 3 (continued)

Description [direct quote]
Dimension of Principal Behavior: Thrust
Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization." Thrust behavior is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teachers.
Dimension of Principal Behavior: Consideration
Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat teachers "humanly," to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

Note. From Theory and research in administration by A. W. Halpin, New York: Macmillan Co., 1966. Pp. 150-151.

identified the relative strengths of each of the eight dimensions which comprise Halpin and Croft's concept of climate.

Experience

The number of years of incumbency in position as principal of a subject school constituted the experience variable. The years of job incumbency were divided at the subject sample median to designate More Experience and Less Experience.

Chapter 2

Relevant Research

Much of the theoretical basis of this study was found in the field of organizational psychology. The essence of such research is an interest in human behavior as it is affected by organizational characteristics, and in organizations as they are influenced by the behavior of their members (Gilmer, 1971).

The theoretical background on moral development and judgment resides almost solely within the realms of philosophy and psychology. The applications of concepts of morality research to the practice of administration, especially in education, is virtually nonexistent. Thus, this study sought, through the construct of morality, to suggest a bridge between the disciplines of philosophy, psychology, and administration.

Moral Development

As early as 1897, Dewey (in McMurray, 1897) argued for the pragmatic application of moral principles in education. In an article entitled, "Ethical Principles Underlying Education," he declared:

> We believe in moral laws and rules, to be sure, but they are in the air. They are something set off by themselves. They are so very "moral" that there is no working contract between them and the average affairs of everyday life. What we need is to have these moral principles brought down to the ground

> through their statement in social and in psychological terms. We need to see that moral principles are not arbitrary, that they are not merely transcendental; that the term "moral" does not designate a specific region or portion of life. We need to translate the moral into the actual conditions and working forces of our community life, and into the impulses and habits which make up the doing of the individual [p. 32].

Citing the limiting characteristics of public opinion as the principal sanction of moral conduct, the social psychologist McDougall (1921) looked to other ways that men might "advance to a plane of conduct higher than that regulated by the approval and disapproval of their social circle [p. 217]." Ultimately, according to McDougall, men's moral conduct emanates from an altruism tempered by the "habit of self-criticism [p. 232]." This concept of self-criticism was reiterated even more strongly by Dewey (in Ratner, 1939).

> In questions of social morality, more fundamental than any particular principle held or decision reached is the attitude of <u>willingness to reexamine and if necessary to revise current convictions, even if that course entails the effort to change by concerted effort existing institutions, and to direct existing tendencies to new ends</u> [p. 777].

Cognitive development research in morality began, essentially, with Piaget's <u>The Moral Judgment of the Child</u> (1932). In this pioneering work, Piaget defined the domain of morality in terms of human behavior pertaining to rules of cooperation, and he called

attention to the differences in the thinking of young children in contrast to the thinking of older ones. Furthermore, through the use of hypothetical stories, interview techniques, and probing questions, he set the stage for the development of instruments for gathering data in the realm of moral reasoning.

A summary of Piaget's (1932) text on moral development in children reflects his realization of the cognitive process by which children move from a stage of "moral realism," i.e., rules are regarded as sacred and to be obeyed without question, to autonomy in moral reasoning wherein rules are rational, due to mutual respect, and the outcome of free decision. This movement, according to Piaget, occurs in three distinct stages: the motor rule, by which the child seeks to satisfy his motor interests; the coercive rule, wherein play conforms with rules received from the outside; and the rational rule, in which the child applies rules in a spirit of genuine cooperation, based on mutual agreement and reciprocity.

These general moral stages parallel the stages of cognitive development distinguished by Piaget (1969) and have been shown to meet the criteria for cognitive-structural stages in the following ways:

1. They are qualitatively different modes of thought as the stages progress rather than an increased internalization of social norms or adult beliefs.

2. They constitute an invariant order of sequence. Movement is always forward, step-by-step.

3. The stages form a structured whole. The stage of moral

development cuts across all types of dilemmas, verbal and behavioral, thus, eliminating "situation-specific" variation in moral thinking.

4. The stages are hierarchical in nature. Subjects can comprehend all stages below their own current stage and not more than one above (Kohlberg, 1973).

Kohlberg depicted a corresponding relationship between Piaget's logical stages of cognitive development and his stages of moral development, as shown in Table 4.

Replications of Piaget's (1969) investigations are legion, and a brief sampling of just some of the studies stemming from his basic research reflects the versatility of his cognitive development approach to moral reasoning. Generally, research has shown: a positive correlation between the Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and mature moral judgment (Harris, 1970; Johnson, 1962); that both White children and Negro children of higher social class groups were more mature in moral attitudes than children of lower social class groups (Harris); and generally insignificant relationships between sex differences and moral reasoning (Boehm & Nass, 1962; Durkin, 1962; Irwin & Moore, 1971). A comprehensive summary of "Piagetian" and subsequent research has been compiled by Modgil (1974).

While substantial attention has been drawn to the need to produce evidence on the relation between children's judgments on hypothetical moral dilemmas and actual behavior in concrete moral situations, there generally have been few conclusive studies investigating this concern. The classic study on this subject, and one which still retains significance, was the work of Hartshorne and May

Table 4

Relationship between Piaget's Logical Stages of Cognitive Development and Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Reasoning

Logical stage--Piaget	Moral stage--Kohlberg
Symbolic, intuitive thought	Stage 0--The good is what I want and like
Concrete operations, Substage 1 categorical classification	Stage 1--Punishment-obedience orientation
Concrete operations, Substage 2 reversible concrete thought	Stage 2--Instrumental hedonism and concrete reciprocity.
Formal operations, Substage 1 relations involving the inverse of the reciprocal	Stage 3--Orientations to interpersonal relations of mutuality.
Formal operations, Substage 2	Stage 4--Maintenance of social order, fixed rules and authority.
Formal operations, Substage 3	Stage 5A--Social contact, utilitarian law-making perspective.
	Stage 5B--Higher law and conscience orientation.
	Stage 6--Universal ethical principal orientation.

Table 4 (continued)

Note. From "Continuities and discontinuities in childhood and adult moral development revisited" in Collected papers on moral development and moral education, L. Kohlberg (Ed.). Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1973. P. 63.

(1928-1930), in which children's moral character was expressed as a set of culturally defined virtues such as resistance to temptation (honesty), willingness to sacrifice something for a group or a charitable goal (service), and persistence in assigned tasks (self-control). A significant finding of Hartshorne and May suggested that the most influential factors determining resistance to temptation to cheat or to disobey were situational factors rather than a fixed moral character trait of honesty. Kohlberg (in Hoffman & Hoffman, 1964) interpreted this and subsequent findings on situational variation by stating, "moral conduct is in large part the result of an individual decision in a specific moral conflict situation [p. 387]." The individual decision, however, is affected only in part by the situational factors since other factors, such as personal considerations, also impinge on the moral decision.

Consistency, or generality, in moral behavior has been the subject of a number of studies. Consistency refers to Kohlberg's (in Goslin, 1969) concept of the "structural whole" that causes an individual to behave in similar ways to different moral situations. Peck and Havighurst (1960) conducted a longitudinal study and produced evidence for generality rather than specificity in moral behavior. They found that, although inconsistency was characteristic of all subjects, there was a consistent pattern of behavior which was maintained throughout maturation. Ugurel-Semin (1952) designed an experiment to assess the relationship between moral judgment and moral behavior in young children. He found some consistency between judgment and behavior with children who demonstrated a capacity for

sharing with others.

The second major phase of research on moral development began with Kohlberg (1958). Extending Piaget's works, Kohlberg developed more intricate hypothetical dilemmas, interviewed older children and adults, and proposed a more refined stage and sequence model of moral development. Perhaps more importantly, Kohlberg's work has helped to define what characteristics in peoples' thinking are pertinent to cognitive development investigation and how these characteristics might be assessed accurately. In specific, Kohlberg's findings substantively support stage theory of cognitive development in moral judgment:

1. Using chronological age as an index of individual development, older children show greater use of higher stage moral reasoning than younger children (Kohlberg in Goslin, 1969).

2. The concept of stage implies an invariant sequence of development which is culturally universal; there are general aspects of social interaction that are relevant in any culture for making moral judgments (Kohlberg in Goslin, 1969).

3. Changes in subjects' stages are invariably upward at one step at a time (Kohlberg in Wolins & Gottesman, 1971; Turiel, 1966).

4. Moral judgment is a rational process as reflected in correlations of Kohlberg's (in Goslin, 1969) stage with IQ; however, cognitive development is necessary but not sufficient for advanced moral development.

5. Stages relate to each other hierarchically, as reflected

in the subject's reduced comprehension of concepts at stages higher than his own predominant stage as opposed to high comprehension of concepts for stages up to and including the subject's own stage (Rest, 1969).

The vast majority of research on cognitive and moral development has been conducted with youngsters through adolescence. Generally, consistent findings in the early research studies on moral development suggested that the basic formation of moral character is developed early and remains stable (Kohlberg in Hoffman & Hoffman, 1964; Piaget, 1932). More recent studies, however, have challenged this finding and now point the way to the conclusion that principled (higher stage) moral reasoning is reached in adulthood, not in adolescence (Kohlberg, 1973; Kohlberg & Kramer, 1969).

Dexheimer (1969) surveyed 444 school superintendents to ascertain members' acceptance or public adherence to the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) Code of Ethics. Responses were received from 242 chief school administrators and the results showed more unethical than ethical responses. In addition, the results reflected that the age of the subjects was not a factor; humanities majors had relatively unethical responses; there was a negative relation between ethical responses and career longevity; and salary and size of school district were positively related to ethical standards. He concluded that "ethical standards are internalized personally and are not affected by such as a public code [p. 7]."

Bloom (1976) found that education graduate students showed

significantly lower levels of moral judgment than did students from other fields. Using six moral dilemmas of Rest's (1974a) Defining Issues Test, Bloom's findings showed that education students who are graduates of teachers colleges had significant predilections for nonsense responses in solving moral dilemmas. "It seems that graduates from teacher preparatory colleges are particularly apt to be more impressed by the pretentiousness of a statement than by its substance [Bloom, 1976, p. 624]."

Candee (1975) used Kohlberg's measure to assess the moral climate of prominent members of President Nixon's administrative "team." Using Senate testimony and other public statements of Nixon's close advisors, Candee's study revealed that nearly all of Nixon's coterie seemed to reason at Stages 3 and 4 on the Kohlberg scale. The conclusion reached was that the Watergate scandal resulted, in part, because the demands for loyalty and "win at all costs" were readily acceptable to the Stage 3 and 4 persons who made up Nixon's administration.

> Participants were enthusiastic but essentially ordinary people who responded to the pressures of the campaign with decisions that from a stage 3 or 4 point of view seemed right and reasonable. This view also explains how men who in other areas of their lives acted with probity could perform acts which, from the perspective of stage 5, were unethical. In short, the Watergate actors can be seen as morally confused rather than morally malicious [p. 191].

The concept of climate and its relationship to moral behavior as a

viable subject of heuristic study is manifested in the current research being conducted by Kohlberg (1976). He and his associates have created an experimental "just community" school in which rules and decisions are made by students and teachers together in a democratic fashion. Since he considers democracy to be central to the core of moral development, Kohlberg plans an evaluation after 3 years by comparing "the institutional change in moral climate in [the] experimental schools with equivalent levels of moral judgment and climate in 'matched' counterpart schools [p. 1]." Specifically, Kohlberg argued that:

> The concept of moral climate implies that there exists a group moral level which is not simply an addition of the tested levels of individuals but which is a social gestalt. This group or institutional level in turn affects the level of the individual. Moral education should attempt to work with, and raise, the level of moral climate, directly, as well as focusing on individual change [p. 8].

Scharf (1974) has investigated the concept of moral atmosphere in correctional facilities. The significant difference between his and Kohlberg's areas of research lies, in Scharf's words, "in the fact that Kohlberg attempts to code the justice of individual moral thinking where this system [a justice structure typology] seeks to type collective institutional justice contracts [p. 3]." Hypothesizing that correctional inmates would tend to prefer institutional moral climates which operated above the inmates' own stage of moral reasoning and

reject those with atmospheres below their own stage, Scharf developed a moral atmosphere interview. The interviews were scored using a relatively reliable coding system (81% blind agreement) which indicated if inmates accepted or rejected a particular aspect of institutional moral atmosphere. The prisons chosen varied in terms of the degree to which principles of justice, mutual contract, and shared principled agreement were present in the institutional structure. The results supported his hypothesis that the inmate's moral reasoning as well as his prolonged delinquency may be related to both the injustices and the moral climates found in most prisons.

Organizational Climate

The concept of organizational climate is an outgrowth of the work initiated by Lewin and his associates during the 1930s. In Lewin's (1951) theory of motivation, an aspect of his "field theory," the concept of "atmosphere was a primary functional link between a person (P) and the environment (E) [p. 241]." Lewin considered climates as "psychological atmospheres which are empirical realities and are scientifically describable facts [p. 241]."

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) sought to study climate as an "empirical reality" by focusing on democratic, autocratic, and egalitarian leadership roles. Using groups of 10-year-old boys, Lewin and his associates observed various measures of aggressive behavior on the part of the subjects in each of three "social climates." The results showed that the various roles of the adult leaders (and thus the types of climates) were indeed related to the degree of aggressiveness of the boys. In a restatement of the 1939

study, the authors reported:

> The adult-leader role was found to be a very strong determiner of social interaction and emotional development of the group. Four clear-cut types of social atmosphere emerged, in spite of great member differences in social expectation and reaction tendency due to previous adult-leader (parent, teacher) relationships [Lippitt & White, 1958, p. 510].

Argyris (1958) mapped the organizational climate of a bank and suggested several clusters of climate variables representing "levels of analysis."

> The right type and passive leadership represent the personality level of analysis. Once they become norms or codes for the organization they represent group and cultural levels of analysis. Poor wages and infrequent advancement are phenomena from the level of mass opinions and attitudes. Employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction are thus actually resultants of the interaction of a host of multilevel variables. The officer and employee informal cultures represent the cultural level of analysis [p. 516].

In his model, Argyris assumes that such elements as "hiring process," "right type," and "passive leadership" may be the source of the process by which organizational climate evolves.

McGregor (1960) spoke of a "psychological climate" which is created by behavioral manifestations of managerial attitude. He considered this climate to be "more significant than the type of leadership or the personal style of the superior [p. 134]." Thus, he

saw that the climate was more indicative of the basic managerial assumptions and attitudes than such personal characteristics as democratic or autocratic leadership style.

Likert's (1961, 1967) comparison of different management systems, from authoritative to participative (System 1 to System 4), contains many of the aspects of the concept of climate as it is viewed by the members. Operating throughout Likert's descriptions of management systems are such climate factors as "character of interaction-influence process," "cooperative teamwork," "attitudes toward goals," and "motivational forces" (1961, pp. 223-334).

Blake and Mouton (1964) also recognized the need for a general concept of organizational climate. Once again, the term "organizational culture" is used when addressing the responsibility of a manager to manage the culture, not just people. Building on Lewin's (1951) Behavior as a Function of the interdependence between a Person and his Environment, these researchers contend that "a condition for organization development involves the situation as a whole, that is, the culture of the organization, with all that the word 'culture' implies [p. 260]."

Stern (1970), while indulging his early interests in human personality, especially as it might be reflected in the differences in college environments, saw an analogy between human personality and the personality of the institution. Drawing on the work of Murray in the 1930s, Stern expanded Murray's need-press model to develop two instruments to assess need-press factors which he felt determined the climate of colleges. Later, in concert with Steinhoff, Stern used an

adaptation of one of the instruments, the Organizational Climate Index (OCI), for use in the public schools of Syracuse, New York (Owens, 1970). Data from the OCI provides information from the organizational participants on such factors as: intellectual climate, achievement standards, supportiveness, orderliness, practicalness, and impulse control (Owens & Steinhoff, 1969).

In seeking to map the domain of organizational climate, and to identify and measure its dimensions, Halpin and Croft (1963) analyzed the climate of 71 elementary schools. The instrument ultimately produced (OCDQ) identified six climates comprising a taxonomy of climates on a continuum which moves from Open through Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, and Paternal, to Closed. In addition to the typology of climates, the researchers identified three general factors of organizational climate--Social Needs, Esprit, and Social Control--which describe the types of behavior that occur among members of elementary school faculties. According to Halpin (1966), this three-factor solution "provides an effective way of 'explaining' the composition of the eight subtests which define the Organizational Climate profiles [p. 162]."

Litwin and Stringer (1968) designed an experimental study to examine the influence of leadership style and organizational climate on the motivation and behavior of the organization members. Having created three simulated business organizations, each headed by a "president" with a distinctive leadership style, the researchers set out to essentially refine the classic study of Lewin et al. (1939) by varying leadership style to induce different organizational

climates. Specifically, the climates, and the leadership styles designed to create them, were:

1. A climate of maintenance of formal structure. Leadership which is power-related.

2. A climate of loose, informal structure. Leadership which is affiliative.

3. A climate of high productivity with emphasis on delegation and rewards for performance. Leadership which is achievement-related.

One-way analysis of variance reflected that the three businesses were significantly different from each other on all climate dimensions ($p < .05$ for all dimensions), thus showing that every scale of organizational climate was significantly affected by the leadership style inputs. The authors concluded that "leadership behavior is a very significant determinant of organizational climate [p. 104]."

Bridges (1965), in his study of elementary school principals in a large midwestern city, concerned himself with the socialization influence on principals' behavior of school system expectations of those principals' roles. Specifically, he hypothesized that:

> Role performance should be characterized by uniformity rather than diversity with perspectives, outlook, and behavior shaped more and more by institutional position and less and less by personality in the course of service within a given bureaucratic role [p. 20].

With this set of assumptions before him, Bridges set out to examine the relationship among dogmatism and experience of the principal and

the teachers' perceptions of his personal qualities and performance. The principals were divided into four groups: (a) open-minded with more (than the median years) experience; (b) open-minded with less experience; (c) closed-minded with more experience; and (d) closed-minded with less experience (experience was defined as years of incumbency in current position). As an indicator of the personal qualities and performance of the principals, the Immediate Supervision section, Factor B, of the Organization Survey (1961) was used as a dependent variable measure. The Immediate Supervision section of the Organization Survey contains eight personality and behavior items very similar to the types of items found in the OCDQ. Analysis of variance was used to determine the relationship among principals' dogmatism, experience and teachers' perceptions of the principals' personal qualities and job performance. Among Bridges' findings were:

> [1.] Among the open-minded and closed-minded principals with more than the median number of years' experience there are no statistically significant differences with regard to Immediate Supervision scores. . . .
>
> [2.] Extreme differences, however, exist between the teachers' descriptions of open- and closed-minded principals with less experience. . . .
>
> [3.] Increased experience . . . has a leveling effect on the personal qualities and performance of elementary principals as perceived by teachers. . . .
>
> [4.] Increased experience seems to lead to a movement

> toward the mean--an upward movement in the case of the less experienced, closed-minded group, and a downward movement in the case of the less experienced, open-minded group. . . . [5.] An analysis of age and dogmatism revealed that there were no significant differences attributable to age when dogmatism was held constant [pp. 22-23].

Bridges concluded that "the principal's behavior is affected, perhaps molded, by his bureaucratic role [p. 24]," and that the portions of role and personality vary in their respective influence on administrative behavior in proportion to the years of incumbency in the bureaucratic role. The conclusion by Bridges is further substantiated by similar research done by Wiggins (1969 in Monahan, 1975) in which he concluded:

> Apparently the district and the educational establishment itself carefully prepare principals to behave in a rational, predictable, and uniform manner. This renders them more predictable and more easily interchangeable; their personalities become as one. With this in mind the research of the author measured the principal's behavior as related to the school (the subsystem) when it more appropriately should have focused upon the district (the system). It is the district (the system) that over the years influences the behavioral characteristics of its principals in an enduring and pervasive manner a good deal more so than does the school where he [sic] is assigned [pp. 357-358].

In summary, studies have shown that cognitive-moral

development is classified into a sequence of culturally universal stages of moral reasoning, independent of social norms or religious tenets. These stages are hierarchical in nature, each constituting an invariant order of sequence, and they transcend any content-specificity which may determine a given situation. In addition, measures of moral development have been correlated with such characteristics as age, education, and intellectual ability. Recent morality research has focused upon the concept of moral climate in educational and correctional institutions.

Research in the field of organizational behavior has revealed that climate is an empirical reality which can be measured. Validity studies have confirmed the existence of at least eight dimensions of climate which are divided into four Principal Behavior dimensions and four Teacher Behavior dimensions. In addition, a continuum of six climates has been identified, defined at one end by an Open Climate and at the other by a Closed Climate. Finally, leadership behavior has been shown to be a significant determinant of climate.

Hypotheses

The foregoing theory and research predicted relationships between level of moral development, administrative experience, and organizational climate. These expected relationships are stated in the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

The degree of openness of the organizational climate, as measured by the Openness Score, will be positively related to the level of moral development possessed by the principal, as measured

by the "F" Score, at a statistically significant level.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant relationship between the total years of administrative experience of the principal and the openness of the organizational climate.

Hypothesis 3

The organizational climates of faculties serving under Less Experienced principals with High Moral Development will be more open, at a statistically significant level, than the climates of faculties serving under Less Experienced principals with Low Moral Development.

Hypothesis 4

The climate dimensions defining Principal Behavior will be significantly more related to moral development than will be the climate dimensions defining Teacher Behavior.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship among levels of moral development and experience of elementary school principals and the degree of openness of those principals' school climates as perceived by their faculties. Chapter 3 contains an explanation and description of the methodology used to accomplish this goal. The following sections are included: (a) Research Site and Experimental Population, (b) Sample Selection, (c) Description of the Measures, and (d) Statistical Procedures.

Research Site and Experimental Population

The research site for this study was the Tidewater region of Virginia which contained nine school districts, ranging from small rural to large urban systems. In 1970, the population of these rural and urban areas ranged in size from approximately 9,000 to over 308,000. The total elementary student population in 1976 was 167,647, with the smallest district containing 2,834 and the largest having over 40,000.

The school region contained 215 elementary schools and employed approximately 6,150 elementary instructors. For purposes of this study, only those schools containing grades K (Kindergarten) through 6 were considered elementary. Where schools contained grades beyond grade 6, teachers in those other grades were excluded.

The Virginia Department of Education figures were the basis for size of each school's instructional faculty. The original sample population of teachers was 1,734, although that figure included part-time faculty members who were not used as subjects. These teachers were asked to respond to the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (Halpin & Croft, 1963), administered to measure the organizational climate in each school.

Sample Selection

From the original population of 215 elementary schools in the Tidewater region, 60 schools were randomly selected using a computer-generated set of random numbers. The Defining Issues Test, "Opinions about Social Problems" (Rest, 1974b), was completed by 41 principals from a total population of 60 in the elementary schools which constituted the original sample population. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (Halpin & Croft, 1963) was completed by 1,030 teachers from the total population of 1,734 full- and part-time instructional faculty members, grades K through 6, in the 41 schools which responded. Data from the DIT and the OCDQ, along with demographic data on the principals, were punched onto data processing cards.

Schools were arbitrarily assigned a coded identification number. This number was used throughout the processing of this study in place of the proper names of the subject schools.

Description of the Measures

The measurement of the dependent variable was accomplished by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire developed by

Halpin and Croft (1963) to measure organizational climate. The dependent variable was the Openness Score provided by the OCDQ. The measurement of the moral development independent variable was accomplished by the Defining Issues Test, "Opinions about Social Problems," developed by Rest (1974b) to measure degree of sophistication in moral reasoning. This independent variable was the Principled Morality Score ("P" Score) provided by the DIT. The second independent variable, experience, consisted of the years of experience as principal within the subject school as reported by the principal. Additional demographic data collected included: principal's age, total years of administrative experience, and years of administrative experience within the present school system.

Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire

Since the use of the OCDQ is apparently inappropriate for large urban secondary schools (Owens, 1970, p. 183), the subject principals and their schools were drawn only from elementary schools. The organizational climates of the 41 elementary schools in the population were measured by the OCDQ (Halpin & Croft, 1963). Each regular classroom teacher, grades K through 6, in each of the schools was sent, via the school's main office, a copy of the OCDQ complete with directions and an attached envelope. These instruments were placed in an envelope which was addressed to the principal of each school. A letter containing directions was attached to the front of the envelope. A copy of the directions is found in Appendix A. A self-addressed envelope was provided for return of the questionnaires

by mail, and an information copy of the OCDQ was provided to each principal. Of the 1,734 questionnaires distributed, 1,030 were completed by teachers and returned. A valid rate of return cannot be computed, however, since the 1,734 figure used was based on State Department of Education reports of full- and part-time instructional personnel, as well as teachers of grades other than K through 6, but who served in the subject school.

On the OCDQ protocols, the teachers indicated their assessment of the organizational climate of their respective schools. The respondents indicated their choice of the 64 Likert-type items on a 4-point scale of "rarely occurs," "sometimes occurs," "often occurs," and "very frequently occurs." In so doing, the respondent indicated to what extent the behavior described by each item best characterized the environment of the school (see Appendix B for a sample questionnaire). Scoring of these responses yielded eight scores, one for each of the eight dimensions defined by Halpin and Croft (1963). School means, standardized both normatively and "ipsatively," were computed for each of the eight dimensions of climate to produce Climate Profile Scores. Of the eight dimensions scores, four described the behavior of teachers as it was perceived by those teachers, i.e., Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy. The remaining four dimensions served to describe the behavior of the principal as it was perceived by the teachers, i.e., Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration.

Another piece of data derived from the OCDQ was the Openness Score. The score is computed from the double-standardized school

means by computing the sum of the Esprit and Thrust scores and subtracting the Disengagement score (ESP + THR - DIS). The basis for this score is the second-order factor analysis which was performed by Halpin and Croft (1963), and they describe the Openness Score as a reliable indicator of the openness of a school climate.

Considerable research and discussion of the validity of the OCDQ is available. Halpin (1966) addressed the concept of validity thus: "The climate is Open if the faculty perceives it is Open. We are satisfied to take the position that the faculty's consensus in its perception of the school's climate can be used as a dependable index of what is 'out there' [p. 147]."

Most validation studies have concerned themselves with the validation of the eight dimensions of the OCDQ. Research conducted by Brown (1965), Emma (1964), and Gentry and Kenney (1965) confirmed the original eight dimensions defined by Halpin and Croft (1963). Halpin and Croft computed the following correlation coefficients between the subtest scores for the odd- and even-numbered teachers in the 71 original schools: Disengagement .59, Hindrance .54, Esprit .61, Intimacy .49, Aloofness .76, Production Emphasis .73, Thrust .75, and Consideration .63.

Hayes (1973) conducted a 3-year study to determine which items of the OCDQ were dependable indicators of the defined dimensions of climate. His work sought to provide insights into what revisions of the OCDQ might be required. Using available data from over 12,000 teachers and principals in over 1,000 schools, Hayes conducted several factor analyses, and among his findings were:

1. a canonical correlation coefficient of .90 as an estimate of the reliability of the climate profile as a dependable indicator of the domains tapped by the OCDQ;

2. nine climate dimensions as opposed to Halpin and Croft's (1963) eight, but two of these dimensions were not identified by Halpin and Croft; and

3. the Aloofness dimension could not be identified from the data compiled.

Hayes, therefore, concluded "that the OCDQ in its present form will measure, with different degrees of dependability, all of the dimensions which were identified by Halpin and Croft except Aloofness [p. 50]."

Opinions about Social Problems:

The Defining Issues Test

Concurrent with the faculties' completion of the OCDQ, the principal of each school was requested to complete the Defining Issues Test, "Opinions about Social Problems," developed by Rest (1974b) as a means of assessing the degree of moral development (see Appendix D for a copy of the questionnaire). The instrument consists of six moral dilemmas or stories, each having 12 issues assigned to it. The subject, after reading the story, rated each issue in terms of its importance to making a decision concerning the dilemma. Then, the subject considered all 12 items and selected the four most important ones. Since most of the issues represent stage characteristics of Kohlberg's hierarchy of moral reasoning, this ranking of issues indicated the value to the subject of various stages of dilemma-solving reasoning. Those issues not representing a moral development

stage were either "Anti-establishment Orientation" ("A" items) or "Nonsense" statements ("M" items). The "A" items were ones which typify a point of view condemning the existing social order for its arbitrariness or its corruption by the rich for the exploitation of the poor. Some preliminary evidence from DIT research suggests the concept of "A" as a stage 4-1/2. The "M" items were representative of lofty sounding but meaningless ideas and were designed to tease out a subject's tendency to endorse statements for their pretentiousness rather than meaning.

Data from each test yielded for each subject a "Principled" morality score ("P" score), which is defined as "the relative importance attributed to principled moral considerations [Rest, 1974b, p. 2-2]." The range of possible "P" scores was 0 to 57. To measure the construct validity of the DIT, Rest and his colleagues correlated the "P" scores of 47 subjects with written responses to four moral dilemmas and their stage scores using Kohlberg's scale. The subjects were ranked by their stage type and this was correlated with their DIT "P" score. The correlation was .68 (Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, & Anderson, 1974).

Each principal of the 60 subject schools was sent a copy of the DIT, entitled "Opinions about Social Problems," at the same time the OCDQ was sent to the faculty, but in a separate envelope. A letter containing directions was included with the instrument (see Appendix C for a copy of the directions). A self-addressed return envelope was provided. There were three follow-up telephone calls made to those schools which did not return either the principal or

faculty protocols by the return deadline; 41 schools returned usable DIT and OCDQ instruments, providing a 68% return rate.

In considering the validity of the DIT as a measure of moral reasoning in the "Kohlberghian" sense, three concerns are salient.

1. Does the instrument tap a developmental trait?

2. What are the correlations with other developmental traits such as IQ, age, and education?

3. Can an intelligent subject fake a higher stage of moral development than that which he actually possesses?

In developmental research, cross-sectional age trends are typically the primary source of evidence that an investigated phenomenon may be developmental. Logically, older, more educated subjects should be generally further developed than younger, less educated subjects. Both Piaget's (1932) and Kohlberg's (1958) developmental work used cross-sectional age trends. Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, and Anderson (1974) chose groups of subjects who presumably would be at the extremes of the DIT scores. Moral philosophy and political science doctoral students were used to represent the higher levels of moral reasoning, and a ninth-grade group was chosen for the lower end of the scale. In between groups of twelfth graders, college students, and seminarians were tested. An analysis of variance across these groups revealed highly significant group differentiation ($F = 34.52$, $p < .0001$). The correlation of the "P" index with age in this study was .62.

There were 88 subjects from the original study (Rest et al., 1974), who were junior and senior high school students, tested 2-years

later. Among the findings were the following:

1. The group as a whole showed significant upward movement on the "P" index (matched $t = 5.50$, $p < .0001$).

2. The former junior high school subjects who were now in senior high school moved up 3.4 points on the "P" index (significant to matched t at the .02 level), and former high school students moved up 12.0 points (significant on matched t beyond the .0001 level).

3. The former senior high school students who went on to college increased twofold in "P" index upward movement over the former senior high school students who did not go to college.

Dortzbach (1975) analyzed the relationship of age and education to moral judgment in an adult sample, aged 25 to 74, which was randomly selected from voter registration lists in Eugene, Oregon. Similar to the student samples of Rest et al. (1974), Dortzbach found a clear relation of education with moral judgment. In age trends, however, there was a negative relationship with moral judgment. The correlation of the DIT with age was -.403, $p < .001$. Although the negative age trends might suggest a tendency in adults to regress in moral judgment with age, such was not the case since, in Dortzbach's sample, the oldest subjects had the least education and also the lowest "P" scores as well. Thus, the negative age trend is accounted for by differences in education.

Rest (1976), in summarizing a variety of studies correlating moral judgment with intellectual ability (IQ, aptitude, and achievement), found generally significant relationships. Although the correlations were collected on very diverse samples and using very

diverse tests, most of them fell in the range of the .20s to the .50s. In the cases in which correlations were lower than .20, an explanation was available. In general, Rest found "Consistently significant correlations of the DIT with IQ and achievement for junior highs, senior highs, college students and adults [p. 12]."

McGeorge (1975) administered the DIT twice to college students in an attempt to determine the "fakability" of the test. In the "Fake-Good" condition, subjects were asked to answer the questions as someone concerned only with the highest principles of justice and ethical judgment. In the "Fake-Bad" condition, students were asked to answer the questionnaire as someone with no sense of justice or concern for other people. His results indicated that subjects can fake downward in moral stages but not fake upward on the DIT ($p < .001$).

Experience

Since the research of both Bridges (1965) and Wiggins (in Monahan, 1975) strongly suggested the influence of leader experience upon school climates, it seemed imperative that this variable be included in the study. Each principal was requested to complete items concerning personal demographic data in concert with completing the DIT. Items on the DIT instructions form requested information as to the principal's age, total years of administrative experience, number of years of administrative experience in the present school district, and number of years as principal of the subject school. No attempt was made to verify the data supplied by the respondents.

Statistical Procedures

The measurement of the dependent variable, openness of school climate, was provided by the Openness score of the OCDQ. This was computed by summing the doubly-standardized school means of Esprit and Thrust dimension scores and subtracting the Disengagement score (ESP + THR - DIS). The signs associated with the subtests were positive for Esprit and Thrust and negative for Disengagement. The measurement of the independent variable, moral development, was provided by the "P" score of the DIT. This was computed by weighting the four rankings of the most important issues for each dilemma, giving a weight of 4 to the first choice, 3 to the second choice, 2 to the third choice, and 1 to the fourth choice. If the first choice on a particular dilemma happened to be a stage 5 issue (Principled level in Kohlberg's taxonomy), then the respondent received a point value of 4 for that choice of principled moral reasoning. All scores above stage 4 were totaled in order to get a "Principled" morality score for each subject.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

In order to determine the soundness of this study's basic hypothesis, the Pearson product-moment correlation test was used to determine if openness of school climate and principal's level of moral development covaried. Hypothesis 1 was tested for statistically significant correlation between Openness ("O") score and Principled ("P") score.

Multiple Regression

Multiple regression was used to test Hypothesis 2. This type

of analysis allowed for determining the contributions of age and years of various administrative experience to the openness of the school climate. Through this analysis could be determined the relationship between the total years of administrative experience and the openness of climate.

Analysis of Variance

One-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used to test Hypothesis 3. This analysis determined if a statistically significant difference existed in the mean openness scores between Less Experienced principals with High Moral Development and Less Experienced principals with Low Moral Development. High Moral Development and Low Moral Development were determined by dividing the "P" scores at the sample median. High Experience and Low Experience were computed similarly.

Canonical Correlation

Hypothesis 4 was tested by canonical correlation. This type of analysis determined which dimensions of climate were significantly related to the personal dimensions of the principal, including Moral Development.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents the data obtained in this investigation to determine the relationships between the level of moral development of elementary school principals and the degree of openness of school climate. A total of four hypotheses were generated from the theories and previous empirical research relevant to the constructs of moral development and organizational climate. The school means of climate Openness scores ("O" scores) computed from faculty responses on the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire constituted the measure of openness, the dependent variable. Computation of individual school's Climate Profile Scores from subtest means of the OCDQ provided measures of the relative strengths of the eight dimensions of organizational climate. Appendix E provides a summary of the Openness and Climate Profile scores for the sample population of schools. Principled Morality scores ("P" scores) for each of the subject principals computed from their responses on the Defining Issues Test constituted the measure of moral development, the independent variable. In addition, subject-supplied data concerning various levels of administrative experience were collected to constitute the measures of experience. A summary of principals' morality scores and personal data is provided in Appendix F.

The data collected were analyzed by four means: correlation coefficient, multiple regression, one-way analysis of variance, and

canonical correlation. The results of each of these statistical analyses collected to test the predictions made are reported under separate sections for each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between the degree of openness of the school climate and the level of moral development possessed by the principal. This relationship was tested by means of Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation. If the measures of the two variables were found to covary positively, then it could be said that a positive relation between the two variables existed, and Hypothesis 1 would be substantiated. The results revealed an r index of .456, which was significant with 41 cases at the .001 level of confidence. Hypothesis 1 was confirmed. The correlation coefficient results relevant to Hypothesis 1 are shown in Table 5.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be no significant relationship between the total years of administrative experience of the principal and the openness of the school climate. To test this hypothesis, multiple regression was used to analyze the contributions of principal's age, total years of administrative experience (TOTYRE), years of experience in the current school district (YRSSDE), and years of experience as principal of current school (YRSSE) to the openness of the school climate. An F ratio was established for the variance in climate openness scores for each of the experience variables. Table 6 provides a summary of the results of the multiple regression tests

Table 5

Correlation Coefficient of Moral Development and Climate Openness

Variable	Cases	Mean	Standard deviation	r index
"P" score	41	21.5122	8.1336	
"O" score	41	36.9268	13.4581	
				0.4560*

*$p < .001$

Table 6

Multiple Regression--Variability between Openness and Experience

Variable	Degree of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F ratio
Age	1/39	338.68907	338.68907	1.91264*
YRSSDE[a]	2/38	387.75475	193.87737	1.07442*
YRSSE[b]	3/37	458.12076	152.70692	0.83254**
TOTYRE[c]	4/36	479.17904	119.79476	0.63743***

[a]YRSSDE--years of administrative experience in the school district

[b]YRSSE--years of experience as principal of subject school

[c]TOTYRE--total years of administrative experience

*$p > .10$

**$p > .32$

***$p > .42$

relative to this hypothesis.

The data resulted in F ratios, none of which reached the .10 level of confidence. When age, years in the school district, and years in the school were controlled for, the effects of total administrative experience did not reach the .42 level of confidence. Since the null hypothesis was accepted, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the climates of faculties serving under Less Experienced principals with High Moral Development would be significantly more open than the climates of faculties serving under Less Experienced principals with Low Moral Development. The subjects first were divided at the median on years of job incumbency as principal of the current school (YRSSE), to denote More Experienced principals or Less Experienced principals. The subjects in the Less Experience category then were divided at the median "P" scores to denote High Moral Development and Low Moral Development. The Openness scores of these two groups were subjected to one-way ANOVA. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 7.

The ANOVA resulted in an F ratio of .819 with 1 and 21 df, $p > .05$. These data did not support the prediction that Less Experienced principals with High Moral Development would have more open climates than Less Experienced principals with Low Moral Development. Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that the climate dimensions defining Principal Behavior (Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and

Table 7

Analysis of Variance--Variability in Openness between Less Experienced, High and Low Moral Development Principals

Source	Degree of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	*F* ratio
Between groups	1	179.8734	179.8734	.8190*
Within groups	21	4611.0774	219.5751	

*$p > .05$

Consideration) would be more related to moral development than the dimensions defining Teacher Behavior (Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy). Canonical correlation was used to test the relationships in this prediction between the set of independent variables relating to the principals' personal data (age, moral development, and experience factors) and the set of dependent variables defined by the eight climate dimensions. Data from this test produced canonical variables in two sets, and the strength of the resultant correlation coefficients between the variables within these two sets indicated which of the independent and dependent variables were more closely associated. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 8 and Table 9.

The canonical correlation analysis predictably produced "P" score, or moral development, as the primary factor contributing to the first canonical variable in the set of independent variables (x^2 probability = .051). The "P" score was the factor most closely associated with the dimensions of climate ($\underline{R}$ = .766550). The next strongest factor in the first canonical variable (with an $\underline{R}$ of -.423344) was age. Moral development and age, then, were most strongly related, positively and negatively, respectively, to those climate dimensions in the set of dependent variables which produced the highest correlation coefficients. Referring to Table 9 again, "P" score was related, in order of associative strength, negatively to Teacher Disenagement, -.532071; and positively to Principal Thrust, .442713; Principal Aloofness, .426110; Principal Consideration,

Table 8

Canonical Correlation Analysis--Principals' Personal Data

Canonical	Age	P score	YRSSE[a]	YRSSDE[b]	TOTYRE[c]
Variable No. 1	-0.42344	0.766550	0.064097	0.208804	0.060921

Note: Correlation coefficients between each canonical variable in Group 1 and the variables of group 1.

[a]YRSSE--years of job incumbency as principal of subject school

[b]YRSSDE--years of administrative experience in current school district

[c]TOTYRE--total years of administrative experience.

Table 9

Canonical Correlation Analysis--Climate Dimensions

Canonical	TCHDIS[a]	TCHHIN[b]	TCHESP[c]	TCHINT[d]	PRNALO[e]	PRNPRD[f]	PRNTHR[g]	PRNCON[h]	O score
Variable No. 1.	-0.532071	-0.137409	-0.064586	0.002465	0.426110	-0.248706	0.442713	0.389598	0.479196

Note. Correlation coefficients between each canonical correlation of group 2 and the variables of group 2.

[a]TCHDIS--teacher disengagement

[b]TCHHIN--teacher hindrance

[c]TCHESP--teacher esprit

[d]TCHINT--teacher intimacy

[e]PRNALO--principal aloofness

[f]PRNPRO--principal production emphasis

[g]PRNTHR--principal thrust

[h]PRNCON--principal consideration

.389598; and Principal Production Emphasis, -.248706. Although one dimension of Teacher Behavior was shown to have a strong association with moral development, Hypothesis 4 was confirmed. The climate dimensions defining Principal Behavior were more related to moral development than the dimensions defining Teacher Behavior.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Implications

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between levels of moral development of elementary school principals and the degree of openness of those principals' school climates as perceived by their faculties. In addition, data were sought to determine which dimensions of organizational climate were most related to the level of principals' moral development and, furthermore, to assess what relation, if any, existed between the principal's length of job incumbency and the openness of the climate. In this chapter, the findings of the study are discussed and conclusions are drawn concerning the results. Finally, implications of the investigation for administrative practice and future research are discussed.

A review of the relevant literature and related research revealed that cognitive-moral development is classified into a sequence of culturally universal stages of moral reasoning, independent of social norms or religious tenets. In addition, measures of moral development have been correlated systematically with such characteristics as age, education, and intellectual ability and, furthermore, consistency between moral reasoning and moral behavior has been substantiated.

Research in the field of organizational behavior established that climate is an empirical reality which can be defined and measured.

In establishing the validity of the dimensions of climate, numerous studies have confirmed the existence of the eight dimensions defined by four Teacher Behavior dimensions and four Principal Behavior dimensions. Recent studies, however, suggest the possibility of some variations on the number and nature of the dimensions. Significantly, the behavior of the leader in an organization, moreover, has been revealed as a significant determinant of the climate. No research could be found, however, that examined the practical consequences in the school environment of the degree of moral development exhibited by the principal.

From these studies, it was inferred that the level of sophistication of moral reasoning, judgment, and decision making of the principal would be positively related to the degree of openness of that principal's school climate. In addition, hypotheses were constructed to allow for analysis of the contributions of age and administrative experience to the climate, and to determine which elements of climate were most closely associated with the leader's level of moral development.

A survey of selected research studies concerning the demographic characteristics of administrators and their effects on group members' behavior and perceptions revealed varying influence of such factors as age and experience. Generally, certain kinds of experience, notably length of job incumbency, were shown to have significant effects on climate-type measures.

Selected to test the hypotheses were two questionnaires: an objective measure of moral reasoning developed by Rest (1974b) and a measure of climate developed by Halpin and Croft (1963). A random

sample of 60 elementary schools in the Tidewater region of Virginia was selected as the sample population. The principals of the subject schools were requested to complete the moral development questionnaire while their faculties were asked to complete the climate protocol. Numerous follow-up telephone calls to those principals who did not respond were made after the return deadline had passed. Of the 60 cases (sets of responses from the principal and faculty in the same school), 41 usable cases (68.33%) were identified for use in the analysis of data. Although this percentage of return was not considered to be optimum, the rate was not determined to adversely affect the reliability of the findings since the nature and variety of reasons for nonreturn seemed unrelated to the constructs of moral development or climate. Furthermore, the sample mean of the "P" score for this study fell within the range of sample means for adult groups determined by Rest (1976).

Analysis of the test data revealed that there was in fact a positive correlation between the degree of moral development of elementary principals and the amount of openness in their respective school climates. In essence, the data showed that the higher the moral development of the principal, the more open the school climate was likely to be. Furthermore, the data showed that the independent variables relating to the principal's age or years of various types of administrative experience did not significantly contribute to the teachers' perceptions of the climate openness. Finally, the climate dimensions relating to Principal Behavior were the ones primarily associated with the principal's degree of moral development, although

one dimension of Teacher Behavior--Disengagement--was found to be the element most closely related to moral development. More detailed discussion of these findings will be provided in the conclusions section of this chapter.

Conclusions

The major result of this study was that the concepts of principal's moral development and climate openness seem to covary: the higher the moral development of the principal, the more open the school climate. Clearly, Halpin (1966) considered an Open climate to be more desirable than a Closed one because of its flexibility and effectiveness, and because of the congruence therein between the nomethetic and ideographic dimensions. Specifically, in terms of the principal, an Open climate is qualitatively better since it represents an integration between his own personality and his organizational role. Likewise, Kohlberg (in Goslin, 1969) considered the higher stages of moral reasoning qualitatively better for much the same reasons. In situations of conflicting values, principled-level reasoning provides a wider scope of alternatives, both philosophical and situational, upon which to base one's problem-solving decisions. Higher-stage development integrates an understanding of both individual and social values and roles in determining the ethical path to take.

It is concluded that the leadership behavior of a principal with a high degree of moral development may enhance the evolution of an Open climate in his school. The caveat, here, is that the leader's behavior is a necessary but not sufficient condition for determining

the climate. Such factors as the faculty's influence upon the leader, the degree of control upon the principal exerted by the superintendent and central office, or the demography of the community may exert strong influences upon the organizational climate. Since this study was predicated upon relational hypotheses, a cause and effect conclusion regarding moral development and climate cannot be made.

The data relating to the climate dimensions most closely associated with moral development illuminated several points worthy of consideration. The climate dimension most strongly associated with the first canonical variable ("P" score) was Teacher Disengagement. The correlation was negative which was interpreted to mean that the higher the moral development, the less would be the element of Teacher Disengagement. Table 3 describes this dimension in terms of a group which is "going through the motions." The items on the questionnaire pertinent to this dimension included the following:

1. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members.

2. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.

3. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.

4. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.

5. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.

A negative score on this dimension is interpreted to mean

that teachers behave in a task-oriented, professional manner which is characterized by a sense of purposefulness. Although it was not hypothetically predicted in this study, the finding that Teacher Disengagement dropped as the moral development level rose was consistent with the theories read. A leader with high moral development, it is concluded, may be likely to foster a more aggressive, professional behavior in his teachers since he would view the operation of the school as a mutually shared responsibility. The low moral development administrator, on the other hand, might engender traits of insularity and selfish protection because of the value he places upon deference to power and maintaining the given social norm for its own sake, or because of his orientation to self-satisfying needs.

The findings that the Principal Behaviors of Thrust and Consideration were strongly associated with moral development were also predictable according to morality theory. A high moral development principal logically would be viewed as having high Thrust because he would see his role as one based on a contract which demanded as much of him as it does of his teachers. Thus, he would not ask anything more of his teachers than he willingly would give of himself. Likewise, he would be viewed as being high in Consideration because the leader with high moral development is fundamentally concerned with the rights of others and the majority will and welfare.

The finding that moral development was associated positively with Principal Aloofness was not anticipated. The Aloofness behavior

in climate theory is characterized by the leader's emphasis on "going by the book," of preferring to be guided by rules and procedures rather than dealing with teachers in a personal manner. While law and order orientation is a characteristic of the stage 4 level of moral development, it seems incongruous that this characteristic is strongly associated with Aloofness since stage 4 is considered to be a relatively advanced stage of moral reasoning.

Several tentative inferences can be drawn in an attempt to explain this finding. First, the conclusion reached by Hayes (1973) that the OCDQ does not reliably measure the dimension of Aloofness suggests that moral development may tap into another, undefined behavior which surfaces through the items assigned to Aloofness Behavior. Second, Halpin (1966) used the phrase, "universalistic rather than particularistic [p. 151]," in referring to Aloofness Behavior. Orientation to universal principles rather than situational specificity is a benchmark of the stage 6, or principled level, of reasoning. If "P" score was tapping into this universalistic orientation, then a positive Aloofness correlation would be expected. This interpretation, however, is extremly tentative in light of the total behavior characteristics of the leader which Halpin defines in the Aloofness dimension. Finally, a preliminary factor analysis of all the variables in the study revealed a dichotomy in the correlation analysis pertaining to Aloofness. On the one hand, Aloofness was shown to be positively related to "P" score, but a second, independent Aloofness factor was negatively related to the Teacher Hindrance variable. No definitive conclusions are derived

from this result, but the data suggests the possibility of the existence of two orthogonal factors in Aloofness being tapped by the Aloofness items on the OCDQ.

The hypothesis that significant differences in climate openness would exist between High Moral Development and Low Moral Development principals with Less Experience was not supported by this investigation. This finding is contrary to findings of Bridges (1965) concerning the influence of experience on elementary principals. While no substantive conclusion can be drawn from this result, the size of the sample used to test this hypothesis may have been a contributing factor to its rejection. The number of cases available to test this prediction had been reduced from 215 to 22, first by the selection of 60 schools as the sample population, second by the 68% rate of return realized, and third by the procedure of dividing the final sample at the median on Experience to achieve the category of Less Experienced principals. A larger number of cases for this analysis might have produced different results.

In this investigation, the contributions of such personal and demographic data as age, administrative experience, and tenure in the school to the organizational climate were found to be insignificant. While these findings are not contrary to the findings of Bridges (1965), they do raise some questions in light of the studies correlating moral development with age, and in light of bureaucratic role socialization referred to by Wiggins (in Monahan, 1975). These questions will be addressed in the section on Implications for Research.

Implications for Administrative Practice

The results of this investigation indicate that the level of moral development is strongly associated with the degree of climate openness in a school organization. Furthermore, the literature on organizational behavior contains numerous arguments that open climates are qualitatively better environments, for they are considered to foster worker satisfaction, to increase teacher productivity, to improve morale, and to integrate personal and institutional goals. All of this implies, therefore, that educational administrators should seriously consider the moral dimension of their personnel when deciding appointments to leadership positions.

There may be implications found in this study concerning role definition for educational administrators. A lack of congruity between the level of moral development possessed by an administrator and the role expectations of his superiors may negate any positive effects to be gained through his moral reasoning. A school district which purposefully hires a highly moral leader but which simultaneously denies him the authority or flexibility to operate on the basis of his principles would only frustrate achievement of the very goals it seeks. The loyalty of a principled-level administrator will be to his values rather than to the administrative policies of the organization, and when these two factors come into conflict, dysfunction may be the result.

A caveat is sounded to the administrator who seeks to change abruptly an organizational climate by the appointment of a leader with high moral development. Morality theory clearly states that one

cannot accept or emulate moral behavior which one does not understand. A closed faculty with perhaps a low level of individual and collective moral development cannot understand, and possibly would not accept, the behavior of an administrator more than one stage above it. A faculty asked to accept or emulate such behavior understandably may become resistant or antagonistic to the leadership behavior of such a principal. Without perceptive understanding and thoughtful direction by the principal, the school could become more entrenched in its existing climate.

High moral development in a school leader seems to foster a type of professional behavior (low Disengagement) on the part of teachers. Low Disengagement is, also, a characteristic of Open, Autonomous, and Controlled Climates--the three most Open climates in the continuum. The administrator, then, who operates on a principled-level of behavior might, based on the data of this study, tend to reduce the faculty's level of Disengagement, and lead it toward a more dynamic and open climate. Since Disengagement was one of the three climate dimensions in the formula (ESP + THR - DIS) Halpin and Croft (1963) relied on to determine an Openness score of the school, Disengagement takes on added significance as a vehicle to improving climate openness.

The second climate dimension most closely associated with the level of moral development was Thrust. Significantly, Thrust, also, is one of the three dimensions in the Openness formula. It, however, refers to behavior of the principal, as it is perceived by the faculty, which is characterized by a type of "professionalism."

The high Thrust principal attempts to motivate his faculty by the example he sets. The implication is that a principal with high moral development is more likely to be viewed as attempting to "move the organization" by professional example while, at the same time, engendering an attitude of job satisfaction and task accomplishment within the faculty. Within these two dimensions, then, resides two thirds of the potential of the organization for improving its degree of openness.

Implications for Research

Any implications for future research drawn from this study must be made in full recognition of various limitations. Conclusions may be developed considering only this sample population of elementary school personnel and similar groups. The return rate for the sample was only 68%, although the data were considered reliable for analysis. The OCDQ used to measure organizational climate is currently being examined for possible revisions, although no new form of it has been validated and published.

Directions for future research are provided by the results of this study. Further investigations into the influence of moral development in school management and environment should be conducted. Particularly, studies examining the effects of moral reasoning by manipulation of the independent variable should be accomplished. This study examined only the existing relationships, thus eliminating any cause-effect conclusions. Such experiemental studies of moral reasoning will go far in determining just how potent a factor it is in school administration. Is it possible for high moral development

leaders to raise moral reasoning in teachers? Is there empirical reality to a concept of moral climate? Kohlberg (1976) suggested there is. If so, can it be raised as research has demonstrated that moral education in the classroom can result in permanent advancement of moral stage in students?

If the climate dimensions of Disengagement and Thrust vary according to level of moral development, will administrative focus upon these dimensions in regard to principal's moral behavior result in a more open climate? What constructs make up the Aloofness dimension which make it vary with moral development in a theoretically unpredictable manner? Why are high moral development principals perceived as Aloof? Indeed, is the concept of Aloofness, as originally defined by Halpin and Croft (1963), no longer a valid one?

Research designed to answer these questions about the dimensions of climate in respect to moral development needs to be accomplished before any cause-effect conclusions can be drawn. Both individual moral behavior and institutional group behavior are subject to many and complex forces, and, thus, any research of these variables promises to be difficult.

In regard to the variables of age, tenure, and experience, more research needs to be undertaken to reveal the various influences these factors have upon climate. If age and moral development are highly correlated, and if moral development and climate openness seem to covary, why does not age have a similar relationship with climate openness? Does this suggest that principals have reached the age

and stage of terminal moral development by the time they are appointed? Can moral education in graduate administration programs, then, overcome this apparent arrest in the administrator's development?

Morality theory states that experiences with conflicting values or moral dilemmas is a training vehicle for developing principled-level moral reasoning. Certainly, administrators with many years of service have had considerable opportunities to confront situations with conflicting values. Research needs to be conducted to ascertain what influence experience has upon moral reasoning and how, if at all, they interact to affect climate. An important implication of this study for future research upon the experience variables is that sample size may be a significant heuristic consideration.

The research in role socialization in school districts conducted by Bridges (1965) and Wiggins (in Monahan, 1975) has significant implications for administrative moral behavior in light of the results of this study. If the influence of a leader's personality gives way, with increased tenure, to the role expectations demanded by the school district as suggested by Bridges, will the moral development--climate relationship revealed herein be altered? Would only low-level principals succumb to this role socialization by the institution? Or, do high moral development principals either influence the system or leave? Empirical answers to these questions would go far in explaining the complex influences leader morality might have on institutions.

Heuristic investigations of human behavior in the educational environment, with respect to ethics and morality, is in its infancy. Through empirical inquiry, the factors and relationships pertaining to moral behavior and educational management will be determined. This knowledge will be of invaluable aid to administrators if they are to improve the quality, in addition to the efficiency, of educational management.

APPENDIX

Appendix A

Directions to Principals for Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire

Dear :

Inside this package there are copies of a questionnaire, each with an attached envelope, entitled "Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" (OCDQ). Please ask each of your regular, full-time classroom teachers, grades K through 6, to complete a questionnaire and return it sealed in the attached white envelope to the person you have designated in your school. The questionnaire can be completed in approximately 20 minutes. Full directions to your teachers are included with each questionnaire. As is specified in these directions, teachers DO NOT sign their names to these forms or to the envelopes.

When all of the sealed envelopes have been returned to your school, please place them in the large, manila envelope provided, and mail them to me. It would be greatly appreciated if all responses are returned to me no later than .

An extra copy of this questionnaire has been included for your information. Should you require additional copies for your teachers, please leave word with the School of Education, College of William and Mary, (804) 253-4434 or 253-4562, and I will supply them.

Thank you for your contribution to the success of this project.

Sincerely,

James Langley Young

College of William and Mary

Appendix B

Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (A. W. Halpin and D. V. Croft)

The items in this questionnaire describe typical behaviors or conditions that occur within an elementary school organization. Please indicate to what extent each of these descriptions characterizes YOUR SCHOOL. Please do not evaluate the items in terms of "good" or "bad" behavior, but reach each item carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes YOUR school.

The descriptive scale on which to rate the items is printed at the top of each page. Please read the instructions which describe how you should mark your answers.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to secure a description of the different ways in which teachers behave and of the various conditions under which they must work. After you have answered the questionnaire, the behaviors or conditions that you described as typical by the majority of the teachers in your school will be examined, and a portrait of the Organizational Climate of your school will be constructed.

Marking Instructions

Printed below is an example of a typical item found in the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire:

1. Rarely occurs.

2. Sometimes occurs.

3. Often occurs.

4. Very frequently occurs.

Teachers call each other by their first names. 1 2 3 4

In this example, the teacher marked alternative 3 to show that the interpersonal relationship described by this item "often occurs' at his school. Of course, any of the other alternatives could be selected, depending upon how often the behavior described by the item does, indeed, occur in your school.

Please mark your responses clearly, as in the example.

PLEASE BE SURE THAT YOU MARK EVERY ITEM.

Since your anonymous response is desired, please do NOT write your name anywhere on this form. Seal the completed questionnaire in the attached envelope and return the envelope to the person who distributed them in your shcool. Thank you.

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members in this school. 1 2 3 4

2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying. 1 2 3 4

3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems. 1 2 3 4

4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available. 1 2 3 4

5. Teachers invite other faculty to visit them at home. 1 2 3 4

6. There is a minority group of teachers who

always oppose the majority. 1 2 3 4

7. Extra books are available for classroom use. 1 2 3 4

8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports. 1 2 3 4

9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members. 1 2 3 4

10. Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members. 1 2 3 4

11. In faculty meetings, there is a feeling of "let's get things done." 1 2 3 4

12. Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school. 1 2 3 4

13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members. 1 2 3 4

14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal. 1 2 3 4

15. School supplies are readily availabe for use in classwork. 1 2 3 4

16 Student progress reports require too much work. 1 2 3 4

17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time. 1 2 3 4

18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings. 1 2 3 4

19. Most of the teachers here accept the

faults of their colleagues. 1 2 3 4

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements. 1 2 3 4

21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally. 1 2 3 4

22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings. 1 2 3 4

23. Custodial service is available when needed. 1 2 3 4

24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching. 1 2 3 4

25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves. 1 2 3 4

26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings. 1 2 3 4

27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit. 1 2 3 4

28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers. 1 2 3 4

29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems. 1 2 3 4

30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves. 1 2 3 4

31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure. 1 2 3 4

32. The principal sets an example by working

hard himself.	1	2	3	4
33. The principal does personal favors for teachers.	1	2	3	4
34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.	1	2	3	4
35. The morale of the teachers is high.	1	2	3	4
36. The principal uses constructive criticism.	1	2	3	4
37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.	1	2	3	4
38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.	1	2	3	4
39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.	1	2	3	4
40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.	1	2	3	4
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.	1	2	3	4
42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.	1	2	3	4
43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.	1	2	3	4
44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.	1	2	3	4
45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.	1	2	3	4

46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes. 1 2 3 4

47. The principal talks a great deal. 1 2 3 4

48. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers. 1 2 3 4

49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers. 1 2 3 4

50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously. 1 2 3 4

51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned. 1 2 3 4

52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers. 1 2 3 4

53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use. 1 2 3 4

54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference. 1 2 3 4

55. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive. 1 2 3 4

56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports. 1 2 3 4

57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda. 1 2 3 4

58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings. 1 2 3 4

59. The principal tells teachers of new

ideas he has run across. 1 2 3 4

60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system. 1 2 3 4

61. The principal checks the subject matter ability of teachers. 1 2 3 4

62. The principal is easy to understand. 1 2 3 4

63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit. 1 2 3 4

64. The principal insures that teachers work to their fullest capacity. 1 2 3 4

Appendix C

Directions to Principals for Defining

Issues Test

Dear :

First let me thank you in advance for your cooperation in making this project a success. Without the conscientious support of practitioners such as yourself, educational research such as this could not be accomplished.

Attached you will find a questionnaire entitled, "Opinions about Social Problems." The time required to complete the form usually does not exceed 50 minutes. While the cover sheet does request some personal information about you, you are not to sign the form, thus assuring your anonymity. Neither principals nor their schools will be identified in the findings.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided. It would be greatly appreciated if the form was returned no later than .

The findings of this project will provide valuable information about the science of educational administration. Should you desire a copy of the completed findings, just indicate so on the attached postal card and include your name and address.

Again, thank you for your contribution to the study.

Sincerely,

James Langley Young

College of William and Mary

Appendix D

Defining Issues Test

Please give the following information:

Age_____;

Total years of administrative experience_____;

Years of administrative experience in this school system _____;

Years of experience as principal of present school_____.

Opinions about Social Problems

This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories.

Here is a story as an example. Read it, then turn to the next page. Thank you for your cooperation.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. On the next page there is a list of some of these questions.

If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding what car to buy?

Part A. (Sample.)

On the left-hand side of the page check one of the spaces by each question that could be considered.

Great Importance	Much Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	
					1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives.
					2. Would a <u>used</u> car be more economical in the long run than a <u>new</u> car.
					3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
					4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200.
					5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car.
					6. Whether the front connibilies were differential.

Part B. (Sample.)

From the list of questions above, select the <u>most</u> important

one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your second, third, and fourth most important choices.

Most important. 5

Second most important. 2

Third most important. 3

Fourth most important. 1

Heinz and the Drug

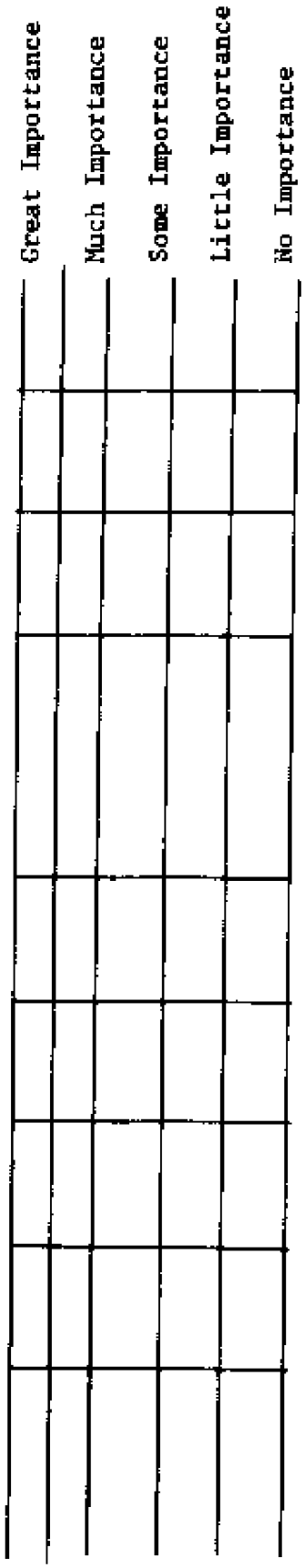
In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging 10 times what the drug cost to make. He paid $200. for the radium and charged $2,000. for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about $1,000., which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

Should Heinz steal the drug? Check one.

____Should steal it.

____Can't decide.

____Should not steal it.



Heinz Story. On the left-hand side of the page check one of the spaces by each question to indicate its importance.

1. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.

2. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much for his wife that he'd steal?

3. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?

4. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers.

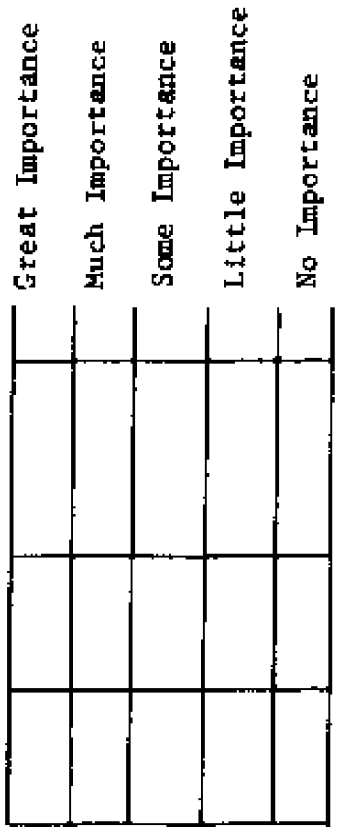
5. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else.

6. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be respected.

7. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually.

8. What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act toward each other?

9. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only



protects the rich anyhow.

10. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society.

11. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel.

12. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important;

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

Fourth most important _____

Student Take-over

At Harvard University a group of students, called the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS), believe that the University should not have an army ROTC program. SDS students are against the war in Vietnam, and the army training program helps send men to fight in Vietnam. The SDS students demanded that Harvard end the army ROTC training program as a university course. This would mean that Harvard students could not get any army training as part of their regular course work and not

get credit for it toward their degree.

Agreeing with the SDS students, the Harvard professors voted to end the ROTC program as a university course. But, the President of the University stated that he wanted to keep the army program on campus as a course. The SDS sutdents felt that the President was not going to pay attention to the faculty vote or to their demands.

So, one day last April, 200 SDS students walked into the University's administration building, and told everyone else to get out. They said they were doing this to force Harvard to get rid of the army training program as a course.

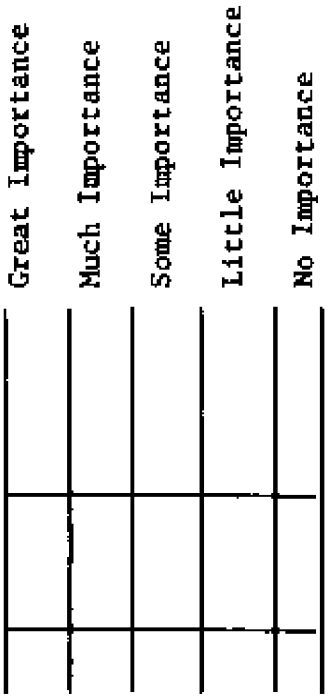
Should the students have taken over the administration building? Check one.

_____Yes, they should take it over.

_____Can't decide.

_____No, they should not take it over.

Student Take-over.

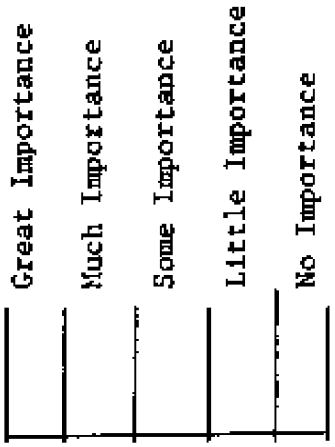


1. Are the students doing this to really help other people or are they doing it just for kicks?

2. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them?

3. Do the students realize that they

Great Importance	Much Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	
					might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school?
					4. Would taking over the building in the long run benefit more people to a greater extent?
					5. Whether the president stayed within the limits of his authority in ignoring the faculty vote.
					6. Will the takeover anger the public and give all students a bad name?
					7. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice?
					8. Would allowing one student takeover encourage many other student takeovers?
					9. Did the president bring this misunderstanding on himself by being so unreasonable and uncooperative?
					10. Whether running the university ought to be in the hands of a few administrators or in the hands of all the people.
					11. Are the students following principles which they believe are above the law?



12. Whether or not university decisions ought to be respected by students.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most important. _____

Second most important. _____

Third most important. _____

Fourth most important. _____

Escaped Prisoner

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After 1 year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country, and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually he saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then 1 day Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison? Check one.

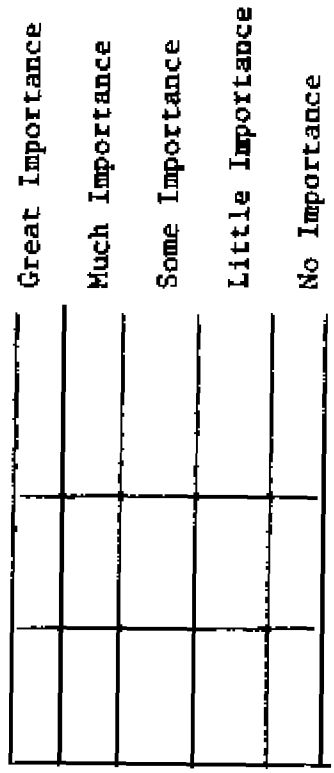
_____Should report him.

_____Can't decide.

_____Should not report him.

Escaped Prisoner.

Great Importance	Much Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	
					1. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long time to prove he isn't a bad person?
					2. Everytime someone escapes punishment for a crime, doesn't that just encourage more crime?
					3. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the oppression of our legal system?
					4. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
					5. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly expect?
					6. What benefits would prisons be apart from society, especially for a charitable man?
					7. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr. Thompson to prison?
					8. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
					9. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?



10. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped criminal, regardless of the circumstances?

11. How would the will of the people and the public good best be served?

12. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or protect anybody?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

Fourth most important _____

Newspaper

Fred, a senior in high school, wanted to publish a mimeographed newspaper for students so that he could express many of his opinions. He wanted to speak out against the war in Vietnam and to speak out against some of the school's rules, like the rule forbidding boys to wear long hair.

When Fred started his newspaper, he asked his principal for permission. The principal said it would be all right if before every publication Fred would turn in all his articles for the principal's

approval. Fred agreed and turned in several articles for approval. The principal approved all of them and Fred published two issues of the paper in the next 2 weeks.

But the principal had not expected that Fred's newspaper would receive so much attention. Students were so excited by the paper that they began to organize protests against the hair regulation and other school rules. Angry parents objected to Fred's opinions. They phoned the principal telling him that the newspaper was unpatriotic and should not be published. As a result of the rising excitement, the principal ordered Fred to stop publishing. He gave as a reason that Fred's activities were disruptive to the operation of the school.

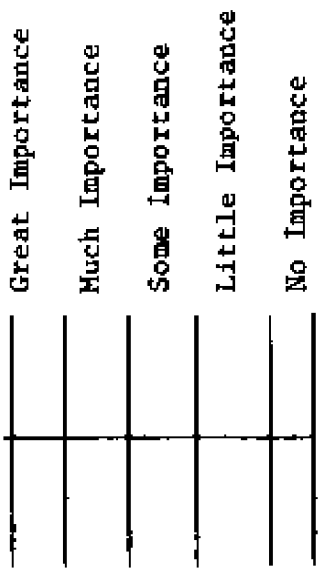
Should the principal stop the newspaper? Check one.

_____Should stop it.

_____Can't decide.

_____Should not stop it.

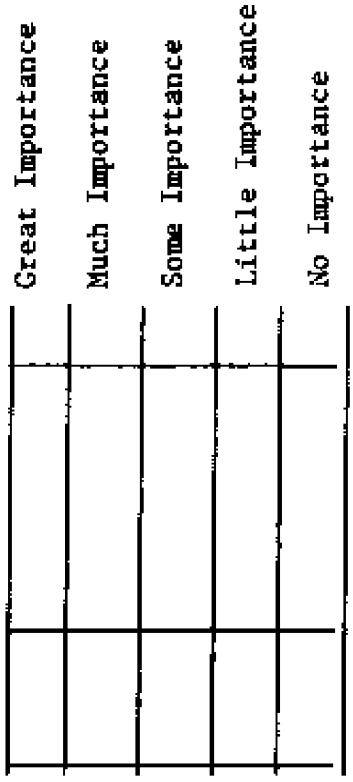
Newspaper.



1. Is the principal more responsible to students or to parents?

2. Did the principal give his word that the newspaper could be published for a long time,

Great Importance	Much Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	
					or did he just promise to approve the newspaper one issue at a time?
					3. Would the students start protesting even more if the principal stopped the newspaper?
					4. When the welfare of the school is threatened, does the principal have the right to give orders to students?
					5. Does the principal have the freedom of speech to say "no" in this case?
					6. If the principal stopped the newspaper would he be preventing full discussion of important problems?
					7. Whether the principal's order would make Fred lose faith in the principal.
					8. Whether Fred was really loyal to his school and patriotic to his country.
					9. What effect would stopping the paper have on the student's education in critical thinking and judgment?
					10. Whether Fred was in any way violating the rights of others in publishing his own



opinions.

11. Whether the principal should be influenced by some angry parents when it is the principal that knows best what is going on in the school.

12. Whether Fred was using the newspaper to stir up hatred and discontent.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

Fourth most important _____

Webster

Mr. Webster was the owner and manager of a gas station. He wanted to hire another mechanic to help him, but good mechanics were hard to find. The only person he found who seemed to be a good mechanic was Mr. Lee, but he was Chinese. While Mr. Webster himself didn't have anything against orientals, he was afraid to hire Mr. Lee because many of his customers didn't like orientals. His customers might take their business elsewhere if Mr. Lee was working in the gas station.

When Mr. Lee asked Mr. Webster if he could have the job, Mr. Webster said that he had already hired somebody else. But Mr. Webster really had not hired anybody, because he could not find anybody who was a good mechanic besides Mr. Lee.

What should Mr. Webster have done? Check one.

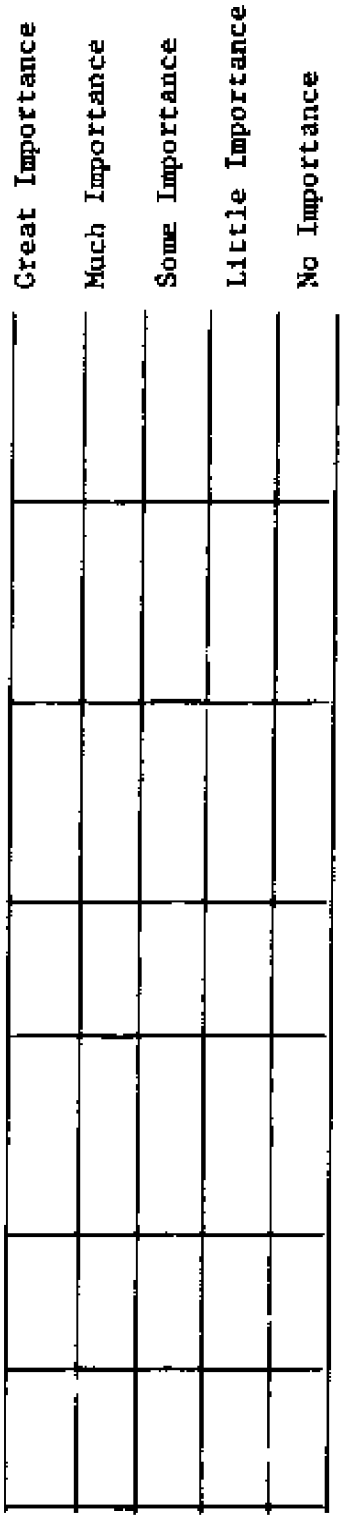
____Should have hired Mr. Lee.

____Can't decide.

____Should not have hired him.

Webster

Great Importance	Much Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	
					1. Does the owner of a business have the right to make his own business decisions or not?
					2. Whether there is a law that forbids racial discrimination in hiring for jobs.
					3. Whether Mr. Webster is prejudiced against orientals himself or whether he means nothing personal in refusing the job.
					4. Whether hiring a good mechanic or paying attention to his customers' wishes would be best for his business.
					5. What individual differences ought to be relevant in deciding how society's roles are filled?



6. Whether the greedy and competitive capitalistic system ought to be completely abandoned.

7. Do a majority of people in Mr. Webster's society feel like his customers or are a majority against prejudice?

8. Whether hiring capable men like Mr. Lee would use talents that would otherwise be lost to society.

9. Would refusing the job to Mr. Lee be consistent with Mr. Webster's own moral beliefs?

10. Could Mr. Webster be so hard-hearted as to refuse the job, knowing how much it means to Mr. Lee?

11. Whether the Christian commandment to love your fellow man applies to this case.

12. If someone's in need, shouldn't he be helped regardless of what you get back from him?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

Fourth most important _____

The Doctor's Dilemma

A lady was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about 6 months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn't stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway.

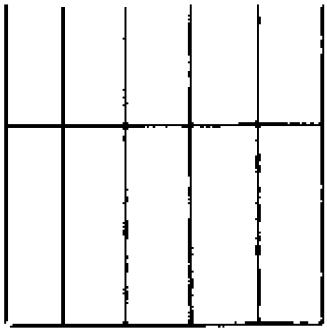
What should the doctor do? Check one.

_____He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die.

_____Can't decide.

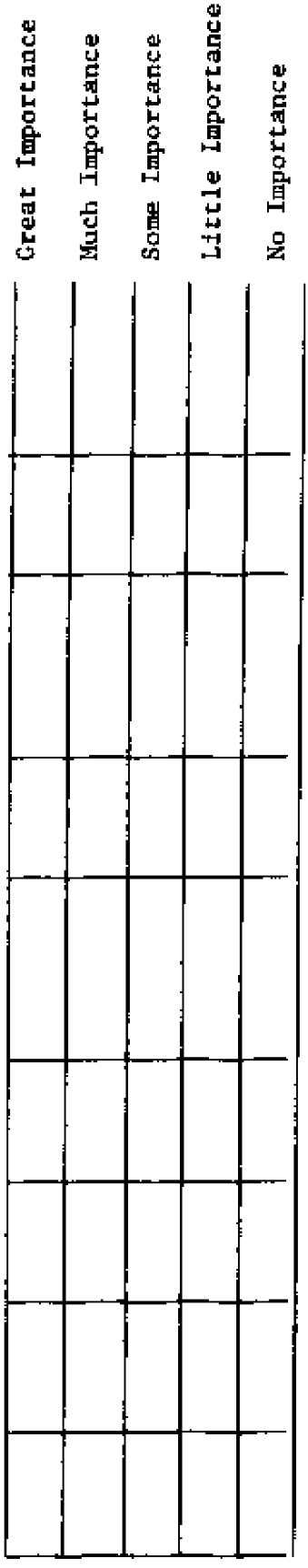
_____Should not give the overdose.

Doctor



1. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the overdose or not.

2. Is the doctor obligated by the same law as everybody else if giving an overdose would be the same as killing her?



3. Whether people would be much better off without society regimenting their lives and even their deaths.

4. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.

5. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on those who don't want to live?

6. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on personal values?

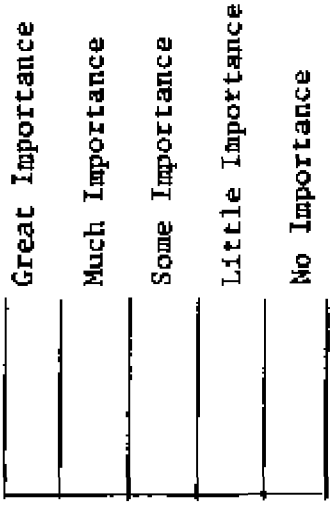
7. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering or cares more about what society might think.

8. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation?

9. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should end.

10. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own personal code of behavior?

11. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they want to?



12. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect the lives of individuals who want to live?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important.

Most important _____

Second most important _____

Third most important _____

Fourth most important _____

Appendix E

Table 10

Openness Scores and Climate Profile Scores for the Sample Population of Schools

School	Open-ness	Climate profile							
		Teacher behavior				Principal behavior			
		DIS[a]	HIN[b]	ESP[c]	INT[d]	ALO[e]	PRD[f]	THR[g]	CON[h]
A	29	60	60	34	43	41	55	54	49
B	12	62	59	38	49	46	59	37	47
C	42	51	60	37	57	54	35	46	56
D	36	51	70	43	54	46	47	41	45
E	55	47	61	47	58	49	31	56	47
F	36	54	68	39	51	44	40	46	54
G	44	53	54	36	35	63	49	52	53
H	33	56	66	41	44	50	55	45	38
I	41	50	70	49	46	50	52	39	40
J	22	68	60	40	46	46	47	44	46
K	47	54	51	47	52	62	32	56	42
L	33	63	63	37	48	40	51	46	47
M	17	69	56	39	48	46	54	41	45
N	56	38	35	51	62	52	52	59	48

Table 10 (continued)

School	Open-ness	Climate profile							
		Teacher behavior				Principal behavior			
		DIS[a]	HIN[b]	ESP[c]	INT[d]	ALO[e]	PRD[f]	THR[g]	CON[h]
O	13	62	54	34	51	55	56	44	40
P	45	59	49	35	47	66	44	49	46
Q	51	46	64	50	58	55	41	48	35
R	31	59	64	45	40	52	55	41	40
S	33	65	61	40	46	50	51	43	40
T	33	61	66	41	45	50	46	48	38
U	43	57	69	46	44	48	42	51	40
V	46	56	52	45	64	53	34	45	45
W	53	45	64	49	52	55	34	55	41
X	45	58	57	41	51	51	32	60	46
Y	22	65	60	40	39	52	51	46	44
Z	26	65	60	40	47	38	54	45	47
AA	17	65	61	36	47	49	47	44	47
BB	31	66	61	40	40	46	46	51	47
CC	59	45	43	49	51	50	35	60	64
DD	46	50	72	50	47	43	47	45	44
EE	51	48	61	46	53	45	31	58	53
FF	7	66	60	40	49	50	49	43	39

Table 10 (continued)

School	Open-ness	Climate profile: Teacher behavior DIS[a]	HIN[b]	ESP[c]	INT[d]	Principal behavior ALO[e]	PRD[f]	THR[g]	CON[h]
GG	38	56	64	35	52	48	55	45	41
HH	24	64	57	34	53	54	44	41	49
II	41	60	46	45	68	44	43	42	47
JJ	33	59	58	33	56	57	44	46	43
KK	34	56	54	38	57	56	58	37	39
LL	44	49	56	42	61	55	55	46	32
MM	62	42	40	59	63	56	42	54	41
NN	29	60	59	40	58	51	48	46	35
OO	54	49	36	52	62	56	49	55	36

[a]DIS--disengagement

[b]HIN--hindrance

[c]ESP--esprit

[d]INT--intimacy

[e]ALO-aloofness

[f]PRD--production emphasis

[g]THR--thrust

[h]CON--consideration

Appendix F

Table 11

Principals' "P" Scores and Personal Data

School	"P" score	Age	TOTYRE[a]	YRSSDE[b]	YRSSE[c]
A	24	45	13	13	13
B	12	48	15	10	10
C	24	46	26	21	5
D	28	30	6	4	4
E	31	38	6	6	2
F	30	34	8	8	4
G	45	32	10	7	5
H	12	58	10	10	3
I	20	62	13	13	7
J	16	35	5	5	1
K	24	32	6	4	2
L	10	58	24	24	14
M	7	45	16	16	13
N	27	33	8	8	8
O	22	39	11	11	1
P	22	52	15	15	15
Q	41	36	4	4	3
R	29	47	12	10	1
S	13	49	12	12	6
T	19	36	8	8	7

Table 11 (continued)

School	"P" score	Age	TOTYRE[a]	YRSSDE[b]	YRSSE[c]
U	29	57	10	5	5
V	17	36	7	4	4
W	23	43	5	5	1
X	17	48	19	11	8
Y	23	38	7	7	1
Z	9	37	8	6	1
AA	10	61	18	18	5
BB	23	33	1	1	1
CC	30	33	7	5	1
DD	22	43	8	8	6
EE	17	47	11	11	6
FF	17	42	1	1	1
GG	19	39	16	7	4
HH	17	39	9	8	3
II	16	51	7	7	7
JJ	26	43	12	12	2
KK	18	42	9	9	9
LL	22	33	5	5	1
MM	21	33	8	8	3
NN	29	44	13	13	2
OO	27	41	4	4	2

Table 11 (continued)

[a]TOTYRE--total years of administrative experience

[b]YRSSDE--total years of administrative experience in present school division

[c]YRSSE--years of experience as principal of present school

REFERENCES

References

Argyris, C. Some problems in conceptualizing organizational climate: A case study of a bank. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1958, 11, 501-520.

Baumhart, R. C. How ethical are businessmen? Harvard Business Review, 1961, 39(4), 6-12.

Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. The managerial grid. Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing, 1964.

Bloom, R. B. Morally speaking, who are today's teachers? Phi Delta Kappan, 1976, 57, 624.

Boehm, L., & Nass, M. L. Social class differences in conscience development. Child Development, 1962, 33, 564-574.

Bridges, E. M. Bureaucratic role and socialization: The influence of experience on the elementary principal. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1965, Spring, 19-28.

Brown, R. J. Identifying and classifying organizational climates in twin cities area elementary schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1965.

Candee, D. The moral psychology of Watergate. Journal of Social Issues, 1975, 31(2), 183-192.

Deci, E. L., Gilmer, B. V. H., & Karn, H. W. (Eds.). Readings in industrial and organizational psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Dewey, J. Ethical principles underlying education. In C. A. McMurray (Ed.), The third yearbook of the National Hebart Society. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1897.

Dewey, J. Intelligence in morals. In J. Ratner (Ed.), Intelligence in the modern world: John Dewey's philosophy. New York: Modern Library, 1939.

Dexheimer, R. The ethics of chief school administrators: A study of accommodation. Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 1969. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 027 639.)

Dortzbach, J. R. Moral judgment and perceived locus of control: A cross-sectional developmental study of adults, aged 25-74. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, 1975.

Durkin, D. Sex differences in children's concepts of justice. Child Development, 1962, 31, 361-368.

Emma, P. J. The relationship between administrator fusion and organizational climate of school. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, 1964.

Fiedler, F. E. Leader attitudes, group climate, and group creativity. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1962, 65, 308-318.

Forehand, G. A., & Gilmer, B. V. H. Environmental variation in studies of organizational behavior. In E. L. Deci, B. V. H. Gilmer, & H. W. Karn (Eds.), Readings in industrial and organiational psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Gentry, H. W., & Kenney, J. B. A comparison of the organizational climates of negro and white elementary schools. Journal of Psychology, 1965, 60, 171-179.

Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper & Row, 1978.

Gilmer, B. V. H. Industrial and organizational psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.

Goslin, D. (Ed.). Handbook of socialization theory and research. New York: Rand McNally, 1969.

Halpin, A. W. The leadership behavior of school superintendents. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956.

Halpin, A. W. Theory and research in administration. New York: Macmillan, 1966.

Halpin, A. W., & Croft, D. The organizational climate of schools. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963.

Harris, H. Development of moral attitudes in white and negro boys. Developmental Psychology, 1970, 2, 376-383.

Hartshorne, H., & May, M. A. [Teachers College, Columbia University]. Studies in the nature of character (3 vols.). New York: Macmillan, 1928-1930.

Vol. I. Studies in deceit.

Vol. II. Studies in service and self-control.

Vol. III. Studies in the organization of character.

Hayes, A. E. A reappraisal of the Halpin-Croft model of the organizational climate of schools. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 075 934.)

Hoffman, M. L., & Hoffman, L. W. (Eds.). Review of child development research (Vol. 1). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Irwin, D. M., & Moore, S. G. The young child's understanding of social justice. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 6, 406-410.

Johnson, R. C. A study of children's moral developments. Child Development, 1962, 33, 327-354.

Johnston, H. Business ethics (Rev. ed.). New York: Pitman, 1961.

Kohlberg, L. The development of modes of moral thinking and choice in the years ten to sixteen. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, 1958.

Kohlberg, L. Development of moral character. In M. L. Hoffman & L. W. Hoffman (Eds), Review of child development research (Vol. 1). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Kohlberg, L. Moral and religious education and the public schools: A developmental view. In T. Sizer (Ed.), Religion and public education. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton-Mifflin, 1967.

Kohlberg, L. Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D.Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. New York: Rand McNally, 1969.

Kohlberg, L. Cognitive-developmental theory and the practice of collective moral education. In M. Wolins & M. Gottesman (Eds.), Group care: The education path of youth Aliyah. New York: Gordon & Breach, 1971.

Kohlberg, L. A cognitive-developmental approach to moral education. Humanist, November-December 1972, pp. 13-16.

Kohlberg, L. (Ed.). Continuities and discontinuities in childhood and adult moral development revisited. Collected papers on moral development and moral education. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard Graduate School of Education, Spring 1973.

Kohlberg, L. [3-year proposal to the Ford Foundation.] The effects of democratic governance on the development of high school moral climates and student moral judgment. Unpublished manuscript. Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1976.

Kohlberg, L. Moral stages and moralization: The cognitive-developmental approach. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1976.

Kohlberg, L., & Kramer, R. Continuities and discontinuities in childhood and adult moral development. Human Development, 1969, 12, 93-120.

Lewin, K. Field theory in social science. New York: Harper, 1951.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created "social climates." Journal of Social Psychology, 1939, 10, 271-299.

Lickona, T. (Ed.). Moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1976.

Likert, R. New patterns of management. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Likert, R. The human organization: Its management and value. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. An experimental study of leadership and group life. In E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb, & E. L. Hartley (Eds), Readings in social psychology. New York: Henry Holt, 1958.

Litwin, G. H., & Stringer, R. A. Motivation and organizational climate. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968.

Maccoby, E. E., Newcomb, T. M., & Hartley, E. L. (Eds.). Readings in social psychology. New York: Henry Holt, 1958.

McDougall, W. An introduction to social psychology. Boston, Massachusetts: John W. Luce, 1921.

McGeorge, C. The susceptibility to faking of the defining issues test of moral development. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 11, 108.

McGregor, D. The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

McMurray, C. A. (Ed.). The third yearbook of the National Hebart Society. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1897.

Modgil, S. Piagetian research: A handbook of recent studies. London, England: NFER [unknown] Publishing Co., 1974.

Monahan, W. G. (Ed.). Theoretical dimensions of educational administration. New York: Macmillan, 1975.

The organizational survey. Chicago: Industrial Relations Center, 1961.

Owens, R. G. Organizational behavior in schools. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Owens, R. G., & Steinhoff, C. R. Strategies for improving the effectiveness of inner-city schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 1969, 50(5), 259-263.

Peck, R. F., & Havighurst, R. J. The psychology of character development. New York: Wiley, 1960.

Piaget, J. (M. Gabrian, trans.). The moral judgment of the child. London, England: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1932.

Piaget, J. The psychology of intelligence. Totowa, New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams, 1969.

Ratner, J. (Ed.). Intelligence in the modern world: John Dewey's philosophy. New York: Modern Library, 1939.

Rest, J. R. Hierarchies of comprehension and preference in a developmental stage model of moral thinking. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1969.

Rest, J. R. The cognitive-developmental approach to morality: The state of the art. Counseling and Values, 1974, 18(4), 64-78. (a)

Rest, J. R. Manual for the defining issues test: The objective test of moral judgment development. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1974. (b)

Rest, J. R. Moral judgment related to sample characteristics. Final report to the National Institute of Mental Health, University of Minnesota, 1976.

Rest, J. R., Cooper, D., Coder, R., Masanz, J., & Anderson, D. Judging the important issues in moral dilemmas--an objective measure of development. Developmental Psychology, 1974, 10(4), 491-501.

Scharf, P. The concept of moral atmosphere: Evaluating the moral climates of correctional facilities. Paper presented to the meeting of the American Society of Criminology, Chicago, 1974.

Selekman, B. M. Cynicism and management morality. Harvard Business Review, 1958, 36(5), 55-65.

Sizer, T. (Ed.). Religion and public education. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.

Stern, G. C. People in context. New York: John Wiley, 1970.

Tagiuri, R. The concept of organizational climate. In R. Tagiuri & G. H. Litwin (Eds.), Organizational climate: Explorations of a concept. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968.

Tagiuri, R., & Litwin, G. H. (Eds.). Organizational climate: Explorations of a concept. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968.

Turiel, E. An experimental test of the sequentiality of developmental stages in the child's moral judgment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 3, 611-618.

Ugurel-Semin, R. Moral behavior and moral judgment of children. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1952, 47, 463-474.

Wiggins, T. W. Leader behavior characteristics and organizational climate. Los Angeles, 1969. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 028 541.)

Wiggins, T. W. The influence of role and organizational climate upon principal behavior: A systems analysis. In W. G. Monahan (Ed.), Theoretical dimensions of educational administration. New York: Macmillan, 1975.

Wolins, M., & Gottesman, M. (Eds.). Group care: The education path of youth Aliyah. New York: Gordon & Breach, 1971.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPALS' LEVEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

James Langley Young, Ed.D.

G. William Bullock, Jr., Ed.D., Committee Chairman
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the level of moral development of elementary principals and the degree of climate openness in their respective schools. In addition, data were sought to determine which dimensions of organizational climate were most related to the level of the principal's moral development and, furthermore, to determine the relation of various kinds of administrative experience of the principal to climate openness. Theoretical literature reviewed included Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental model of moral development and Halpin and Croft's model for organizational climate.

Method

In this investigation, moral development, the independent variable, was measured by Rest's Defining Issues Test, an objective measure of moral reasoning. Climate openness, the dependent variable, was measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, developed by Halpin and Croft. In the Tidewater region of Virginia, 60 elementary schools were randomly selected as the sample population; 68.33% of the sample returned usable questionnaires. Statistical procedures used to test the four hypotheses included the Pearson product-moment correlation test, multiple regression, one-way analysis of variance, and canonical correlation analysis.

Findings

Test results supported the hypothesis that there would be a positive relationship between the degree of openness of school climate and the level of moral development possessed by the principal (r index = .456, $p < .001$). No significant relationship was found to exist between the total years of experience of the principal and the openness of school climate, nor did Less Experienced principals with High Moral Development have more open climates than Less Experienced principals with Low Moral Development. Finally, test results supported the prediction that the dimensions of climate defining Principal Behavior would be more related to moral development than the dimensions defining Teacher Behavior.

Conclusions

The major conclusion of this study is that moral development of elementary principals is positively related to the openness of their school climates; in essence, the higher the moral development of the principal, the more open his school climate is likely to be. A leader with high moral development seems likely to foster a more aggressive, professional style of behavior in his teachers. Furthermore, the principal with high moral development is perceived by his faculty as a leader who attempts to "move" the organization by the personal example he sets and who is fundamentally concerned with the majority will and welfare of his subordinates. Future research needs to examine the effects of moral reasoning by manipulation of the independent variable in order to more fully understand the potential consequences of ethics and morality in the educational environment.

Vita

James Langley Young

Born in Washington, D.C., August 27, 1941.

Attended the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Awarded Bachelor of Arts in English, 1963.

Attended The College of William and Mary in Virginia, 1967-1978. Awarded Master of Education, 1969. Awarded Certificate of Advanced Study in Educational Administration, 1975. Attained status of Candidate for Doctor of Education degree, 1975.

Teacher of English, Williamsburg--James City County Public Schools, 1968-1971. Intermediate school principal, Williamsburg--James City County Public Schools, 1971-1974. Adjunct faculty member, Department of Education, Christopher Newport College, 1976-1977. Adjunct faculty member, Department of Developmental English, Thomas Nelson Community College, 1977.