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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANAGERIAL
STYLES AND MORAL REASONING

by

Muriel L. Lundy

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the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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Doctor of Education

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Approved by


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This dissertation explores the relationship between managerial styles of school administrators and their levels and stages of moral reasoning. The selected population served as school administrators during the 1977-1978 school year. The determination of managerial style, herein using traditionalist/judicial, troubleshooter/negotiator, catalyst, and visionary as the four managerial styles, occurred during participation in an extensive leadership seminar prior to this study. The levels and stages of moral reasoning were determined in this investigation.

The Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale was used with 137 administrators. Data pertaining to years in a leadership position, school enrollment, location, and sex were used in the analysis. Reliability as determined from the scores of two raters of the responses to the Moral Judgment Dilemma is considered to be high.

The distinction between manager, from which managerial style is a derivation, and administrator was drawn. The term manager refers to functions associated with getting the job done; i.e., planning, organizing, directing, and evaluating. Administrator refers to value and ethical dimensions reflected by persons holding positions of responsibility in organizations.

The results of the study couple the concept of manager with the conventional level of moral reasoning. Administrator is linked to the postconventional level of moral reasoning. The conventional level of moral reasoning and the traditionalist/judicial managerial style are most prevalent in the population studied.

The study concludes by suggesting that schools and those responsible for their direction are subject to social and moral forces which maintain societal expectations and traditions. Sex and location exert minor differences on moral reasoning and managerial style. Years in a leadership position and school enrollment do not show any effect on either managerial style or moral reasoning. In the purposive sample, the level of moral reasoning and managerial style contribute to the maintenance of schools as extensions of the current social system patterns. Schools with administrators' values that reflect development of human values as a primary focus for a social system were not advanced in this study.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

This dissertation is concerned with gathering and analyzing data about the moral reasoning of educational administrators. The moral reasoning levels of a selected group of administrators are related to their styles of management. The results of these data are inferred to educational organizations, in the final chapter of this research.

Much interest and curiosity about organizations has occurred since people have lived together in forms of communal relationships. Etzioni (1964, p. 1) ascribes attraction to organization to the fact that:

We are born in organizations, educated by organizations and most of us spend much of our lives working in organizations. We spend much of our leisure time paying, playing and praying in organizations. Most of us will die in an organization...

Talcott Parsons and William B. Wolf interpret organizations similarly. Parsons (1960, p. 17) defines organization as "social units deliberately constructed to accomplish specific goals." Wolf's (1966, p. 185) definition of organization asserts that "an organization is any group of persons formally brought together to work toward a common end or ends."

Involved in organizations are purposes, people, work to be done, jobs and positions, communications, and relationships of people to people and people to their work. A viable organization is dependent upon the coordinated activity of a group of persons in the pursuit of common

goals. When persons are able to communicate with each other and are willing to contribute to the coordination and regulation of behavior for the accomplishment of goals, an organization comes into being. The intended aim of an organization is the cooperative arrangement of individuals. These individuals contribute to the planned and joint activities with their talents and energies to result in effective and harmonious activity.

The work of Getzels and Guba pioneered the study of organization as part of the social system. The social system has been defined by Parsons (1960, pp. 5-6) as a number of persons interacting in a similar situation where shared ideals and goals assist these persons to meet personally rewarding experiences. Getzels and Guba analyzed the social system as having two dimensions, the sociological and the psychological, which were in turn analyzed to arrive at the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions, respectively (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, 1968, p. 56).

The normative or nomothetic dimension of the social system is comprised of the institution, its roles and expectations, leading to institutional/social behavior of members within the social system. This behavior is achieved through the integration of institution, role and expectation for performance of relevant tasks (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, p. 65).

The idiographic or personal dimension of the social system is comprised of the individual, the personality and need-disposition, leading to observable behavior. Because of the loves, fears, aspirations, and hates of the individuals, the role holders create unique styles of behavior which are characteristic of the normative dimension of the

social system. Reciprocity between the two aspects of the social system creates the uniqueness of the observable behaviors which emanate from a social system (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, p. 77).

Organizations are comprised of the two dimensions of the social system. The nomothetic dimension of institutions, roles and expectations, and the idiographic dimension of individuals, personality and needs, are aspects of organizations which affect the behavior of organizational members. The resulting effect of organizations upon individuals in the social system is often regulatory for human behavior. This regulation leads to common goals or ends which are prescribed through the structure and roles of an organization. When organizations succeed in creating certainty of roles, the goals and ends of the organization are enhanced (Wolf, 1966, p. 185).

It is through the formal organization that goals and ends are clearly stated and determined. The formal organization emphasizes structure which defines specific duties and responsibilities of persons in different positions in the organization. Channels of communication, coordination and control of members' activities, and the official lines of functioning are represented in the formal organization. The formal organization is akin to the nomothetic dimension of the social system described earlier.

The other important aspect of all organizations is the informal organization. This is characterized by the interpersonal relationships of the members of the formal organization. Frequent contacts, common working activities, and shared beliefs create the informal system. These provide for common points of view and behaviors which are characteristic and prized by members of the informal group. The informal

may be likened to the idiographic dimension of the social system discussed above (Gregg, 1957, pp. 287-288).

Long before the research of Getzels and Guba, Max Weber developed a model of organizations. He identified a complex of relations which guide activities in organizations and enhance the productivity and effectiveness of the organization. Weber's work minimized the idiographic dimension, as personal, irrational, and emotional elements were not characteristics of his model. Speed, precision, discretion, and technical know-how were intended to be enhanced through the following characteristics of bureaucracy:

1. A well-defined hierarchy of offices with functions and authority allocated through these offices.
2. Selection of office holders on the basis of certificated competence for qualifications.
3. Remuneration received through fixed salaries.
4. Office holders who are subject to rules and regulations to assure predictability and stability.
5. Rules and regulations impersonal, performance of functions independent of the personal self (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973, p. 137).

Loyalty to the organization, behavior which is consistent with the criteria of the organization, and deference to authority of organizational leaders are side effects of large organizations which are frequently characterized as bureaucratic. Not-so-large organizations also have bureaucratic characteristics; therefore, Weber's ideal model for organizations de-emphasizes the limitations of the human resources working within it. The idiographic dimension of the social system and

organizations is regulated and not present in the structured formal organization and bureaucracy which Weber identified to increase efficiency and productivity.

Barnard (1938, p. 190) has bridged the distinctions between informal and formal organization succinctly by stating that simple and complex organizations always have an impersonal system of coordinating human efforts with an underlying and unifying purpose. Simultaneously there is the indispensable ability to communicate, the necessity for personal willingness and "for effectiveness and efficiency in maintaining the integrity of purpose and the continuity of contributions".

The preceding discussion emphasizes the role that organizations hold in the social system to meet goals and purposes of an individual and collective nature. Organizations need people to exist. People bring to them diverse personalities and needs. These diversities are regulated by the formal and bureaucratic structure of the organization. Since productivity to meet organizational goals is dominant, human behavior is frequently regulated to the extent that personal and human concerns, as represented through the informal organization, are of secondary importance. The result is the defining of roles and behaviors within the organization by the purposes and goals of the organization. Human behavior, associated with the role of persons in the organization, can be regulated by the organizational goals to meet efficiently the purposes of the organization.

There appears to be minimum consideration given to personal and affective needs which people bring to organizations. Organizations do not exist for the human condition, for the intellectual and social

concerns which persons in organizations possess. "Getting the job done" is the major reason for the existence of organizations and their concern for efficiency to meet goals and purposes. In educational organizations this includes planning, organizing, directing, and controlling for the acquisition of knowledge and skills of clients, the students.

The previous description of organizations as bureaucracies indicated the presence of a hierarchy of offices. These offices, or positions of higher rank in organizations, are held by persons known as administrators or managers. Administration consists of activities and functions which coordinate the efforts of people toward the achievement of goals. Educational administration provides goals, policies, programs, personnel, and material which facilitate the achievement of a common goal--teaching and learning (Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer, 1962, pp. 75-76). The performance of persons holding administrative positions is subject to values and perceptions derived from the social context, philosophy, and administrative theory along with expectations and demands of the setting (Hack, Ramseyer, Gephart and Gregg, 1971, pp. 7-8).

Educational administration is largely concerned with policy and goals. It is the nature of the policy and goals which should be of paramount importance. On the one hand, the content of the policy and goals can focus on the nomothetic dimension of organizations which includes the institutional roles and expectations. In this instance, the organization is the primary element for consideration and development. Thus, the educational organization becomes one in which the formal structure and the bureaucratic tendencies dominate.

On the other hand, the content of policies and goals can also focus on the idiographic dimension which considers individual personality and needs. When this dimension is of primary importance, administrative policy and goals which promote educational goals of teaching and learning are enhanced. This circumstance promotes the often-stated idea that the purpose of educational institutions is to develop human potential of both teacher and student within the organization.

Because educational administrators are in positions where their decisions have high visibility and wide-reaching effects for developing human potential, they need to develop policies and goals which meld the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of organizations in the social system. Policies and goals are needed which develop and improve the human factors represented in the idiographic dimension through the nomothetic dimension of the institution and its roles and expectations. It is for this reason that a distinction is made between management and administration. Administrative policies and goals which relate to the human constellation of values are characteristic of administration as the term is used by the writer.

Management consists of a pattern of tasks which are performed to coordinate the efforts within an organization toward productivity. These basic functions frequently include planning, organizing, controlling, and decision making (Petit, 1966, pp. 46-47). Further examination of management reveals that it has an economic base related to the production of goods and services which yield money for profit and solvency (Petit, p. 47). Management is used in this study to refer to the performance of a set of functions or activities which are utilized to

achieve organizational ends. The nomothetic dimension with concern for the institution, roles and expectations would be considered a primary characteristic of management. The resulting activity of management is directed toward productivity and efficiency of the organization.

A distinction between administration and management is made to advocate the use of the term administrator as concerned with the formulation of policy and goals which center about human concern and development. Current educational administration practices appear to be more closely allied with procedures associated with management.

Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer (1962, p. 77) identify several management functions of administrators as being: raising money, constructing facilities, instituting accounting procedures, and organizing transportation systems. These writers are careful to indicate that these management functions are important to the educational programs for teaching and learning. However, when such representative management functions are not clearly related to the educational goals of teaching and learning, they lack applied educational purpose. When major administrative considerations are directed toward management procedures as represented above, policy and goals are oriented toward mechanical and technical matters rather than toward policies which will augment the development of social and ethical values.

Because of this distinction in conceptualization of the roles of administrator and manager, persons holding educational administrative positions in this study are considered as educational managers. Hereafter, these persons will be referred to by the discrete term of functionary. Functionary will refer to persons who perform guiding and directing activities in organizations, particularly educational organizations.

It can be recognized that organizations accomplish goals and purposes because of efficiency from both individuals and the bureaucratic organizational structure. Therefore, it is feasible to assume that organizational functionaries also support efficiency and organizational goals and purposes. Functionaries, then, are administrators or managers who are officials of rank in organizations who perform duties which assist the organization to meet its goals and purposes.

It has been asserted that organizations are primarily concerned with "getting the job done". Military, business, industry, and corporate organizations establish this pattern which is replicated in other organizations, such as educational ones. With this pattern established, there appears to be an underlying value system operating. The content and effects of value systems have been clarified by Dwayne Huebner. He "identifies value systems according to the kinds of educational purposes and means with which they are associated" (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973, p. 19). One of the value systems which Huebner isolates is the technical value system which is described as a:

...means-ends approach in the form of an economic model...
end results are specified rather clearly, and activities and programs are rationally and economically designed to achieve them...Technical valuing and economic rationality are required to meet community expectations for productivity and efficiency. (Sergiovanni and Carver, p. 57)

In this value system, results are clearly specified with programs and activities rationally and economically designed to achieve the desired results. This value system supports productivity, efficiency, and goals which specific organizations utilize to continue their life.

Organizations are arranged in a means-ends approach. Functionaries in organizations aid and abet these means and ends. The technical value system is pre-eminent in the means-ends approach of organizations. It can be inferred that functionaries in organizations might hold the technical value system and a means-ends approach to organizational goals and purposes. Accomplishing organizational goals which have a technical value and economic rationality appears to be the dominant purpose for the organization. Human concerns of persons who work within the organization seem to take a secondary position in the meeting of organizational goals and purposes. As Lonsdale (1964, p. 148) indicates, the choice between task-serving and/or needs-serving purposes for the organization still belongs to the administrator even though integrating these is a desirable aim.

Management and administration literature cites the consideration of human and personal elements within the organization. Even with the press for efficiency in organizations including schools, Bernthal places human values above economic values. The former include freedom, opportunity, self-realization, and human dignity. These human concepts show a concern for the primary importance of human considerations for functionaries in organizations (Bernthal, 1966, pp. 450-451).

Frederick (1966, p. 74) argues for the theory of social responsibility of the business enterprise toward the public, although he does not define the means for determining social responsibility. However, the ends are clearly prescribed as consideration for the public through corporate consideration of social ramifications of policy making and decision making.

Petit (1975, pp. 480-500) also supports the doctrine of social responsibility for decision making by functionaries. Awareness of human values and concerns and relating these to decision making are important aspects of the social responsibility of functionaries. Petit extends the profit and loss concern with the inclusion of social responsibility for corporate functionaries.

Golembiewski believes that functionaries have a major objective in getting the personnel and the organization to strive to meet the standards of the Judeo-Christian ethic. This doctrine stresses the virtues of precedence, temperance, courage, justice, love, mercy, and self-sacrifice. These virtues, when combined with the ultimate goal and good embraced through the Ten Commandments (World Book, 1978, p. 293) are thought by this writer to enhance organizations in their striving for inclusion of human concerns (Golembiewski, 1965, pp. 61-65).

Sullivan (1968, pp. 1-49) is an advocate of the human concern theme for functionaries. He is not prescriptive but strongly implies that the morality of the functionary is of uppermost importance to that person's daily work.

Organizations which strive to incorporate human and personal social concerns, as these writers advocate, would be functioning from Huebner's ethical value system. This is described as:

...dealing with assumptions about the nature of man and standards concerning one's relationships with his fellow man...They are human values--the school is basically a human organization. (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973, p. 19)

This value system centers about the constellation of human values. When present in an organization, it would augment the functionaries' concern for organizations as existing for the development of persons and social matters.

Despite these assertions regarding the functionaries' inclusion of human and personal concerns, there is a lack of information pertaining to the means for functionaries to implement human concerns in their work. Existing data describe standards and results of values and ethical and moral judgments related to human and personal concerns. There is a dearth of data identifying the criteria by which human concerns may be determined or influenced by functionaries. The lack of empirical evidence, however, does not deter some programs which prepare functionaries from stressing the importance of human concerns through the inclusion of literary, sociological, philosophical, and anthropological courses of study.

A promising development to ascertain the means and ends of human concerns has been developed by Lawrence Kohlberg. The Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale assesses moral reasoning and is based on a universal value issue of justice as it occurs in six developmental stages. This scale is developed to ascertain the cognitive utilization of justice principles in the logical thought processes of individuals ranging from preadolescence to adult years.

Kohlberg claims that "adequate moral reasoning is principled, i.e.... makes judgments in terms of universal principles" which are "universal guides to making a moral decision" (Kohlberg, 1976, p. 182). Justice is the universal principle on which all moral men agree.

Decision-making content based upon rational principles of justice involves the cognitive structure of moral reasoning. The content of such principled thought processes for making decisions does not emanate from built-in constraints or affectations. The utilization of principled processes for making decisions indicates rational thought which has significance for others. The functionary role is in an arena where decisions are made which have significance for others. Therefore, the functionary is in a position where her/his behavior affects others.

The presence of moral reasoning for persons in positions of responsibility, such as functionaries, means the utilization of cognitive structured thought based upon principles of justice. In Kohlbergian terms, the decision-making thought becomes a cognitive structure determined by the person's level and stage of moral reasoning. As the level and stage of moral reasoning increase, the cognitive structure toward justice is also increased. Therefore, the content of moral reasoning will indicate greater cognizance for human development concerns.

Kohlberg has related moral reasoning levels and stages to a social perspective. It is feasible to relate the social perspective to organizations using the moral reasoning stage of the functionaries. Thus, the moral reasoning stage of functionaries becomes a means to determine the organizational ends associated with human development concerns.

The relationship between the functionaries' concerns for efficiency and productivity or for human development concerns as determined by moral reasoning stage scores has yet to be ascertained. It is the position of this writer that it would be valuable to look at the question of school functionaries from a moral reasoning perspective. Such information could

possibly offer insight regarding the role of functionaries in schools and serve to give direction to the job of the school functionary.

Need for the Study

Organizations all have persons at the helm who are called, in this study, functionaries. The stress of organizations is toward efficiency and technical matters causing the functionaries to respond in a similar manner. In other words, functionaries operate in their positions with a system of valuing and/or moral reasoning which can foster the technical, efficient production of the organization or the human development aspects of the organization. This phenomenon is applicable to commercially oriented organizations as well as educational organizations.

The importance of the responsibility of the head of an organization is described by Singer. This importance is increasing due to the complexity of decisions, their remoteness of application, and the duration of their impact. The underlying considerations in more complex decisions need to include social responsibility along with technical competence. Because every decision implies a value judgment, "the decision maker reveals his own philosophy of life in making these critical decisions" (Singer, 1976, p. 85).

The standards by which decisions are made may be indigenous to the situation, the organization, the goals, the persons involved, or other built-in expectations or constraints. The standards for making decisions under these circumstances would be akin to Kohlberg's "bag of virtues" or character traits and not necessarily consisting of rational principles. Reliance would be on past, present, and expected circumstances.

The cognitive-developmental theory of moral reasoning developed by Lawrence Kohlberg is based upon interaction between the organism (person) and the environment creating the development of cognitive structures of moral reasoning. By cognitive-developmental theory assumptions, interactions between an organism and environment yield equilibrium. This equilibrium is assessed as a cognitive structure comprised of justice principles. The employment of these principles of justice has been termed moral reasoning which has been assessed to occur in developmental levels and stages.

Functionaries in organizations who hold positions of responsibility can be rated on their level and stage of moral reasoning through the application of the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale. The result of the completion of data pertaining to the Moral Judgment Scale reveals the extent of the utilization of cognitive thought based upon principles of justice. The moral reasoning of functionaries identified by level and stage is then inferred as affecting the decision making and policy considerations of persons holding positions of responsibility.

The rational cognitive structure based upon principles of justice involves the role-taking opportunity. Kohlberg describes this role-taking opportunity as follows:

The more the individual is responsible for the decisions of the group, and for his own actions in their consequences for the group, the more must he take the roles of others in it... (Kohlberg, cited in Goslin, 1969, p. 399)

Role taking, then, includes awareness of one's subordinate's roles and the relationships among the same. Role taking becomes an opportunity to

utilize justice principles which should in turn afford reward to the subordinate as well as the decision maker.

Moral reasoning represents not only a schema for the structuring of thought processes but an awareness of other persons' moral thought processes as well. Its philosophical orientation is toward man as an end rather than a means. An illustration of this point can be seen in the following discussion of a Kohlbergian moral dilemma story:

In the dilemma in which a woman is dying because a druggist refuses to release his drug for less than the stated price, the druggist is not violating the ordinary moral rules (he is actually not stealing or murdering). But he is violating principles; he is treating the woman simply as a means to his ends of profit. (Kohlberg, cited in Phi Delta Kappan, 1975, p. 672)

For the educator in a position of responsibility, where role taking and the opportunity to make decisions on moral principles "comes with the territory" (Purpel and Ryan, 1976, title page), the cognitive structure toward justice in moral reasoning exhibits to others a belief about a universal concept, justice. Resolving claims between persons on principles of justice is "giving each his due" (Kohlberg, cited in Phi Delta Kappan, 1975, p. 673) which dignifies man. It can offer the opportunity of role taking to others and in the long span of time create a moral atmosphere which can aid in the advancement of moral reasoning of other persons.

Men have always been attracted by the idea that there exists in us some ideal form of the good...something moving in man, some dynamic that is pushing toward a higher level

of existence. The cognitive-developmental approach to moral education is in this intellectual tradition.

At the very core of Kohlberg's theory is the existence of a positive force, a telos, that is moving in the direction of more sophisticated and more comprehensive moral judgments. It becomes the task of the educator, then, to facilitate this natural impulse toward growth with an environment that supports the development of moral thinking.

(Purpel and Ryan, 1976, pp. 173, 175)

Educational administrators striving for an ideal form of the good can establish a credible goal which enhances the broad aim of education as development of persons.

Because educators must create an atmosphere that "supports the development of moral thinking," it is logical to inquire what kind of moral standards educators possess. The Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale has been applied to longitudinal studies and shorter research endeavors with subjects of varied occupations; however, there is a dearth of research pertaining to moral standards of school administrators. This study offers data regarding the moral reasoning of educational functionaries in an effort to expand basic information pertaining to moral standards of educational administrators.

Statement of the Problem

Functionaries in educational organizations daily make decisions and policy which can shape the direction and beliefs held by members of the organization. It has been shown that organizations do direct and shape policy with decisions that reflect productive and technical goals or that reflect concern for human development of organizational members.

The importance of moral behavior of persons in functionary positions has been cited previously. However, these references to moral behavior concern norms associated with social responsibility, social ethics, ethical standards or character traits known as "a bag of virtues". No standard is employed by which the moral behavior of educational functionaries may be determined or assessed.

The Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale has been developed to assess moral reasoning of individuals of various occupations, socio-economic status, and ages. In this study it is used to determine the moral judgment levels of selected educational functionaries in the state of North Carolina.

Determining the moral reasoning of educational functionaries is a way to analyze the content of decisions and policy made by these persons. Moral reasoning includes awareness of others and a perspective applicable to society at large. The Moral Judgment Scale is utilized to analyze the moral reasoning of educational functionaries with results inferred to educational organization decisions and policies.

Specifically, this study is designed to analyze data pertaining to the following statements: (1) educational organizations are oriented toward efficiency and technically productive goals; (2) functionaries in educational organizations hold technical, productive goals and conventional moral reasoning stages; (3) educational functionaries with a designated management style have varying stages of moral reasoning; and (4) location, sex, size of school, and years of experience of educational functionaries do not affect either moral reasoning or managerial style of these persons.

Selection of the Sample

The researcher collaborated with the Center for Creative Leadership, (a non-profit educational institution founded by the Smith-Richardson Foundation), in its Seven-Day Leadership Development Program. This program features training in leadership process, decision making, leadership styles, use of group resources, problem-solving feedback, and self-directed personal development. The program involves completion of a battery of personality, interest, and leadership measures which are discussed with participants in feedback sessions and private consultation with professional staff members.

Among the battery of personality, interest, and leadership measures completed is the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory. The personality types from this Inventory are associated with four modes of work, each of which is identified as a managerial style. They are: traditionalist/judicial, troubleshooter/negotiator, catalyst, and visionary.

The study was conducted using a purposive sample of 141 educational administrators in the state of North Carolina. All subjects were educational administrators during their participation in the Leadership Training Seminar. During the 1977-78 academic year, they all held educational administrative positions.

The investigator was given permission by the Center for Creative Leadership to use the MBTI scores of the 141 subjects in the study with related descriptions of four managerial styles. All subjects possess a managerial style resulting from participation in the Leadership Training Seminar.

Summary of Procedures

One hundred forty-one educational functionaries in a Southern state were asked to complete a selected Kohlbergian dilemma from the Moral Judgment Scale materials. Data on age, location, sex, size of school, and years of experience were collected. Because each subject had a managerial style resulting from participation in leadership training, the data were analyzed to (1) compare moral reasoning scores with managerial styles; (2) compare moral reasoning scores with demographic data; (3) compare managerial style with demographic data. In order to analyze the statements made earlier, the data obtained were examined by computer using the ANOVA and chi-square statistical treatment.

Limitations of the Study

The study and its related findings apply only to the subjects in this investigation. All subjects currently hold the position of school administrator. In the universe of school administrators, these subjects represent a purposive sample of administrators. In this purposive sample, the job of school administrator refers to those persons who have completed the Leadership Training Seminar, have been determined to possess an identifiable style of management, and who are assessed a moral reasoning stage from the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale.

The distinctions between educational administrator and educational manager have been made to differentiate between differing approaches to the job of school functionary. To review this distinction, the educational administrator approaches the job of school administration with a concern for social values which foster human development through the school organization. The educational manager approaches the school

administration job with a material, technical, mechanical concern for efficiency and production.

It is the writer's contention, from observations in numerous schools, that the current people in these functionary roles tend to be managerial; i.e., controlling and organizing for an efficient school. Minimal regard appears to be manifested toward social consequences and development for students.

This study attempts to determine the possible relationship between these functionaries' moral reasoning stages and their managerial styles. Managerial style is broad information about a person's most likely mode of operation in the functionary role. Managerial style in this study utilizes four styles known as traditionalist/judicial, troubleshooter/negotiator, catalyst, and visionary. The traditionalist/judicial style establishes effective outcomes and makes efficient use of the organization to meet its goals and purposes. The troubleshooter/negotiator finds breakdowns and errors, and concretely makes corrections. The catalyst has great commitment to the people being lead and is concerned with their social satisfaction. The visionary seeks organizational relationships to create new ideas and programs.

Although other managerial styles have been determined, notably by William J. Reddin (1970) and co-authors Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1972), data in this study will not be generalized to styles other than those four mentioned above.

Since it appears that school administrators utilize more management-oriented strategies, the feasibility of discovering a relationship between educational administrators, who are educational managers, and their level of moral reasoning will be ascertained. The investigation attempts

to indicate that, for 141 subjects in the study, there is a positive or negative relationship between managerial style and moral reasoning. The cause or effect of these two components is not being determined in this study.

Overview

This chapter has presented an introduction to the problem and background related to the need for the study. Statements to be examined from the data collected in this investigation were presented. The subjects for the study were described, the procedures of the investigation were summarized and limitations were given.

The second chapter presents a review of the related literature. The concepts of administration and management are reviewed, and the place of schools in the social system is discussed. The development of managerial style as it applies to this investigation is also reviewed. Finally, the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale is explained and discussed as it applies to this study.

Chapter three presents the procedures for investigation. These include the hypotheses being tested by this study, the data-gathering instruments, the collection of the data, scoring of the responses, treatment of the data, and nature of the response.

Chapter four describes and analyzes the results of the statistical tests applied to the collected data.

The final chapter discusses the major findings and offers conclusions. Implications using a Kohlbergian application are included. The dissertation concludes with findings that describe the relationship between managerial style and moral reasoning.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents background information pertinent to this study. The differentiation between administration and management is drawn to facilitate their application to schools as part of the social system. In turn, schools are explored as the aspects of the social system theory are found in them. The evolution of managerial styles is described as found applicable to this investigation. Finally, the work of Lawrence Kohlberg and his development of the Moral Judgment Scale reveals its concrete and broad aspects. These topics in the literature are reviewed in terms which relate concretely to the study.

Administration

The concept of administration has been developed and defined by its functions, tasks, conditions, and purposes. Frequently administration refers to the management of affairs using principles and practices to achieve objectives and aims of the organization. Planning, organizing, and controlling activities of administration contribute to the accomplishment of the objectives of the organization.

Henri Fayol advanced the notion that administration was of universal importance with privilege and responsibility toward administration being the concern of all members of an organization. Fayol identified planning, organizing, commanding, coordination and control to be the administrative functions used and displayed by a head of state as well as a draftsman. He asserted that administration was present in all organized human

activity, that everyone participates in administration to some extent in organizations (Gross, 1964, p. 40).

Fayol firmly believed in the presence of hierarchy in organization. "The time taken up by administrative questions increases with the employee's level in the industrial hierarchy" (Lepawsky, 1955, p. 5). The difference in use of administrative knowledge was in proportion to the employee's rank in the industrial hierarchy.

The work of Fayol was among the first efforts to study administrative activity. Utilization of Fayol's administrative functions by Luther Gulick resulted in his analysis of seven types of administrative activity. They are: Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting. POSDCORB is the acronym applied to administrative functions which Gulick identified as the work of the chief executive (Gross, 1964, pp. 42-43).

More contemporary writers on the topic of administration assume a broader perspective than earlier theorists such as Fayol and Gulick. Professor Leon C. Marshall suggests that the term administration include: (a) policy formation, (b) the planning and setting up of organization, and (c) the running of the organization. Marshall applied these three broad functions of administration to business administration, school administration, and other forms of administration (Lepawsky, 1955, p. 38). Oliver Sheldon agrees with Marshall in that administration includes corporate policy formation, organization planning, as well as running the organization. Sheldon adds to his definition of administration "...the coordination of finance, production and distribution, settlement of the compass of the organization and the ultimate control of the chief executive" (Lepawsky, pp. 35-36).

Moving away from administration as defined by business and industry, Leonard D. White identifies the purpose of administration in the public sector. White defines administration as "...the management of men and materials in the accomplishment of the purposes of the state." He sees administration as managerial in nature through the functions of organization, personnel management, financial and legal controls. White's view of administration is widely adopted by the field of public administration in America (Lepawsky, p. 37).

Writings in the field of administration reveal that these functions and purposes of administration are generally accepted as defining the activity and nature of administration. The utilization of these purposes and functions to aid members of organizations to accomplish organizational goals and objectives appears to be universally accepted as stable aspects of the definition of administration.

While his summary of the meanings of administration contains both specific and broad functions and purposes, J. William Schulze attempts to account for the non-specific aspects. Schulze claims that the broad meaning of administration occurs because of the form of our national government, which acts as a model for other types of organizations. The President, as the chief executive of the national government, "is the official elected by the people to lay down the objectives toward which the country is to strive and the policies under which it is to operate" (Lepawsky, pp. 36-37). With the duties of the President going far beyond management and organization, the duties then become the domain of administration. Because these duties are varied, rather nonspecific and have far-reaching effects; Schulze claims they act as a model or prototype from which to pattern, improve or modify administrative purpose and function (Lepawsky, pp. 36-37).

Extended comprehension of administration occurs through the analysis of the social system in which administration occurs. Jacob Getzels identifies administration with the social system. He described administration as a social process in which behavior is a function of the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of the social system. The idiographic consists of the individual, his personality and his need-disposition while the nomothetic consists of the institution, role and expectation. The interaction of the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of the social system occurs through institutions which are designated to carry out the functions for the social system. In the institutions of the social system, administration is

...conceived structurally as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system; and functionally this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocation and integrating the roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system.

(Griffiths, 1964, pp. 101-102)

With Getzels as a pioneer in theorizing that the social system is the basis for defining administration, there followed much research and theorizing about the social system influences on administration. Walter G. Hack and others have developed a construct of administration with man in the social system as the central focus. The skills, abilities, values, and perceptions of man are derived from the social system and are subject to antecedent forces comprised of a philosophy, a theory of administration, and a setting providing expectations and demands. "As these antecedents to administrative action are refracted through the unique construct of

man's values, perceptions, skills and abilities they emerge as manifestations of administrative action" (Hack, Ramseyer, Gephart, and Heck, 1971, pp. 7-8). These manifestations define the job of the administrator, specify the organization, and determine the processes of decisions and organization movement.

From the construct of Hack and others, administration is defined by the administrator, the person. This person is subject to antecedent forces which shape skills, abilities, values, and perceptions creating the demonstration of administration through the job, the organization, and processes.

Continuing with administration as a result of the social system, Knezevich has succinctly melded administration with the social process and with concrete materials. He defines administration as:

...a social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling and unifying formally and informally organized human and material energies within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined objectives. (Knezevich, 1969, p. 52)

Early efforts to define administration were primarily concerned with the actions deemed necessary to perform within and maintain an organization. As human elements became noticeably absent from the purposes and functions of administration, the concept of administration turned from primary concern with concrete material aspects to a combination of the former with the human elements included. Current efforts to define administration continue to consider the complementarity of both the concrete and human aspects of administration. Bertram Gross summarizes his analysis of the divergent content of administration by stating:

When we look for recorded administrative thought in the more general sense, we find that in most cases it is part of a rich tapestry of philosophic (or even religious) commentary on man and his reflections to fellowman, state and society. (Monahan, 1975, p. 14)

Therefore, administration is broad, divergent, everchanging, and dependent upon the person's development.

Management

Management has an economic basis related to the production of goods and services for members of a society to consume. Production occurs in component parts which must be coordinated for the final product to appear on the market for an exchange of goods for money to occur. A primary concern of management is this production of goods, requiring capital, which are to be exchanged to accumulate capital (Petit, 1975, p. 47).

The production function of management is similarly advanced by Petit. He defines management as the pattern of tasks which the manager performs. This pattern is coordination and synchronization of various efforts necessary for effective and efficient production in an organization. The basic coordination functions which the manager utilizes include decision making, planning, organizing, leading, and controlling (Petit, pp. 46-47).

Other students of management follow Petit by defining management by the functions which are attributed to it. Oliver Sheldon defines management as the part of industry which is concerned with "the execution of policy, within the limits set up by administration, and the employment of the organization for the particular objects set before it" (Lepawsky,

1955, p. 36). Similarly, J. William Schulze identifies management "as the force which leads, guides and directs an organization in the accomplishment of a predetermined object" (Lepawsky, p. 36).

The distinction between administration and management is not always clear as they relate to functions or tasks. While it appears they are often used coterminously, Oliver Sheldon attempts to delineate them. He summarizes the inter-relationship between administration, management, and organization in the following manner:

Organization is the formation of an effective machine; management is an effective executive; administration is an effective direction. Administration determines the organization; management uses it. Administration defines the goal; management strives toward it. Organization is the machine of management in its achievement of the ends determined by administration. (Lepawsky, p. 36)

Management is usually considered to be concerned with efficiency and tasks and functions to facilitate economic production. In contrast to administration, which merges the economic and human dimensions, management continues to be associated with concrete, material, tangible aspects. The human elements have yet to be formally accepted in definitions of management. Generally, management refers to the performance of a set of functions which are utilized as means to achieve ends. The resulting activity and programs are mechanical, technical, and directed toward productivity and efficiency. Administration as a concept refers to policy, goals and objectives which are directed toward the development and improved maintenance of man's relationship to man.

This distinction between management and administration is derived from the literature which reveals their similarities and differences. Yet both concepts are frequently used interchangeably. For purposes of this document, the emphasis on human concerns of administration will be employed as the major contrasting feature with management. Thus, the concepts are not used synonymously in this manuscript.

Administration, Management, and Schools in Terms of the Social System

The eminent sociologist Talcott Parsons developed a general theory of a social system by identifying four imperatives. The imperative of pattern maintenance is the retaining of the stability of the governing or controlling patterns of the system. The ordering of relations among the parts of the social system to promote harmony is the integration imperative. The imperative of goal-attainment refers to the formation of collectively binding decisions in order to implement the values of the system. The final imperative of adaptation is the generation of disposable facilities for use in the attainment of goals (Hills, 1975, p. 244).

Parsons isolated four functional subsystems of the society. Each of the subsystems specializes in the solution of four functional problems of society. R. Jean Hills extends the social system theory by an application to organizations. Organizations are, he says, distributed among the four subsystems with each specializing in the solution of one or some of the functional problems (Hills, p. 253). It is then possible to analyze organizations and society with the same theoretical framework.

It is essential to recognize that each of the social theory subsystems is governed by a value standard which defines the system-environment relationship. Each subsystem "is subject to a differentiated set

of legal and informal norms...specifying legitimate and illegitimate means of producing its output as well as sanctions for compliance and noncompliance" (Hills, p. 244). Each subsystem is subject to a set of symbols which serve as a medium of exchange and as a way to measure the value of resources and outputs.

The imperative of adaptation characterizes business firms, commercial enterprises and economic organizations. Their governing value standard is one of utility, which is the maximizing of the want-satisfaction capacity. Through the maximizing of the utility value, available resources are cycled into the production of goods and services having economic value. Contract, employment, and property regulate economic activity with money as the medium of exchange. The utility of both resources and products is measured in terms of monetary price. With monetary price as the measure of the utility, economic production becomes a "process of value implementation or fulfillment of value commitments" (Hills, pp. 244-245).

With industrial management related to the production of goods and services, the defining value standard becomes one of utility with solvency as the condition of survival. "Money is the...medium for measuring the value and securing control of objects having intrinsic value in the sense of utility" (Hills, p. 249). Management is then primarily concerned with utility (a value standard), solvency, and the medium of money in its application of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, controlling, and supervising functions which carry out administrative policy and objectives.

Management appears to be concerned with the use of technical, mechanical, automated material to achieve utility and solvency. The use of

mechanized material has emerged since the Industrial Revolution when mass production of goods for consumption and profit developed. The economic base of management becomes the profit motive accelerated by the application of mechanical, technological, and methodological techniques. Management becomes a more recent aspect of administration utilized to foster consumption, profit, and economic advantage through mechanistic processes.

Schools, as social entities within society, possess generalizations about the nature of their organization. Of these generalizations, the imperative of pattern-maintenance is most characteristic of schools. Socialization, value commitments, and the internalization of values are central mechanisms of the pattern-maintenance imperative (Hills, p. 241).

The business enterprise and the school are subject to standards of effectiveness. For business, effectiveness is determined by solvency in which "the costs of production are covered by the proceeds of sales" (Hills, p. 252). Effectiveness is measured in schools, however, by the concept of pattern-consistency or "the standard of successful contribution to the maintenance of the societal value pattern" (Hills, p. 252).

The activities of pattern maintenance express or directly implement the basic values of the organization, i.e., schools. The technical, operative level of school personnel reflect the expression and implementation of the basic organizational values which foster the maintenance of the societal value pattern. The general inclination of technical personnel, particularly in educational organizations, is the emphasis on basic "professional" values and the implementation of fundamental organizational values. This knowledge of the performance of technical processes and functions proceeds without regard for organizational consequences.

Minimum concern for the adaptive, goal-attainment, and integrative imperatives occurs (Hills, pp. 254-256).

The technical, operative level of pattern-maintenance personnel in schools is oriented toward the training and motivation of students' personalities for performance of adult roles. The product output of the school parallels commodities in business. Product output is the "change in character, knowledge and skill levels of individual pupils" (Hills, p. 248) through pattern-maintenance symbolic mediums of exchange of commitment and integrity.

Commitments are the medium used to secure control of the performance of individuals and collectivities to maintain the value system. Commitments become a general medium for activating obligations which are presumably morally binding because of the values shared by ego and alter ego (Singer, 1976, p. 85).

Integrity of the value pattern is essential to retain the commitments of members of the society to current social norms. Stability and/or orderly change rest on the commitments of the present generation and the transmission of the pattern to the oncoming generation(s). Integrity and commitment contribute to the values institutionalized in a social system.

The product output of the school reflects the internalization of the social norms and values incorporated in the society. The symbolic mediums of commitment and integrity foster the change in knowledge and skill levels required to maintain a social system. With the output of the school contributing to the maintenance, credence, acceptance, and endurance of the social system and its attendant value system, the institutionalization of social norms continues.

The value standard of administration can also be understood through social systems theory. With the content of administration tied to affairs in the public domain, public schools become the locale where administration is most often represented. Policy, goals, and objectives of schools are a responsibility of school administration. The application of these to the pattern-maintenance medium of exchange of commitment and integrity is an administrative topic. The school administration should be occupied with the belief and acceptance of personnel in the school toward norms and values in society. Consideration of policy and objectives which will emit behavior of support and reliance from school membership to uphold and continue established societal values is an administrative function.

Effectiveness of schools comes from the integrity and commitment with which they uphold and continue the societal value patterns. The schools' pattern-maintenance function in retaining the societal value system is extended by "occupationally involved personnel" who resist demands that are perceived as a threat to the societal value system. Although schools do respond to opportunities and threats from the environment, these aspects are tempered with a heavy emphasis on the maintenance of the integrity of the school's value commitment (Hills, 1975, p. 252).

The imperative of pattern-maintenance becomes both a useful and a hindering factor to the school. R. Jean Hills (pp. 252-253) summarizes this inconsistency. He claims that the school is obligated to respond to demands from the environment which do not violate the integrity of the value commitments of the schools. Simultaneously, the school is subject to consistency for its successful contribution to the maintenance of the value pattern of the society. This standard attributed to the school

places limits on the goals of the school. Were this standard not in existence for the schools, the integrity of the schools' commitment to the guiding value pattern of the society could be seriously altered.

Thus, Hills is indicating that schools experience constraints from the society-at-large which places them in the position of maintaining consistency to uphold the dominant societal value pattern. At the same time, the schools are expected to respond to situations in their environment which may have ramifications beyond the dominant societal value pattern. When this occurs, the schools are caught in a bind between upholding the dominating patterns of the society and simultaneously introducing differing patterns into their organizations which meet demands of the environment.

The awareness by the school administration of the balance between pattern-maintenance and meeting contemporary social values requires astute policy and objective considerations to retain compatibility with the organization of the system. Belisle and Sargent conceive administration as a necessary social invention. They believe administration is to develop and advance social values. By directing social values toward the service and science of administration, the essential concern of administration is toward social values beyond "definable terms of any particular individual or organizational purpose" (Belisle and Sargent, 1957, p. 117).

The indications are that administration needs to possess awareness of social values which will be applicable in the future and attempt to work in the directions which would bring these values toward reality. Simultaneously, administration requires awareness of what has transpired previously and currently in order to have a perspective which would bring cognizance to past, present, and future ramifications of administrative work.

Administration, in the view of Belisle and Sargent, is recognition of social values in carrying out the purposes of the organization. Harry Broudy emphasizes the importance of value considerations in administration, saying that he believes the administrator deals with nothing but values since human beings are comprised of value potentials. Because value conflicts at all levels come to rest on the shoulders of the school and because the highest responsibility rests with the administrator, the administrator copes with value conflicts on an institutional basis and on a personal basis. Coping, managing, and manipulating these conflicts occurs by instruction. He concludes his analysis by asserting this to be understandable "for we know much more about making men efficient than about making them men...For to statesmen and soldiers men entrust their lives and fortunes, but to the schools they entrust their precarious hold on humanity" (Broudy, 1971, p. 32).

The effect of the social system on management and administration can be attributed to the values which their respective imperative represents. Management is concerned with the implementation of program, policy, and objectives. Management has a technical, mechanistic, automated emphasis and is characterized by the adaptive imperative. The value symbol of utility with money as the medium of exchange is characterized by management.

Administration is concerned with the pattern-maintenance and/or continuation of societal norms through the symbolic medium of integrity and commitment. These value symbols are manifested through human phenomena rather than through concrete, tangible monetary matters. Because of the intangible medium attributed to administration, a depth of understanding of philosophical, sociological, and psychological relationships between man, society, and state appears necessary.

A dominant expectation from the societal value pattern for schools is maintenance of the social patterns. Schools support this expectation through school personnel who serve as contributors to pattern-maintenance using technical, mechanical functions. These represent societal expectations reinforced by the schools.

Administration as defined in this paper emphasizes consideration for human elements in organizations. The human development of the schools' clients, students, will not necessarily support the technical, mechanical pattern-maintenance values. However, the definition of management as performance of mechanical and technical functions will uphold the pattern-maintenance imperative which society places on the schools. Therefore the schools are directed by functionaries whose mode of operation is akin to management, which inadvertently promotes societal expectations of pattern-maintenance of schools.

With management already defined and related to the societal value pattern, it will be useful to review the development of styles of management identified with the concept of management. Management styles are a relatively new phenomenon but are useful to further understanding of the cumulative effects of the functionary and his/her mode of managing.

Management Styles

Because a primary concern of management is the production of goods to be exchanged to accumulate capital, persons in management capacities are studied to ascertain characteristics which will foster these goals of management. More recently the study of management also categorizes the style which the manager utilizes. Managerial style is primarily

determined by the use of dimensions of managerial behavior--that of task orientation and relationship orientation. Task orientation is concerned with the accomplishment of the organizational goals and objectives. Relationship orientation refers to a degree of concern for coworkers, followers, and superordinates manifest in the manager's behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972, pp. 82-83).

William J. Reddin was the first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationship dimensions. Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory allows for a variety of managerial styles which may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. Managerial effectiveness is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements for his position. Effectiveness is something a manager produces from a situation by managing it appropriately. To the four basic managerial styles of integrated, dedicated, related, and separated, Reddin supplied four less effective styles and four more effective managerial styles. Situational sensitivity and style flexibility are coordinated to utilize the most effective style (Reddin, 1970, pp. 2-17).

Additional research and development of managerial styles has occurred at the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina, a nonprofit educational institution founded by the Smith-Richardson Foundation. Its primary goal is to translate the knowledge of the behavioral sciences into useful applications for people in leadership positions. Toward this goal, the Center conducts and reviews relevant research and uses these findings in a variety of training programs.

Since 1970 the Center has been involved in a number of leadership development activities with managers and executives from industry,

civilian and military agencies of the United States government, and middle-level managers and administrators of state and municipal governments.

The core offering is a Seven-Day Leadership Development Program, a demanding experiential program based on the latest psychological and social psychological research. It features individual assessment and self-development training. The program involves a battery of personality, interest, and leadership measures and a full day of behavioral assessment on factors associated with leadership effectiveness. One outcome of these efforts has been the identification of four management profiles prevalent in persons holding leadership positions.

1. Traditionalist/Judicial is characterized by the establishment of effective managerial outcomes in an organization run on facts with stable, sensible people, and by effective and efficient use of the organizational environment to keep the organization running without due regard for human elements in the organization at all times.
2. Troubleshooter/Negotiator is characterized by acute powers of observation which can find breakdowns and errors, and determine the needed corrections. Concrete, ideal, realistic solutions and the acceptance of colleagues' behavior also characterize this style.
3. Catalyst is characterized by personal charisma and commitment to the people being led, lack of structure, concern for the social satisfaction of work, ability to sell the organization to others and desire to nurture the organization and its members.

4. Visionary is characterized by the seeking of relationships among components of the organization in order to create programs and new ideas. Problem solving, seeking thoughts and ideas from others, and then using these to conceptualize outcomes while having others carry out the ideas--these areas fall within this style. (Center for Creative Leadership, 1976)

These management styles are developed from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator which is administered to participants in the Leadership Training Seminars at the Center for Creative Leadership. As a result of the administration of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), the management styles have been formulated from the MBTI scores. The management styles and the MBTI types follow:

1. Traditionalist/Judicial is the ESTJ type or extraverted, sensing, thinking, judging type.
2. Troubleshooter/Negotiator is the ESTP type or extraverted, sensing, thinking, perceptive type.
3. Catalyst is the ENFJ type or extraverted, intuitive, feeling, judging type.
4. Visionary is the ENTJ type or extraverted, intuitive, thinking, judging type. (McCaulley, 1976, p. 2)

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is designed to implement Carl G. Jung's theory of psychological types. Jung's theory has as its basic assumption that "much apparently random variation in human behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent, and is due to certain basic differences in the way people prefer to use perception and judgment" (Myers, 1970, p. 1).

Perception is understood to include the processes of becoming aware. Awareness may refer to objects, people, occurrences, or ideas. Judgment is understood to deal with the procedures of reaching conclusions about what has been perceived. Perception and judgment, together, constitute a large portion of the individual's total mental activity and govern a large portion of one's outer behavior.

The Indicator contains four separate dichotomous categories which are called basic preference indices. There is no right or wrong to these basic preferences. They simply show "different kinds of people who are interested in different things, are good in different fields and often find it hard to understand each other" (Myers, p. 1).

Isabel Myers Briggs developed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator which consists of 166 items which are self-administered, in a forced-choice questionnaire booklet with answer sheet. It yields four indices of the respondents' preferences:

<u>Index</u>	<u>Preference as Between</u>
EI	Extraversion or Introversion
SN	Sensing or Intuitive
TF	Thinking or Feeling
JP	Judging or Perceptive

The Extraversion-Introversion Index is concerned with an outward or an inward focus on life. The Extravert concentrates on the external world of people and things while the Introvert prefers the internal world of concepts or ideas. The Sensing-Intuitive index is concerned with how a person sees the world. The Sensing person is oriented to the use of the five senses and primarily perceives facts and reality. The

Intuitive person perceives more indirectly and tends to tack ideas or associations on what is seen. The Thinking-Feeling index reflects the judgment a person prefers to use. Thinking judgments are based on impersonal logic and Feeling judgments on the values and emotions attached to the ideas involved. The Judging-Perceptive index reflects whether a person uses his Perceptive processes (S or N) or his Judging processes (T or F) in the outside world. A Judging person will generally be more orderly and better at organizing his/her world while the Perceptive person is more spontaneous and open to suggestion and change (Myers, 1962, pp. 10-14).

In terms of the theory, a person may be expected to develop the most skill with the processes he/she prefers to use and in the areas where he/she prefers to use them. It also should be mentioned that the Indicator attaches no value judgments to one preference as compared with another. Each preference is valuable and at times indispensable in its own right.

Managerial styles are a way to describe the preferred mode of operation for functionaries. While this information describes one aspect of a functionary, it would be informative to attempt to ascertain other dimensions in the functionary's mode of operation.

It has been asserted that social responsibility directed toward human considerations by functionaries is a desirable aspect of that person's work orientation. Despite previous descriptions of administration and the affinity to moral and value development as well as social responsibility, there is a lack of information regarding how educational functionaries make these socially responsible judgments.

There appear to be no criteria by which moral and value development and social responsibility may be determined or influenced in the area of educational administration. Because of this lack of information, the next section discusses the Moral Judgment Scale developed by Lawrence Kohlberg.

Kohlberg: The Moral Judgment Scale

The components of a moral and ethical framework have been described and advanced most recently through the work of Lawrence Kohlberg.

Kohlberg has developed a cognitive-developmental approach to moral reasoning using the cognitive-developmental theory of learning as the foundation. This latter theory makes the following assumptions:

1. Basic development involves transformations of cognitive structure explained by parameters of organizational wholes or systems of internal relations.
2. Development of cognitive structure is the result of processes of interaction between the structure of the organism and the structure of the environment. From this interaction, cognitive stages emerge as follows:
 - a. Stages imply distinct or qualitative differences in... modes of thinking or of solving the same problem at different ages.
 - b. The different modes of thought form an invariant sequence, order or succession in individual development. Cultural factors do not alter the sequence.
 - c. Each of the different and sequential modes of thought form a structured whole; not a specific response but an underlying thought organization.

- d. Cognitive stages are hierarchical integrations;
higher stages displace or integrate the structures
found at lower stages.
3. Cognitive structures are always structures (schemata) of
action. The organization of the cognitive structure is
always an action upon an object.
4. The direction of the development of cognitive structure is
toward greater equilibrium in the organism-environment in-
teraction; i.e., of greater balance or reciprocity between
the action of the organizer upon the object or vice versa.
5. Effective development and functioning and cognitive devel-
opment and functioning are not distinct realms. They are
parallel.
6. There is a fundamental unity of personality organization
and development termed the ego, or the self. Social de-
velopment is the restructuring of the concept of self
in its relationship to concepts of other people,
conceived as being in a common social world with social
standards.
7. The processes involved in cognitions are basic to social
development. Social cognition always involves role-
taking, i.e., awareness that the other is in some way like
the self and the other knows or is responsive to the self
in a system of complementary expectations.

8. The direction of social or ego development is also toward an equilibrium or reciprocity between the self's actions and those of others toward the self. In its generalized form, this equilibrium is the end point or definer of morality, conceived as principles of justice, i.e., of reciprocity or equality.

(Kohlberg, cited in Goslin, 1969, pp. 348-349; 352-353)

The cognitive-developmental theory of learning reveals the importance of interaction or social experience between the organism (person) and the environment for the patterning of cognitive responses. The interaction between the organism and the environment provides the content needed for cognitive structure to occur. Cognitive structure provides the rules for the processing of interactions between the organism and the environment. This processing of interactions, via cognitive structure, provides the equilibrium, balance or reciprocity between the interaction of organism and environment.

Cognitive structure is subject to the social experience of role-taking. Role-taking is taking the perspective or attitude of others, the awareness of others' thoughts and feelings, the putting of self in the place of others (Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, 1976, pp. 49-50).

...the structuring of thought and action by role-taking (is) the tendency to react to the other as someone like the self and the tendency to react to the self's behavior in the role of the other. (Kohlberg, cited in Goslin, 1969, p. 398).

Because role-taking is interaction between organisms, it is a social experience. This social experience influences cognitive structure. The development of self-concept, by seeing self in relationship to others in the social world, is influenced by role-taking. Role-taking contributes to self-concept and cognitive structure. The new materials for cognitive structure emerge from the organism and environment interactions, from role-taking opportunities and from self-concept.

Stages of cognitive structure appear as the organism matures and continues to interact with the environment. These stages are hierarchical and have an invariant sequence. They are determined by the structure of the cognitive reasoning; i.e., the rules used in cognitive structure. These rules represent the thinking process as it advances in sequence and hierarchy.

Kohlberg has developed a cognitive-developmental approach to moral judgment which is based upon the cognitive-development theory of learning, the work of Dewey and Piaget. The approach is cognitive because Kohlberg, like Dewey, recognizes that moral development, like intellectual development, has its basis in the stimulation of active thinking about moral issues and decisions.

Dewey identified three stages of moral development as being the premoral stage, the conventional stage, and the autonomous stage. Following Dewey, Piaget determined three stages of moral development through observation and interviews with children. Piaget identified the stages of moral development as premoral, heteronomous, and autonomous.

Following the work of Dewey and Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg applied the assumptions of cognitive-developmental learning to the assessment of

moral reasoning. He applied cognitive structure, which establishes equilibrium between interactions, to the concept of justice. The keystone of equilibrium is identified by Kohlberg as the justice structure. Kohlberg found the structure of justice to have a hierarchy and an invariant sequence.

Kohlberg's cross-cultural and longitudinal data validated moral development stages as follows:

1. Stages are structured wholes or organized systems of thought.
2. Stages form an invariant sequence in which movement is always forward.
3. Stages are hierarchical in that thinking at a higher stage involves comprehension of lower stage thinking.

(Kohlberg, cited in Purpel and Ryan, 1976, p. 178)

Kohlberg and associates identify the cognitive structure of justice as the rules of reciprocity and equality applied to cognitive reasoning. This application of the rules of justice, which has a hierarchy and an invariant sequence, is identified as moral reasoning. Justice rules of reciprocity and equality are utilized to attain equilibrium between the organism and the environment. Justice as equilibrium is present in all interactions between organism and environment.

The foundation of equilibrium, in Kohlberg's moral judgment theory, is the singular cognitive structure of justice. This cognitive structure comprises the moral reasoning structure.

The levels and stages of moral reasoning resulting from longitudinal and cross-cultural studies by Kohlberg are:

- I. Preconventional Level
 - Stage 1. Punishment and obedience orientation
 - Stage 2. Instrumental-relativist, egoistic orientation
 - II. Conventional Level
 - Stage 3. Interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation
 - Stage 4. "Law and order" orientation for social order and maintenancé
 - III. Postconventional or Principled Level
 - Stage 5. Social contract, legalistic orientation
 - Stage 6. Universal-ethical principle orientation
- (Kohlberg, 1975, p. 671)

Research by Kohlberg and associates evolved a Moral Judgment Scale, based upon the cognitive-developmental theory of learning between the organism and the environment. The cognitive structure of justice, as the principle of equilibrium of moral reasoning, was assessed by the use of story dilemmas. Each story is followed by the completion of probing questions. Using universal issues of significance, the content of the responses to the probing questions are assessed to ascertain the structure of moral judgment. The Moral Judgment Scale then identifies the level and stage of moral reasoning of the respondent. By application of the cognitive-developmental theory of learning, moral judgment can advance as the cognitive structure of justice is altered.

The extent or depth of the concern for justice is affected by the maturity of a person's moral judgment. Kohlberg's research indicates

that logical reasoning affects moral reasoning so as to move it toward justice principles. Concepts of justice inherent in each stage are correlated to the maturity of the respondent's logical reasoning. This in turn affects the person's ability to make advanced moral judgments.

A person whose logical stage is only concrete operational is limited to the preconventional moral stages. A person whose logical stage is only partially formal operational is limited to the conventional moral stages.

...most individuals are higher in logical stage than they are in moral stage. ...a person's logical stage puts a certain ceiling on the moral stage he can attain.

(Kohlberg, cited in Purpel and Ryan, 1976, p. 179)

Kohlberg extends the assessment of moral judgment to the social perspective or shared viewpoint of members in a relationship or group. The social perspective occurs in a role-taking situation resulting in a moral judgment. Role-taking is seeing "another's view as related to (your) own" and is paralleled by a change in conceptions of "personality development, motivation and other elements of social relations" (Selman, 1976, p. 301). Kohlberg claims that principles of justice are utilized in these role-taking situations. As a result of the role-taking opportunity, a moral judgment emerges. The content of the moral judgment, resulting from role-taking, is evaluated to determine a moral judgment level.

This moral judgment level indicates the social perspective emanating from a social experience. The resulting social perspective is the

shared viewpoint by the participants in a relationship or group. The social perspective of the levels and stages of moral judgment has been defined by Kohlberg as follows:

<u>Moral Judgment</u>	<u>Social Perspective</u>
I. Preconventional Level	I. Concrete individual perspective
Stage 1. Punishment and obedience orientation	Stage 1. Egocentric point of view
Stage 2. Instrumental-relativist; egoistic orientation	Stage 2. Concrete individualistic perspective
II. Conventional Level	II. Member of society perspective
Stage 3. Interpersonal concordance	Stage 3. Perspective of the individual in relationships with others
Stage 4. "Law and order" orientation	Stage 4. Differentiates societal point of view from interpersonal motives
III. Postconventional Level	III. Prior-to-society perspective
Stage 5. Social contract orientation	Stage 5. Awareness of values and rights prior to social contracts
Stage 6. Universal-ethical orientation	Stage 6. Perspective of a moral point of view

(Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, 1976, pp. 33-35)

The social experience which role-taking offers is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for moral development. Cognitive development and stimulation are also necessary for developing logical reasoning, another foundation for moral reasoning.

In addition to cognitive stimulation and role-taking experiences for developing moral judgment, the moral atmosphere of an institution or a group is of importance. Kohlberg defines this moral atmosphere as follows:

The core of the moral atmosphere of an institution or environment...is its justice structure, 'the way in which social institutions distribute fundamental rights and duties and determine the division of advantages from social cooperation'.

(Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, 1976, p. 50).

Kohlberg claims that the 'moral atmosphere of environments are more than the sum of the individual moral judgments and actions of its members. Individuals respond to a composite of moral reasoning, moral action and institutionalized rules as a relatively unified whole in relation to their own moral stage'. (Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, p. 51). Research by Kohlberg and associates has found that institutions represent a moral stage. Institutions with a high moral stage atmosphere can affect moral judgment advance among the members of the institution (Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, pp. 50-51).

The combination of role-taking opportunities, the moral level provided by an institution, and movement to the next stage through cognitive-moral conflict are elements of the cognitive-developmental theory of moral judgment. The presence of these can bring about advancement in moral judgment by members and or participants.

Summary

This chapter has been developed to provide background information applicable to this study. Administration, management, schools in the social system, management styles, and the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale are reviewed for their applications to the intent of this study.

The distinction between administration and management indicates major differences in the attitudes and actions toward personal and human development concerns. Because schools function within the social system and outside the social system they are subject to conflicts regarding their dominant purposes and goals. The charge of the schools to contribute clients to the current social system appears to be an abiding concern and purpose for schools.

Management styles and the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale are concepts and tools to ascertain individuals' (in this study, educational functionaries) ways of thinking and working with moral issues, respectively.

The information reviewed leads to the conclusion that schools, as proponents of the social system, are guided by functionaries with characteristics similar to managers, that is, with thought directed toward technical and efficiency considerations. The style of management and the moral reasoning level of the functionaries may or may not uphold the educational functionary as manager and contributor to the current social system patterns. It is to this research question that this dissertation is directed.

CHAPTER III

THE PROCEDURES OF THE INVESTIGATION

This research is designed to determine moral reasoning stages of educational functionaries who have an identifiable managerial style. The results of the analysis will be linked to the place of schools in the social system and the moral orientation of schools.

Assessment of the moral reasoning stage of subjects occurs with the utilization of the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale. Demographic data pertaining to the subjects were collected in an effort to amplify further the research findings. The data were assembled in collaboration with the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina.

This chapter is developed to discuss (1) the hypotheses, (2) the data-gathering instruments, (3) the population selection, (4) collection of the data, (5) scoring of responses, and (6) treatment of the data.

Hypothesis

This study was prepared to examine data regarding the orientation of educational organizations toward controlling and efficiency and human considerations through the assessment of educational functionaries' moral reasoning and managerial style. The levels and stages of moral reasoning have been identified with a social perspective. Managerial style is related to a system of valuing. Organizational purposes and goals will be inferred to the analyses of data pertaining to moral reasoning and managerial style.

The functionaries in the study are educational administrators who have a designated style of management. The study examines the possibility of relationships between the managerial style of educational functionaries and their level of moral reasoning. The hypotheses to be analyzed by the collected data are:

1. Educational organizations are oriented toward efficiency and technically productive goals.
2. Functionaries in educational organizations are predicted to exhibit technical, productive goals and conventional moral reasoning stages.
3. Functionaries possessing different managerial styles will exhibit variance in their moral reasoning stages.
4. Location, sex, size of school, and years of experience of educational functionaries do not affect either moral reasoning stage or managerial style.

The Data-Gathering Instruments

The Moral Judgment Scale

The research of Lawrence Kohlberg and associates has identified stages and levels of moral reasoning. Moral reasoning is based upon cognitive developmental assumptions about social and cognitive growth. Moral reasoning stages and levels represent "a mode of prescriptive valuing of the socially good and right" (Kohlberg, et al., 1977, p. 10). Stages are referred to as ways of moral thinking or reasoning, not types of persons and not moral behavior.

A moral stage represents a general structure or pattern of organization of moral reasoning. Moral stage is determined from the words and

concepts a subject uses in response to probe questions following a moral dilemma. These words and concepts represent the content of the moral thinking. Examination of the content of a subject's response determines the moral reasoning stage of the respondent.

Through longitudinal research, Kohlberg and associates have developed a group of stories, with accompanying questions, to determine the moral reasoning of the respondent. Each story, representing hypothetical conflict situations with probe questions following, is developed to elicit responses toward two of six universal moral issues: life-law, punishment-conscience, affiliation-contract. One pair of moral issues is used in each dilemma. The dilemma requires the subject to weigh one set of issues in relation to the importance of another set of issues; i.e., life weighed against law, punishment weighed against conscience, affiliation weighed against contract.

The choice of these issues is based on the belief that moral issues represent moral institutions. Because institutions are rules and roles which define rights, obligations and "center about some overall purpose(s) or values" (Kohlberg et al., 1977, p. 53), violation of the institution is punishable. Additionally, each of the moral issues defines a basic, universal right. They serve to regulate conflicts between human beings and their needs. These conflicts are applicable to individual and personal needs as well as governmental and societal contentions (Kohlberg et al., 1977, p. 54). Moral issues are finally defined as "externally...valued social objects, institutions or events" (Kohlberg et al., 1977, p. 57).

These moral issues are constellations of values. The values the subject uses support and justify the moral issue. These values, used to uphold a moral issue, are termed moral norms. Moral norms are internal

to the person and are the basis for valuing objects or situations (Kohlberg et al., 1977, pp. 56-57).

Scoring for the selected dilemma is focused upon the two universal moral issues contained in the story. Scoring is based upon matching the respondent's moral content with criterion judgments.

Criterion judgments are statements representing moral norms of an issue. They are associated with a particular moral judgment stage (Kohlberg et al., 1977, p. 51). These criterion judgment statements enable the rater to match the respondent's words and concepts with an applicable moral reasoning stage and moral norm(s).

The dilemma chosen by the investigator is found in Reference Manual for Standard Scoring of Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview, Form A.

The dilemma is Dilemma I, Form A. The main idea of this dilemma centers about the issues of affiliation and contract. Affiliation represents the role and concerns of affection, while the second issue represents contract, trust, and justice in exchange. It was reasoned by the investigator that these issues could conceivably represent dilemmas in the school functionary's role, particularly with respect to issues of daily decision-making.

Another reason for choosing this dilemma is its infrequent use and reference in the literature describing the moral reasoning work of Kohlberg.

The third reason for choosing this dilemma is the adult and adolescent (father-son) relationship in the story. This relationship appears to represent a similar human relationship in schools; i.e., administrator-teacher/adult and student/son. The subject's identification with this dilemma may create interest in completing the inventory.

The utilization of the Moral Judgment Scale occurs because of a dearth of available instruments to determine moral reasoning. To the investigator's knowledge, no research using this scale with school administrators is existent.

Leadership Data Form

The Leadership Data Form contains brief questions about the respondent's leadership experiences in education. This demographic information relates to the number of years of experience in educational administration, the enrollment of the school where employed (1977-78), and the urban or rural setting of the school. The Center for Creative Leadership made available to the researcher the sex of each subject. This demographic data is used to analyze an hypothesis in this study.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, used to ascertain managerial style in this study, is based upon the psychological types which Carl G. Jung developed in his work. Jung identified two major attitudes or orientations of personality: extraversion and introversion. One of these personality attitudes is dominant and conscious while the other is subordinate and unconscious. In addition, he identified four fundamental psychological functions as thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuition. Jung postulated that the functions of thinking and feeling were basically different kinds of processes used in formulating judgments. Thinking and feeling are rational functions based upon reason, abstraction, and generalization. Judgment is understood to be concerned with the processes of reaching conclusions about what has been perceived.

The functions of sensing and intuition were postulated by Jung to be basically different kinds of processes used in formulating perceptions. Jung considered sensing and intuition to be irrational factors based upon the abstract, the concrete, and the particular. Perception is understood to include the process of becoming aware. This awareness may refer to things, people, occurrences, or ideas. The combination of perception and judgment constitutes a large portion of an individual's total mental activity and governs a large portion of one's outer behavior.

Jung postulated that one of these four functions is more highly differentiated than the other three and therefore superior in a given individual. The other three functions then are auxiliary functions and will take over automatically if the superior function is prevented from operating. The four types become habituated and operate in combination with the functions creating a type of perception (Hall and Lindzey, 1970, p. 56).

Isabel Briggs Myers and Katharine C. Briggs conducted extensive research in the study of Carl Jung's theory of personality. Their research disclosed two additional functions which they characterize as attitudes toward the external world. Preference toward the outer world is determined by the functions of judging and perceiving. Judging is a function of an attitude of seeking closure and finality to input in order to form conclusions about the external world upon which to act. The perceiving function is the attitude toward the external world of being open to input and new possibilities while suspending decision as long as possible in order to understand the world and adapt to it (McCaulley, 1976, p. 2).

The research and psychological types identified by Carl Jung and the above-described research were used by Isabel Briggs Myers to construct the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to measure the processes of perception, judgment, orientation to the external world, and attitude of personality. The MBTI is an instrument designed to implement the theory of Carl G. Jung and the research of Myers and Briggs. The MBTI measures personality attitudes and personality functions. It is a self-administered questionnaire consisting of 166 items. The MBTI describes the four broad categories of personality type as:

1. Preference for one of two fields of personality orientation: extraversion or introversion.
2. Preference for one of two fields of perception: sensing and intuition.
3. Preference for one of two fields of judgment: thinking and feeling.
4. Preference for one of two attitudes toward the external world: judging and perceiving.

The MBTI ascertains, from self-reported reactions, an individual's basic preference with regard to perception and judgment. The interests, needs, values, attitudes, and traits which result indicate a type of person.

As previously indicated, one function of the Center for Creative Leadership is the conducting of Leadership Training Seminars. These seminars are attended by persons holding or preparing for leadership roles in industry, business, government, and education. Persons participating in the Leadership Training Seminars at the Center are administered a series of psychological and personality inventories. The MBTI is one of these inventories.

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assigned to collaborate with the writer. The succeeding section will delineate further data collection procedures.

The Leadership Data Form

All subjects received the Leadership Data Form to complete and return. The information to be supplied is demographic in nature. Information was furnished pertaining to the enrollment of the school where employed (1977-78 academic year), years of experience in a leadership position and the urban or rural location of the school where employed.

These data were collected and used as a main effect for managerial style and moral reasoning stage statistical analyses.

Population Selection

The researcher was granted permission to collaborate with the Center for Creative Leadership in the preparation of the study. The Center staff person, assigned to work with the writer, aided in the determination of appropriate subjects, by perusing the Center files to obtain necessary information. Of all educators who completed a Leadership Training Seminar at the Center, 141 persons at the time of seminar participation were currently engaged in educational leadership positions. These 141 persons were the subjects for this investigation.

Collection of the Data

The 141 eligible subjects received an initial mailing which included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the investigation along with a copy of the following (Appendix C):

1. Leadership Data Form--brief questions about the respondent's leadership experience in education (demographic data).

2. Leadership Activity Task--nine open-ended questions in response to a Kohlberg story presented.
3. The Rokeach Values Survey--an ordering of two separate lists of items in terms of their relative importance.

The Leadership Data Form and the Leadership Activity Task were used in this investigation. The Rokeach Values Survey was utilized by the Center for Creative Leadership in a separate investigation to be conducted by a Center staff person.

The subjects were asked to return the Leadership Data Form, the Leadership Activity Task, and the Rokeach Values Survey in an enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope to the Center for Creative Leadership. A record was kept of those persons who did and did not respond to the initial mailing. Several weeks after the deadline for returns of the initial mailing, nonrespondents received a follow-up letter requesting return of the research forms.

Through these record-keeping procedures, those persons who did not respond to the second mail request for returns were contacted by telephone. This third petition for return to nonrespondents was the final appeal made.

As the cover of the initial mailing indicated to the subjects, all responses would remain confidential. No space for entry of name or other identification of the subject appeared on the Leadership Activity Task or the Leadership Data Form.

Confidentiality of the MBTI scores with resulting managerial styles and sex of the subjects was preserved by a numerical coding system; i.e., each subject was assigned a number by the Center for Creative Leadership

staff member assigned to collaborate with the researcher. The Leadership Activity Task and the Leadership Data Form, returned by each subject, were coded with the identical number assigned to each subject.

The Center for Creative Leadership research staff person sent the researcher a coded listing of the eligible subjects. The managerial style and sex of the subject appeared beside each code number. Simultaneously, the Leadership Activity Task and Leadership Data Form were received with written code numbers matching that subject's managerial style and sex.

From this coding procedure, statistical analyses of the subject's managerial style and stage of moral reasoning could be made.

Scoring of Responses

The Leadership Activity Task

The responses to the Leadership Activity Task, which is the Kohlberg Moral Dilemma, were scored by two experienced scorers. Each rater followed procedures outlined in the Manual for Assessing Moral Stages. These procedures include a prior familiarity by the rater with the organization of the scoring system, the issues in the dilemma, and the meanings of the issues, norms, and stages.

Each scorer proceeds by reading the entire respondent's protocol to identify which of the two issues represented in the dilemma the subject uses in responding to the probe questions. The issue choice may alter in some responses. When this occurs, the rater uses the other or second issue for scoring the question where the second issue occurs. Material in the responses that does not make reference to right and good action (moral action) is screened out and not scored.

Each question is scored individually by using the published scoring manual materials. Each dilemma in the Moral Judgment Scale is represented in the scoring manual. The scoring materials for each dilemma contain the issues, norms, stages, and criterion judgment statements. These criterion judgment statements represent an array of possible responses to the dilemma questions.

The rater must first determine the moral content in the subject's response. Then the rater matches the moral content of a response with a criterion judgment statement in the scoring manual. By referring to the criterion judgment materials, the norm for each issue and the corresponding stage is determined for each probe question response. This information is then recorded by the rater.

Each rater considers it essential for a moral judgment response to match the published criterion judgment materials. Moral judgments which are a match for a criterion judgment are scored. In responses where content approximates a match to the criterion judgment, a guess score is given. The stage which fits the criterion judgment most closely is assigned by the rater and indicated as a guess (G) score.

In instances when the material on the issue is fragmentary or non-existent, no score is entered. A guess score is not considered appropriate in this circumstance.

This procedure is repeated for each response to all probe questions. This described procedure is standard scoring for moral dilemmas; it directs the rater to match each moral judgment or moral reason identified in the content of the probe question responses to a criterion judgment in the manual. The resulting score represents a level of moral reasoning. The

score entered corresponds to one of the six stages of moral reasoning for each scorable response.

Applying several detailed mathematical calculations, as specified in The Manual, enables the rater to arrive at the net score for each issue. The net issue score is used to derive the total and final protocol stage score. This final score represents the global score or stage of moral reasoning of the respondent.

In this study, both raters scored each of the 70 protocols using these described procedures. Reliability and results of the scoring will be discussed in a forthcoming section of this study.

Treatment of the Data

The data from the two instruments are analyzed and discussed in the succeeding chapter. The information from the Leadership Data Form is considered as demographic characteristics of the respondents. These are:

1. Number of years in a leadership position;
2. Current enrollment of school where employed;
3. Urban or rural setting of school where working;
4. Sex.

The data for items 1, 2, and 3 above are clustered into related groupings for ease in comparison and discussion of effects on other variables. The clustering occurred to achieve groups of comparatively equal size.

Data derived from the Leadership Activity Task, the Leadership Data Form, and managerial styles were statistically analyzed using the chi-square (X^2), Pearson r , and ANOVA statistical procedures. The X^2 test was chosen to determine if managerial style is significantly related to years of experience, enrollment of school, sex, and urban or rural location.

The data for this statistical analysis met the conditions of nominal scale measurement and discrete groups necessary for the use of χ^2 .

The Pearson r statistical analysis was employed to determine the correlation between the two raters moral reasoning scores obtained on the 70 protocols. These data met the conditions of internal scale measurement necessary for the use of the Pearson r .

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical analysis was employed to determine if the average moral reasoning varied for (1) the four managerial styles, (2) the enrollment sizes of schools, (3) the years of leadership experience, (4) sex, and (5) urban or rural location. These data met the conditions necessary to determine the variance between and within groups for the ANOVA to be used. The Duncan post-hoc procedure was performed on the ANOVA results to determine where the difference between the means existed.

The analysis of all the statistically determined data will appear in Chapter IV.

Summary

This chapter described the procedures employed in this investigation. The description included: the data gathering instruments, population description, collection of the data, scoring of the responses, and treatment of the data.

Materials contained in the Moral Judgment Scale were completed by a purposive sample of educational administrators. The completion of this material by the respondent yields a score designating a moral reasoning stage for each subject.

All subjects had previously been administered the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) from which their managerial style was ascertained.

Data of a demographic nature were obtained on subjects from the Leadership Data Form. These data, along with the moral judgment stage scores and the managerial styles, were statistically analyzed to determine differences, correlations, and variances relative to managerial style.

This investigation is designed to discover what, if any, relationship there is regarding the moral reasoning of school administrators, an area of inquiry in which there is currently a dearth of data.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The collected information on moral reasoning, managerial style, and demographic data were analyzed by statistical treatment performed on a computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975). This chapter will describe and analyze the results of the statistical tests applied to the collected data. These data were collected to ascertain the variance in moral reasoning stages of persons pursuing different managerial styles. The results will be inferred to functionaries and organizational goals along with moral reasoning perspectives.

This chapter will discuss (1) the characteristics of the response, (2) demographic traits of the returns, (3) inter-rater reliability of moral reasoning scores, (4) determination of moral reasoning stages, (5) analyses with managerial style and demographic data, (6) analyses on average moral reasoning scores with managerial style and demographic data, and (7) summary.

Characteristics of the Response

A total of 141 inventory forms were mailed. The mailings for three subjects were returned to the sender because there was no record of that person at the given address. One subject asked to be withdrawn as a participant in the investigation. The sample population was thus decreased to 137.

Seventy-three subjects completed and returned the inventories. Three of the returns for the Leadership Activity Task (the Kohlberg dilemma)

were unscorable. Insufficient responses on these three did not enable the two scorers to select criterion judgment statements necessary for the determination of the moral reasoning stage of the respondent. The number of usable responses totalled 70, which is 51 percent of the sample population of 137 subjects.

Managerial Style

The respondents and nonrespondents were analyzed to determine likenesses and differences among the four managerial styles. A calculation of percentage of total respondents and nonrespondents indicates similarities in these percentages. These data reveal close relationships as the following paragraphs describe.

There were 94 traditionalist/judicial managerial styles. This is 68.6 percent of the total sample. Forty-nine traditionalist/judicial managerial styles responded, which is 70 percent of the total respondents. Forty-five, or 67.2 percent, of the persons holding this style were nonrespondents.

There were nine troubleshooter/negotiator managerial styles, or 6.6 percent in the total sample. Five troubleshooter/negotiator managerial styles responded, which is 7.1 percent of the total respondents. Four, or 6 percent, of the persons holding this style were nonrespondents.

There were 19 catalyst managerial styles, or 13.9 percent of the total sample. Ten catalyst managerial styles responded, or 14.3 percent of the total respondents. Nine persons holding this style, or 13.4 percent, were nonrespondents.

There were 15 visionary managerial styles, 10.9 percent of the total sample. Six visionary managerial styles responded, which is 8.6 percent of the total respondents. Nine persons holding this style, or 13.4 percent, were nonrespondents.

This calculation of percentages of total usable sample and of total respondents reveals a high degree of similarity between the percentages of the respondents and nonrespondents. This closeness in percentage value of the two categories indicates the sample corresponds to the proportion that exists in the total population. Table 1 illustrates the above discussion.

Table 1
Number and Percentage of Respondents and
Nonrespondents by Managerial Styles

Managerial Styles	<u>Respondents</u>		<u>Nonrespondents</u>		<u>Total in Sample</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Traditionalist/ Judicial	49	70.0	45	67.2	94	68.6
Troubleshooter/ Negotiator	5	7.1	4	6.0	9	6.6
Catalyst	10	14.3	9	13.4	19	13.9
Visionary	6	8.6	9	13.4	15	10.9
TOTAL	70	100.0	67	100.0	137	100.0

The advocated minimum rate of return ranges from 40 percent to 80 percent for the data collection to be considered reputable and nonbiased toward the results. The high relationship in percentage values between total sample and number of respondents in each managerial style category is cause to believe that the 51 percent rate of return is favorable to reputable results.

Sex

A similar calculation for sex of respondents and nonrespondents also reveals close percentages. There were 15 females, or 11 percent, in the total sample. Eight females responded, which is 11 percent of the total respondents. Seven females, or 10.4 percent of the females, were nonrespondents.

One hundred twenty-two males, or 89 percent, represent the total sample. Sixty-two, or 89 percent, of the males responded. Sixty males, or 89.6 percent, were nonrespondents. Table 2 illustrates these data.

Table 2
Number and Percentage of Respondents
and Nonrespondents by Sex

Sex	<u>Respondents</u>		<u>Nonrespondents</u>		<u>Total in Sample</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Female	8	11.0	7	10.4	15	11.0
Male	62	89.0	60	89.6	122	89.0
TOTAL	70	100.0	67	100.0	137	100.0

The resulting sample is not balanced with respect to male and female subjects. These data do not support the notion of equal distribution of females and males, which does occur in some investigations. This imbalance can be attributed to the general employment patterns for educational administrative positions. These patterns do not indicate equal distribution of females and males. The position of administrator

combined with a determined managerial style acted as primary and secondary factors, respectively, in the compilation of the sample. Fewer females were eligible for inclusion in the sample because of employment patterns and participation in a Leadership Training Seminar, prerequisite for designation of a managerial style.

Demographic Traits of the Returns

The Leadership Data Form requested demographic information from the respondents. This information included items pertaining to enrollment of school where employed (1977-78 academic year), years of experience in a leadership position, and urban or rural location of the school where employed. These data for each of the categories are discussed separately. In addition, the sex and managerial style distribution of the respondents will be discussed to augment the characteristics of the returns.

Size of Enrollment

The data for size of enrollment were itemized. This revealed the necessity to cluster the school enrollment size for the same purposes served and discussed in number of years in a leadership position.

The 70 respondents reported enrollment sizes ranging from 160 students to 27,337 students. Clustering by enrollment increments of 300 students revealed the most balanced distribution of this data.

Table 3 is a distribution of subjects by enrollment of respective schools. Thirteen subjects, or 18.6 percent of the population, work in schools where the enrollment is from one to 300 students. Thirty-four subjects, or 48.6 percent of the population, work in schools where the enrollment is 301 to 600 students. Fourteen subjects, or 20 percent of the population, are employed in schools with an enrollment of 601 to 900

students. Nine subjects are employed in schools with an enrollment of more than 900 students.

Table 3
Distribution of Subjects by School Enrollment

School Enrollment	<u>Respondents</u>	
	Number	Percentage
1-300 students	13	18.6
301-600 students	34	48.6
601-900 students	14	20.0
More than 900 students	9	12.8
TOTAL	70	100.0

Number of Years in a Leadership Position

The data from this aspect were itemized, and this listing revealed the necessity to finally cluster the years in categories of ten year groups. The 70 respondents ranged in years of service from two years to 32 years. When initially clustered by five years of service, the groups appeared too uneven or irregular in size. The information in Table 4 depicts this condition.

Seymour Sudman claims that clusters need not necessarily be the same size, but he cautions that large variations in clusters are not desirable (Sudman, 1976, p. 70). Since Sudman advocates approximately equal clusters, the data for years of service were grouped into ten-year clusters.

Table 5 reveals this clustering to have less variation in size than the Table 4 groupings of a five-year span of service. Table 5 also reveals an increasing order of years of experience while number and percentage of respondents show a decreasing numerical order.

Table 4
Distribution of Subjects by Five-Year
Clusters of Experience

Years of Experience	Respondents	
	Number	Percentage
1-5	11	15.7
5-10	24	34.3
11-15	16	22.9
15-20	5	7.1
20-25	11	15.7
25-30	2	2.9
30 and over	1	1.4
TOTAL	70	100.0

Table 5
Distribution of Subjects by Ten-Year
Clusters of Experience

Years of Experience	<u>Respondents</u>	
	Number	Percentage
1-10	35	50.0
11-20	21	30.0
21-32	14*	20.0
TOTAL	70	100.0

*includes the one subject with thirty-two years of experience

Location of the School

Of the 70 respondents, 42 reported an urban school location, and 28 reported a rural school location. Forty-two urban subjects represent 60 percent of the respondents; rural response is 40 percent of the population. Table 6 indicates these data frequency and percentage.

Table 6
Distribution of Subjects by Location

Location	<u>Respondents</u>	
	Number	Percentage
Urban	42	60.0
Rural	28	40.0
TOTAL	70	100.0

Sex of Respondents

The characteristic of sex is separate from the data collected by the Leadership Data Form. It is reported at this time as a characteristic of the returns. Eight respondents, or 11.4 percent, were female. Sixty-two respondents, or 88.6 percent, were male. Table 7 illustrates the distribution of sex among the respondents.

Table 7
Distribution of Subjects by Sex

Sex	<u>Respondents</u>	
	Number	Percentage
Female	8	11.4
Male	62	88.6
TOTAL	70	100.0

Managerial Style Distribution

This characteristic is also separate from the data collected by the Leadership Data Form. However, it does add a dimension to the traits of the respondents.

Forty-nine respondents, or 70 percent, were identified as having the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. Five respondents, or 7.1 percent, were identified as holding the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style. Ten respondents, or 14.3 percent, were identified as having the catalyst managerial style. Six respondents, or 8.6 percent, were identified with the visionary managerial style. Table 8 illustrates the distribution of managerial style among the respondents.

Table 8
Distribution of Subjects by
Managerial Style

Managerial Style	<u>Respondents</u>	
	Number	Percentage
Traditionalist/Judicial	49	70.0
Troubleshooter/Negotiator	5	7.1
Catalyst	10	14.3
Visionary	6	8.6
TOTAL	70	100.0

Interrater Reliability of Moral Reasoning Scores

The 70 moral reasoning protocols in the sample were each scored by an experienced rater. To compare the moral reasoning scores of these two raters, the mean and standard deviation was determined for each rater. The moral reasoning scores on protocols ranged from 2.33 to 5.00 for both the number one and the number two rater.

The mean for rater one was 3.4571 with a standard deviation of .4892. The mean for the second rater was 3.4623 with a standard deviation of .5412. Table 9 gives the range and mean of the two raters.

It was decided to average the moral reasoning scores of the two raters for each individual. The scores of the two raters were compared by the Pearson r to determine the index of correlation. The coefficient of relationship was .8467 which is significant at the .001 level. The average moral reasoning score is used as the dependent variable in any further analyses dealing with moral reasoning scores.

Determination of Moral Reasoning Stages

The moral reasoning scores for each rater can be transferred to moral reasoning stages. The following procedures, from the Kohlberg Scoring Manual, provide information for translating numerical moral reasoning scores to moral reasoning stages.

Scores indicated by a whole number such as 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, and 6.0 designate a pure stage. The moral reasoning stage number is the same number as the moral reasoning score numeral. Example: 2.0 is stage 2, 3.0 is stage 3, and 4.0 is stage 4.

Table 9
Distribution and Mean of Moral Reasoning
Scores of Two Raters

<u>Rater One</u>		<u>Rater Two</u>	
Moral Reasoning Score	N	Moral Reasoning Score	N
2.33	1	2.33	1
2.50	1	2.50	2
2.66	1	2.66	1
2.83	3	2.83	5
		2.92	1
3.00	13	3.00	8
3.17	4	3.17	5
3.25	4	3.25	5
3.33	4	3.30	1
3.41	2	3.33	6
3.50	11	3.50	9
3.58	2	3.58	1
3.66	2	3.67	4
3.67	3	3.75	5
3.75	4	3.83	2
3.83	2		
3.90	1		
4.00	6	4.00	4
4.08	1	4.08	2
4.25	1	4.17	3
4.33	2	4.25	1
4.66	1	4.33	1
		4.67	1
5.00	1	5.00	2

$\bar{x} = 3.4571$	$\bar{x} = 3.4623$
$\sigma = .4892$	$\sigma = .5413$

Scores indicated by a decimal number of less than 1.50, 2.50, 3.50, 4.50, or 5.50 are translated to a major stage and a minor stage. The major stage is the same as the numeral to the left of the decimal point. The minor stage is the stage next highest to the major stage. The minor stage is written in parentheses. Example: a moral reasoning score of 2.33 is translated as major stage 2, minor stage 3, and written as 2(3); a moral reasoning score of 3.45 is major stage 3, minor stage 4, and written as 3(4).

Scores indicated by a decimal number more than 1.50, 2.50, 3.50, 4.50, or 5.50 are transferred to a major and minor stage. The major stage is determined by the numeral to the left of the decimal point; it is transposed and written as the next highest stage. The minor stage is the stage next lowest to the major stage. The minor stage is written in parentheses. Example: a moral reasoning score of 2.83 is translated to major stage 3, minor stage 2, and written as 3(2); a moral reasoning score of 3.58 is translated to major stage 4, minor stage 3, and written as 4(3).

Protocols with scores exactly divided between two stages by a score of 1.50, 2.50, 3.50, 4.50, or 5.50 are designated as transitional between two stages. These scores are translated into stages using two numerals. The first numeral will be the stage given in the numerical score. The second numeral will be the stage next highest to the first stage designated. A hyphen separates the two stage numerals. Example: 3.50 moral reasoning score is written as a 3-4 stage score; a 4.50 moral reasoning score is written as a 4-5 stage score.

All moral reasoning scores indicated on Table 9 and moral reasoning scores which will appear later in this chapter may be translated to a moral reasoning stage using the above procedures.

Analyses with Managerial Styles and Demographic Data

Data were collected pertaining to sex, enrollment of the school where employed, years of leadership experience and urban or rural location of the school where employed. These data, except for sex, were clustered to create approximately balanced groups. These same clusters were used in the statistical analyses with the four managerial styles. The .05 level of probability was used in all the analyses.

Chi square analyses were conducted to compare the four demographic variables with the four managerial styles. No significant relationship was found between the managerial styles and years of experience in a leadership position as indicated by a chi square of 6.21678 ($p = .3994$). No significant relationship was found between managerial styles and enrollment of school where employed as indicated by a chi square of 4.98260 ($p = .08358$).

A significant relationship between managerial styles and sex was indicated by a chi square of 10.23522 ($p = .0167$). The relationship is most significant in the catalyst and visionary managerial styles. In these two styles the percentage of females is greater than the percentage of males holding the same managerial style. In the traditionalist/judicial and troubleshooter/negotiator managerial styles the male percentage was greater than the female percentage. It should be noted that the relationship found between these differences could have been affected by the few females (8) compared to the males (62) in the sample. Females in the sample were limited because of reasons previously discussed. Table 10 shows the relationship between managerial styles and sex of the respondents.

Table 10
Relationship Between Managerial Style and Sex

Managerial Styles	<u>Females</u>		<u>Males</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Traditionalist/ Judicial	3	37.5	46	74.2
Troubleshooter/ Negotiator	0	0	5	8.1
Catalyst	4	50.0	6	9.7
Visionary	1	12.5	5	8.1

$\chi^2 = 10.23522$ d.f. = 3 sig. = .0167

A significant relationship between managerial style and location was indicated by a chi square of 10.22959 ($p = .0167$). The relationship is most significant in the traditionalist/judicial managerial style with 59.5 percent urban and 85.7 rural. The troubleshooter/negotiator style had the rural location with the greatest percentage (10.7 percent). The catalyst was represented predominantly with 21.4 percent urban location. All visionary managerial styles were urban (14.3 percent). Table 11 depicts these results.

It can be concluded from these analyses that sex and location have a more significant relationship to managerial style than years of experience and enrollment. Years in a leadership position and enrollment do not statistically affect the managerial style of the subjects in the study.

Table 11
Relationship Between Managerial Styles
and Location

Managerial Styles	<u>Urban</u>		<u>Rural</u>	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Traditionalist/ Judicial	25	59.5	24	85.7
Troubleshooter/ Negotiator	2	4.8	3	10.7
Catalyst	9	21.4	1	3.6
Visionary	6	14.3	0	0

$\chi^2 = 10.22959$ d.f. = 3 sig. = .0167

Analyses on Average Moral Reasoning Scores with
Managerial Styles and Demographic Data

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test the differences between years of experience, enrollment of school where employed, sex, urban or rural location, and managerial styles on average moral reasoning scores. The Duncan post hoc procedure was performed on these results, except for sex, to determine where the difference in the means exists. This procedure was not necessary for the inquiry with females and males because only two means are derived from this analysis. The .05 level of probability was used in all these tests.

The results of a one way ANOVA show no difference between years in a leadership position and average moral reasoning scores as indicated by an F value of .252 ($p = .7776$). Even though no statistical difference was found, those with the longest leadership experience cluster (21-32 years) showed a greater mean (3.5350) on average moral reasoning scores than did those in the one to ten (mean of 3.4580) or eleven to twenty (mean 3.4124) years of leadership experience clusters.

Using the same analytical procedures, no differences were found on average moral reasoning scores for enrollment of school where employed. This result was indicated by an F value of 2.678 ($p = .0541$). Even though no statistical differences were found, those employed in schools with enrollments between 601 and 900 students had the lowest average moral reasoning score mean (3.1775). Those employed in schools of 900 or more students had the highest average moral reasoning score mean (3.6989). Those employed in schools of one to 300 student enrollments had an average moral reasoning score mean of 3.5858. School enrollments of 301 to 600 students showed an average moral reasoning score mean of 3.4646.

The same analysis indicated no difference between sex on moral reasoning scores as indicated by an F value of .147 ($p = .7025$). The mean female moral reasoning score is 3.3962. The mean male moral reasoning score is 3.4679.

No differences were found on average moral reasoning scores for location of respondents. These results were indicated with an F value of 3.475 ($p = .0666$). Even though no differences were found, urban respondents had the highest average moral reasoning mean with 3.5482. Rural respondents had an average moral reasoning mean of 3.3270.

A difference on average moral reasoning scores for managerial style was found using the ANOVA as indicated by an F value of 4.843 ($p = .0042$). The troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style had the highest average moral reasoning score of 4.1830. The lowest average moral reasoning score of 3.3769 belonged to the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. The visionary managerial style was second in rank with an average moral reasoning score of 3.5833 while the catalyst had an average moral reasoning score of 3.4295. The following tables, 12 and 13, depict the ANOVA for average moral reasoning scores and managerial styles.

Table 12
Analysis of Variance on Average
Moral Reasoning

	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Probab
Between Groups (Managerial Style)	3.	3.0524	1.0175	4.843	.0042
Within Groups (Managerial Style)	66.	13.8652	0.2101		
TOTAL	69.	16.9176			

Table 13
Means for ANOVA on Moral Reasoning

Managerial Styles	Number	Mean	St. Dev.
Traditionalist/Judicial	49	3.3769	0.4556
Troubleshooter/Negotiator	5	4.1830	0.6229
Catalyst	10	3.4295	0.4524
Visionary	6	3.5833	0.3070
TOTAL	70	3.4597	0.4952

The Duncan post hoc procedure was performed on these results to determine exactly where the differences between the means existed. It was found that the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style was statistically and significantly different from the traditionalist/judicial, visionary, and catalyst managerial styles means. Table 14 indicates these differences.

Moral reasoning numerical scores may be translated into moral reasoning stages by following the procedures stated earlier in this chapter. This procedure was performed with a rank ordering of the significant managerial style average moral reasoning scores. In this ranking, the highest average moral reasoning score also possessed the highest moral reasoning stage. Conversely, the managerial style with the lowest average moral reasoning score also had the lowest moral reasoning stage. Table 15 depicts this ranking and related moral reasoning stages.

Table 14
Post Hoc Analysis on Average Moral Reasoning
and Managerial Styles

Managerial Style	Mean	
Traditionalist/Judicial	3.3769	} Set I
Catalyst	3.4295	
Visionary	3.5833	
Troubleshooter/Negotiator	4.1830	Set II
Range - .3241 p .05		

Table 15
Rank Order of Moral Reasoning Stages
of Managerial Styles

Managerial Style	Average Moral Reasoning Score	Moral Reasoning Stage*
Troubleshooter/Negotiator	4.1830	4(5)
Visionary	3.5833	4(3)
Catalyst	3.4295	3(4)
Traditionalist/Judicial	3.3769	3(4)

*Number in parenthesis indicates minor stage of moral reasoning.

A rank ordering of the nonsignificant variables of years of leadership experience, enrollment of school where employed, sex, and location reveals no marked patterns between these variables and moral reasoning stages. The moral reasoning stages are determined by Kohlbergian procedures described earlier.

The preponderance of the moral reasoning stages are major stage 3, minor stage 4. It is to be noted that major moral reasoning stage 4, minor stage 3 scores are derived from average moral reasoning scores very close to the score separation point of 3.50 for higher and lower stage scores. This separation point of 3.50 has been arrived at after study and calculation by Kohlberg and associates.

The lack of a larger numerical discrepancy between the average moral reasoning scores in this study and 3.50 cut-off point may be reason to believe there is more likeness among the average moral reasoning scores than these data may indicate. For example, scores with a higher major moral reasoning stage have an average moral reasoning score of numerical value close to the 3.50 separation figure. Are one or two decimal points significant enough to create a marked change in average moral reasoning stage? Future investigation may respond to this question.

For the purposes of this study, the statistical analyses do indicate that higher stage moral reasoning occurs in nonsignificant variables of 21-32 years of leadership experience, school enrollments of 900 or more, and 1-300 students.

When the average moral reasoning scores are rounded off, an alteration of several moral reasoning scores occurs. Only three clusters are

affected by this rounding off procedure. One to 10 years of leadership experience, enrollment of 301-600 students, and males possess an altered moral reasoning stage because of rounding-off which leads to a stage change. All altered stage scores changed from major 3, minor 4 to transitional 3-4. This 3-4 stage score indicates a transition from stage 3 to stage 4 is underway. Table 16 illustrates this discussion of moral reasoning stage scores of nonsignificant variables.

Summary

The hypothesis tested by this study indicated a variance would be found between moral reasoning stages of persons possessing different managerial styles. This hypothesis has been upheld through statistical analyses performed on the collected data. The discussion and tables in this chapter have illustrated this finding.

No patterns between demographic variables of years in a leadership position, enrollment of school, location of school, and sex of the educator on average moral reasoning scores were found. Average moral reasoning scores and stages tended to increase for the 21-32 year experience in a leadership position cluster. Highest and lowest school enrollment clusters had the higher average moral reasoning scores and stages.

The demographic variable of sex had a significant relationship with managerial style. Female percentages in the visionary managerial style outweighed the male percentages. This outcome may be biased due to the lack of females available to be included in the study. No other demographic variables were statistically significant with the managerial styles.

Implication and conclusions from this statistical analysis will be found in Chapter V.

Table 16
Rank Order of Nonsignificant Variables
and Moral Reasoning Stages

Variable	Average Moral Reasoning Score, not rounded	Moral Reasoning Stage	Average Moral Reasoning Score, rounded off	Adjusted Moral Reasoning Stage
<u>Years of Leadership Experience</u>				
21-32	3.5350	4(3)	same	same, 4(3)
1-10	3.4580	3(4)	3.50	3-4
11-20	3.4124	3(4)	same	same, 3(4)
<u>Enrollment of School</u>				
900 or more	3.6989	4(3)	3.7	same, 4(3)
1-300	3.5854	4(3)	3.6	same, 4(3)
301-600	3.4646	3(4)	3.50	3-4
601-900	3.1775	3(4)	3.2	same, 3(4)
<u>Sex</u>				
Female	3.3962	3(4)	3.4	same, 3(4)
Male	3.4679	3(4)	3.50	3-4
<u>Location</u>				
Urban	3.5482	4(3)	same	same
Rural	3.3270	3(2)	same	same

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, SUMMARY, AND IMPLICATIONS

As previously stated, the purposes of this dissertation are to gather data regarding the possible relationship between managerial styles and moral reasoning stages of educational functionaries, to relate the goals of functionaries and educational organizations from the moral reasoning data, and to examine the effects of demographic data on moral reasoning scores and managerial styles.

Data from the study were presented in chapter four. In this chapter the findings are discussed as they relate to the purposes of the dissertation. The first aspect presented relates moral reasoning with managerial styles. This is followed with a Kohlbergian application to functionaries and organizations. The dominant managerial style, unexpected results, further research, and conclusions are presented in this chapter.

Moral Reasoning and Managerial Style

It is statistically evident from this study that location, years of experience, school enrollment, and sex of the respondents show no differences on average moral reasoning stages. The differences on average moral reasoning stages occurred with the managerial styles. The major difference was statistically determined between the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style and the other three managerial styles.

These data reveal that the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style had the highest moral reasoning score (4.1830) and stage, 4(5).

The traditionalist/judicial managerial style had the lowest moral reasoning score (3.3769) and stage, 3(4). Table 17 presents the managerial styles in rank order, by moral reasoning stage. The table shows there is a descending rank order of managerial styles. The percentage of respondents holding the style is also included, showing an ascending order of response.

Table 17
Rank Order of Managerial Style by Moral Reasoning
Stage, Including Percentage of Respondents

Managerial Style	Moral Reasoning Stage	Percentage of Respondents
Troubleshooter/Negotiator	4(5)	7.1
Visionary	4(3)	8.6
Catalyst	3(4)	14.3
Traditionalist/Judicial	3(4)	70.0

The majority of the school administrators hold the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. When measured by the Moral Dilemma Test, this group of administrators hold stage three moral reasoning moving toward stage four. The mean is closer to stage three (3.3769).

There is an inverse relationship between managerial style and moral reasoning score. The largest percentage of a managerial style have the lowest moral reasoning scores. The smallest percentage of a managerial

style has the highest moral reasoning scores. The hypothesis of the study stated that persons possessing different managerial styles would exhibit variance in their moral reasoning stages. This hypothesis has been confirmed.

While the statistical analysis on this hypothesis determines a difference on moral reasoning score means for the four managerial styles, additional interpretations are necessary.

A Kohlbergian Application to Functionaries and Organizations

Even though the statistically significant evidence indicates a major difference between the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial style and the other three styles, all four managerial styles fall into the conventional level. By Kohlbergian definition, this level is concerned with the maintenance of the expectations of the person's family, group, or nation regardless of the consequences. Conformity, loyalty, and identification with the social order occurs along with maintenance, support, and justification through persons or groups in the social order (Kohlberg, 1971, p. 89).

The conventional level is comprised of stage 3 and stage 4. Stage 3 is concerned with behavior that pleases, helps, and is approved by others. This stage includes conformity to stereotypic images through the behaviors of meaning well and being nice. Stage 4 is concerned with a law and order orientation toward authority, fixed rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior includes doing one's duty, respecting authority, and maintaining the social order (Kohlberg, p. 89).

Two of the managerial styles have an average moral reasoning stage of 4, and two of the styles have an average moral reasoning stage of 3. Those in stage 3 possess minor stage 4. This means that these two styles, the traditionalist/judicial and the catalyst, are at a place where stage 4 reasoning is reflected in some thinking on issues, but stage 3 reasoning is dominant. The visionary managerial style reflects a dominant use of stage 4 moral reasoning with stage 3 thinking occurring in some issues. The troubleshooter/negotiator uses stage 4 reasoning predominantly with stage 5 moral thinking occurring with some issues.

The possibility that these four managerial styles would claim the minor stage predominantly is rare. Kohlberg and Kramer (1969) found no evidence in their research of increase in moral stage reasoning after age 35 (p. 94). Papalia and Bielby (1974) found the average moral reasoning of adults to be high stage 3 (p. 435). A group of researchers guided by Rest (1974) concluded that nonstudent adults do not correlate highly with the principled stages of moral reasoning (stages 5 and 6) (p. 498). Decline in stage of moral reasoning was found by Papalia and Bielby to occur with older adults. Older adults (beyond age 49) apply environmental experience less effectively to moral judgments (p. 435).

The evidence appears to support the original research of Kohlberg that moral reasoning stage is stable by age 25. Therefore, for the adults in this study, it will be assumed that the major and minor moral reasoning stages are stable and fixed.

Kohlberg and Kramer (1969, pp. 107-108) claim that adult alterations in moral judgment are toward greater consistency between moral judgment action. This is a stabilization effort due to socialization,

or internalization, of the conventional level (stages 3 and 4). These researchers assert that adult moral stabilization is a matter of increased congruence between belief and social role. Therefore, adult stabilization is more akin to social learning than development. This stabilization of adult moral reasoning has been identified as consistency between thought and action (Kohlberg and Kramer, p. 118).

The conventional level of moral reasoning is summarized as one of maintenance of the existing conditions by meeting the expectations of organizations within the society. Harmonious, nonskeptical relations with traditional institutions, such as church, school, and politics, insulate from conflict with existing authorities and institutions. The traditions of society are accepted creating relative harmony, confidence and inactivity (Haan, Smith, and Block, 1968, p. 194).

The concept of manager which has prevailed in this study has been associated with a performance of functions used as a means to achieve ends. The resulting activity is rational, technical, and directed toward productivity and efficiency. The manager's primary concern is with profit and solvency. The profit motive is achieved with the utilization of technical, mechanical, and automated material. This circumstance has come to be the accepted condition for the maintenance of society.

The conventional level of moral reasoning is concerned with maintenance of the existing conditions of institutions. The manager is concerned with maintaining the technical, automated, economic base of the societal institutions. The social perspective, advanced by Kohlberg, is an advantageous device to bridge the managerial style (the person) and the moral reasoning level (the thought and action of the person).

The social perspective refers to the point-of-view "the individual takes in defining social facts and socio-moral rights" (Kohlberg, 1976, p. 33). The conventional level social perspective is concerned with living up to what others expect of your role and with fulfilling duties that are agreed upon by the society, the group, or the institution. The member of society perspective unifies the shared viewpoints of the participants in a relationship or group.

Since the manager functions in a maintenance role (for the continuation of solvent, efficient, productive ends), and since the conventional level of the social perspective and moral level also function in maintenance capacities for the present institutions and groups, it appears that their affinity is based upon their maintenance functions. Both the person (the manager) and the underlying judgments and actions (the moral reasoning level and the socio-moral perspective) offer congruent aspects which support the maintenance functions inherent in the concepts.

All managerial styles were previously described as being pattern-maintaining. That means they are members of the part of the social system which contribute to the maintenance of the social value pattern (Hills, 1975, p. 250). With managerial styles belonging to pattern-maintaining aspects of society and with the managers in the study holding a conventional level of moral reasoning, which has a strong maintenance function, the argument for schools as pattern-maintenance institutions is advanced.

All of the managers in the study are educational administrators. By definition in this study, administration refers to policy, goals, and

objectives directed toward the development and improved maintenance of human relationships. An examination of the post-conventional level of moral reasoning reveals its emphasis upon commitments to a good or just society. At this level, persons define rules and expectations by self-chosen principles of justice. It is a prior-to-society social perspective with the realization that persons are ends and are to be considered as such. This level postulates the principles to which society ought to be committed (Kohlberg, cited in Lickona, 1976, pp. 34-36).

There is an inferred relationship between the postconventional level, the concomitant social perspective, and administrators. In definitions offered here, the congruence between the postconventional level and the school administrator seems apparent.

The Dominant Managerial Style

Scrutiny of these data reveal a heavy preponderance (70 percent) of the traditionalist/judicial managerial style among all respondents. The same managerial style is represented in 59.5 percent of the urban respondents and 85.7 percent of the rural respondents.

One feasible explanation for this dominant managerial style lies with the value ordering processes used by persons associated with schools. The technical value system, as described by Huebner, focuses on a means-ends approach, similar to an economic model. Ends are clearly specified with the means rationally and economically designed to achieve them. The technical valuing associated with economic rationality combine to meet production and efficiency (p. 19).

As summarized earlier, the traditionalist/judicial manager establishes routines, is an applied thinker, deals with the facts, is outstanding at precision work, e.g., at planning and follow-through, prefers to have decisions made promptly, is thorough, honors organizational policy, and conserves the value of the organization.

There appears to be an affinity between the technical value system and the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. The complementary aspects of this value system and managerial style occur through the managerial style traits of routinization, preference for precision work, preserving the organization, and applied thinking.

The economic model approach of the technical value system works to achieve goals productively and rationally. This value system complements the traditionalist/judicial managerial style by containing values which enable the traditionalist/judicial manager to function in this style. Because the technical value system works to regulate persons, materials, and organizations for economic productivity, and since the traditionalist/judicial manager manages routines for preserving the organization, the traditionalist/judicial managerial style is closely affiliated with the technical value system.

The technical value system upholds the social system imperative of pattern-maintenance. Pattern-maintenance is characterized by effectiveness of socialization to maintain the social value pattern. With a society based upon an economy of efficiency for means of productivity towards ends of profit, the technical value system and the traditionalist/judicial managerial style contribute to the maintenance of the social pattern.

School administrators are conditioned by a society based upon economic realities of efficiency, profit, and loss. Schools are expected to produce individuals whose contribution to society can be utilized. Society is technological, automated, and in many ways expects the schools' products to contribute to the mechanized society. Prior social conditioning, present social demands, and the technical value system all contribute heavily to this traditionalist/judicial managerial style predominance in both rural and urban settings.

The dominance of mass society by the incorporation of large networks associated with mechanization and technology has reached into both rural and urban areas. This predominant mode affects attitudes and values to the extent that maintenance of the system occurs readily with the technical value system and the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. Because mechanized and technical networks are a dominant societal pattern, schools respond in a manner which continues and extends the societal patterns. The effectiveness of the schools is judged by these patterns. Therefore, those in positions of school administration respond to societal demands and prior conditioning in a manner which upholds current patterns and trends.

R. Jean Hills (1975) claims that schools have a dual obligation. One is to respond to the environmental demands of society with effectiveness and technological rationality (p. 253). In addition to these societal demands, the value system of the school is developmental rationality achieved by the growth of knowledge, character, and skill levels in constituents (p. 251). The latter obligation is frequently accomplished at the expense of effectiveness and technological rationality.

The incongruence of these aspects is noted by Belisle and Sargent in regard to educational administration. They view administration as needing to be concerned with social values beyond organizational purposes. This concern for social values occurs with carrying out the purposes of the organization.

A major purpose of schools, as stated earlier, is the development of knowledge, skills, and character. These purposes are hopefully met with a preponderance of the traditionalist/judicial managerial style represented by the technical value system. The continuous, improved development of these school purposes is included in the value system of the school (Hills, 1975, p. 251). Is there a managerial style which speaks to these purposes and value system of the school?

The visionary manager is characterized as being an architect of progress and ideas with a focus on principles and thinking and possibilities; is creative in developing new ideas; admires logic, intelligence, and reason; conceptualizes outcomes; and is an ingenious pioneer. Given the visionary manager's ability to conceptualize ideas and progress, this managerial style could feasibly help to actualize the purposes and value system of the schools.

Applying Huebner's educational value systems, the ethical system would be an aid to the visionary managerial style. This value system is concerned with man and standards of relationships between men. These are human values; the school is a human organization (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973, p. 21). A person having the visionary managerial style with the ethical value orientation would be a valuable asset to the

schools. This person would conceptualize improved means to meet the knowledge, character, and skill development, an important aspect of the schools' purpose and value system. The combined managerial style and value system offer possibilities that could lead to progress in the pattern-maintenance function of (1) the school's effectiveness, and (2) values of developmental rationality.

In this study, there were few visionaries (8.6 percent of the respondents, 14.3 percent of the urban respondents, 0 percent of the rural respondents, and 12.5 percent of the female respondents). One possible explanation may pertain to the societal conditioning of all persons. The general social milieu focuses upon technical, efficient, and economic rationality. Deviants are not readily tolerated, accepted or desired. Often they are isolated. Conformity toward technical, mechanical product output, which in turn is useful to the economy, is the rule.

Since schools are closely allied with the pattern-maintenance function of society, the visionary managerial style is probably the exception. This managerial style seeks new ideas and solutions to problems. The managerial style deviates from the societal norms in pattern-maintenance. Tolerance for the visionary is low since pattern-maintenance needs conformity for acceptance by its product and constituents.

The pattern-maintenance function of the schools appears to severely limit the managerial style beyond the traditionalist/judicial. Therefore, the majority of educational administrators possess characteristics which maintain the schools rather than provide the possibilities which the visionary can conceptualize.

The visionary with ethical value dimensions meets the Belisle and Sargent (1957) definition of administrators; i.e., the person who develops and affects social values beyond current purposes (p. 117). Not widely available and a renegade to the pattern-maintenance perspective of the schools, his kind is scarce.

The traditionalist/judicial managerial style meets the standards of management; i.e., concern for technical, mechanical, and automation. The technical value system augments this style's function.

The catalyst is the second most evident managerial style of total respondents (14.3 percent) and of urban location (21.4 percent). As noted earlier, the catalyst managerial style has a people orientation. Functionaries with this style relate well to people, build on people, and are helpful to people. The ethical value system appears to fit with this managerial style as the human concerns of this value system would be most amenable to the catalyst managerial style. Because the persons holding this style emerge from the cultural milieu, the rational, technical value orientation would probably remain dominant. In consequence, the catalyst managerial style is sparsely represented. It would appear that a greater representation of this managerial style (holding the ethical value system) would assist the schools to meet their value patterns and societal needs simultaneously.

The least represented managerial style is the troubleshooter/negotiator (7.1 percent). This style is analytical, used by a person who seeks to find solutions and aids in adapting solutions to situations. Because the troubleshooter/negotiators are concerned with concrete issues, their relationship to the means-ends effectiveness of the technical value system is apparent.

The troubleshooter may be rarely represented because the nature of schools is not to seek global, creative solutions but to proceed in a rather conventional manner. If a value system might be aligned with this managerial style, the technical value system would probably be evident. Because the troubleshooter is working on solutions common to the organization, this style would probably function with the technical value system which is most apparent in the educational organizations and society.

Each of the managerial styles has a complementary style for associates or colleagues. By MBTI research, personality types are the preferred mode. This does not preclude the desirability of other type profiles being present with a managerial style. It is desirable for a secondary type to be present. When this occurs, the overall type profile of the individual is strengthened.

The dominant managerial style is not necessarily present without characteristics of a secondary style. Therefore, it is suggested that additional research be conducted to determine the presence of other managerial style characteristics in persons. Such data would add another dimension to the congruence of managerial style and educational purposes.

Additional research to compare the managerial style of more educational administrators and to ascertain other factors related to the managerial style would augment this beginning.

Unexpected Results: Managerial Style and Demographic Data

Enrollment in the school where the functionaries were employed and the number of years in a leadership position had no relationship with

managerial style. It was interesting to note in the data analyses that sex and location did significantly relate to managerial style. These relationships will be discussed separately.

Managerial Style and Sex

The relationship between managerial style and sex is most significant with the catalyst managerial style. Females are represented by 50 percent in this style. Males are represented with a percentage of 9.7. There is also a significant relationship between the traditionalist/judicial managerial style and sex, as males are represented by 72.2 percent, while females represent 37.2 percent in this style. Thus, there is a trend toward a female propensity for the catalyst managerial style and a male propensity for the traditionalist/judicial managerial style.

How can these data be related to similar research endeavors? The most recent and extensive study pertaining to the sex factor was developed by Gross and Trask. One hundred eighty-nine elementary principals were studied by these researchers. Their work was confined to elementary principals because of the low percentage (6.5 percent in 1971) of women administrators in secondary schools. Gross and Trask conclude that sex "does make a difference in the operation and management of schools" (Gross and Trask, 1976, p. 227). A summary of their research indicates that female administrators manifest:

1. Concern for individual differences among pupils (race, SES, religion, ethnicity, aptitudes, and abilities).
2. Concern for social-emotional development of pupils (attitudes toward responsibility and community membership).

3. Efforts to assist deviant pupils (caused by family environment, peer group, psychological impairment, and psychological problems):
4. Emphasis on technical skill of teaching (interest of students, knowledge of subject matter, comprehensiveness of planning.).
5. Organizational responsibility (cooperativeness, promptness, appearance, professional relationships, discipline).
6. More assistance to new teachers.

(Gross and Trask, pp. 83-102)

Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederickson found the following traits of female administrators:

7. Pupil participation in the school.
8. Maintaining organizational relationships with subordinates, superordinates, and outsiders.
9. Emphasis upon teaching objectives and assessment.

(Hemphill, et al., 1962, pp. 332-334)

In order to attempt to relate the catalyst managerial style to these female administrator characteristics, the predominant traits of the catalyst are summarized as being:

- a. Commitment to the people they lead.
- b. Seeing the possibilities in the organization.
- c. Preferring democratic organization.
- d. Focusing on people's strengths.
- e. Excelling in working with people.

- f. Awareness of institutional climate.
- g. Being sympathetic, empathetic.
- h. Relating well with colleagues.
- i. Maintaining contact with staff.
- j. Assisting colleagues (often causing too much dependency).
- k. Working well with all types of people.
- l. Needing free reign to manage.
- m. Contributing enthusiasm and esprit-de-corps to the organization.
- n. Having active involvement with people.

Most of the female administrator characteristics noted can be related to the catalyst managerial style attributes. It is asserted that these traits are managerial style characteristics which a catalytic administrator would exhibit which in turn foster the female educational administrator characteristics isolated by the research of Gross, Trask, and Hemphill.

The female administrator's emphasis on teaching techniques and organizational responsibilities is the one major trait which must be judged as part of a different managerial style. The managerial style most clearly related to the components of teaching technique and organizational responsibility is the traditionalist/judicial. This managerial style is characterized by:

1. Establishing effective managerial routines.
2. Being excellent decision-makers by weighing consequences and determining effect.

3. Being realistic, patient, dependable.
4. Outstanding at precision work.
5. Following through on commitments.
6. Thinking; organizing with facts.
7. Managing detail.
8. Steady, industrious.
9. Efficient, thorough.
10. Relating formally and impersonally.
11. Tending to blame, denigrate in relationships.
12. Preferring stable, sensible, realistic people.
13. Clear cut in relationships but not accurately perceiving interpersonal relationships.
14. Taking strengths for granted, tending to comment upon weaknesses.
15. Supplying an effective, smooth running system.

These skills are related to the traditionalist/judicial managerial style characteristics of effective managerial routines, patience, dependability, management of detail, efficiency, well planned and applied thinking. Without teaching being influenced by these traits, it may not be as effective.

The female administrator attributes greater importance to the technical skills of teaching. Longer teaching experience contributes more knowledge about instructional competencies which influence student learning (Gross and Trask, 1976, p. 99). Technical teaching skills are

related most directly to traditionalist/judicial practices of management of detail and routine, efficiency, applied thinking and dependability. Because of this technical and organizational concern, female administrators have a complementary relationship with the traditionalist/judicial and catalyst managerial styles; i.e., the catalyst focus is on involvement with people while the traditionalist supplies effective procedures to accomplish the job.

It is feasible to describe the male principal with the traditionalist/judicial managerial style using the Gross, Trask, and Hemphill, et al. research. A summary of their research findings for male administrators includes:

1. Greater satisfaction from the management of routine in their work.
2. High level of aspiration for career and advancement.
3. Less satisfaction from supervising instruction (Gross and Trask, pp. 122; 214; 113).
4. Complying with others' suggestions.
5. Making final decisions and taking action independently.
(Hemphill, et al., 1962, pp. 332-334).

The satisfaction that male principals derive from the management of routine administrative affairs--i.e., supervising the office and custodians, preparing reports, bulletins, announcements and budgets, handling routine matters--is related to the traditionalist/judicial traits of establishing effective managerial routines, management of

details, and being outstanding at precision work. The combination of these traits helps to produce an effective, smooth-running system.

The lack of satisfaction derived from supervision of instruction is posited by Gross and Trask (1976) as due to more limited teaching experiences, with resulting knowledge and skill to offer to the instructional program (p. 117). Given the traditionalist/judicial traits, none of them appear to relate or support this professional job task. Because supervision of instruction requires involvement with people coupled with curriculum knowledge, it is clearly apparent that this managerial style does not engender such activity.

The ability to comply with others' suggestions are male principal traits manifest through evaluation of subordinates' work, explanations of actions to subordinates, and coordination of subordinates and associates. The traditionalist/judicial style which includes realism, applied thinking, efficient routines, and supplying an effective system contributes to these male principal characteristics. This managerial style supports and abets these job traits. Other managerial style traits would not strengthen these job aspects of the male principal as readily.

Making decisions is another male principal characteristic. This is upheld by the excellent decision-making ability of the traditionalist/judicial managerial style. Because this style weighs the consequences and determines the effect as an important part of decision making, the ability of the male principal to decide is upheld by the traditionalist/judicial managerial style.

The high level for professional advancement is not a characteristic noted with any managerial style. Gross and Trask found it to be a male principal trait in their extensive research endeavor. Further evidence of this advancement trait being attributable to a managerial style is needed using the MBTI and other variables.

The major finding of a relationship between managerial style and sex has been described using related sex role research data. In no way is this discussion meant to imply that the traditionalist/judicial style is exclusive to male principals. The data in the study clearly show that the traditionalist/judicial style is also held by female administrators (37.5 percent). Bedeian and Armenakis (1975, pp. 7-9) found significant similarities in their research between male and female managers regarding organizational influences. The influences tested approximate the traditionalist/judicial managerial style traits noted earlier. Further research is needed with sex roles and with the traditionalist/judicial managerial style to determine what variance occurs between the male and female administrators. Because research efforts with both the managerial styles and sex role traits of administrators are just beginning, the discussion presented here can be considered but a small effort to stimulate further work.

Managerial Style and Location

Location is determined by the urban or rural site of the school where the respondent is employed. The rural and urban location is most predominant in the traditionalist/judicial managerial style with 85.7 percent

rural and 59.5 percent urban. The urban location is 21.4 percent for the catalyst, 14.3 percent for the visionary, and 4.8 percent for the troubleshooter/negotiator. Rural location is represented by 10.7 percent of the troubleshooters and 3.6 percent of the catalyst managerial styles.

All respondents reside in the state of North Carolina. There are three primary urban centers in the state. The respondents represent all geographical areas of the state, and it is apparent that more rurally located administrators responded in the study. Therefore, the rural location is predominant in the traditionalist/judicial and the troubleshooter/negotiator managerial styles. Urban location is predominant for the catalyst managerial style.

Research studies pertaining to urban and rural location have been conducted to ascertain variables present in urban and rural settings. Population shifts, decline of small rural trading centers, family patterns, migration out of the rural regions, values, attitudes, and beliefs have been studied in depth.

Sociological research conducted by Larson and Rogers (1964, p. 59), Ford and Sutton (1964, pp. 209-211), and Bealer, Willits and Kurelsky, (p. 256), regarding rural characteristics all concluded that rural society is in a transitory state. These researchers see the rural communities becoming melded with urban settings and assuming urban characteristics; i.e., a decline in the local kinship groups is slowly replaced by special interest groups, formal organizations, business firms, and other agencies. The many changes apparent in rural locations have been attributed to the advent of mass communications (Chitambar, 1973, p. 135).

With these documented similarities between rural and urban characteristics, what differences can be attributed to these same locations? Berelson and Steiner (1964) identify behavioral differences between urban and rural residents to be associated with:

1. More political and religious tolerance in cities than rural areas;
2. Less religious observance and attendance in cities than in rural areas;
3. Higher level of education in cities than rural areas;
4. Close personal relationships in both areas attributed to mass communication and transportation (pp. 606-607).

A more extensive contrast between urban and rural characteristics is developed by Sorokin and Zimmerman (1970). These include the following:

1. Rural occupation is agriculturally related while urban occupation is oriented towards manufacturing, trade, commerce, and professions.
2. Social mobility and occupational mobility are less intensive than in urban areas where mobility is correlated with urbanity.
3. The interaction system for rural areas is narrower between members; durable and sincere personal contacts are the rule. Urban interaction is impersonal, more complex, superficial, and standardized.
4. Rural population is more homogenous; urban population is heterogeneous (pp. 75-77).

Glenn and Alston (1974, p. 400) identify stereotypic features of rural differences as associated with traditional religious beliefs, puritanical, ethnocentric, isolationist, uninformed, distrustful of people, opposed to civil liberties, and intolerant of deviance. Fischer (1975, p. 420) associates less traditional values--lack of church attendance, attitudes toward alcohol and the innovative urban subculture--with urban life characteristics. Willits, Bealer, and Crider (1973) conclude that "a general change toward greater permissiveness occurred in all residence categories (but) the change was generally greatest for the town grouping and least for the farm grouping" (p. 43).

These urban and rural similarities and differences can be related to other sociological concepts which aid in differentiating the urban and rural aspects in this study. Cummings, Briggs and Mercy (1977) investigated a textbook censorship episode in a rural community. Their analysis of the heated controversy utilized the local-cosmopolitan concepts (pp. 16-19). Originally defined by Merton (1968), the cosmopolitan is a mobile person, considered a newcomer to the community, not rooted in the town. Cosmopolitans limit their range of personal relations in a community to persons whom they judge to have similar interests and qualities. Organization membership is limited to those where the cosmopolitan's special skills and knowledge are exercised. Their influence stems from their skills and knowledge. Typically the educational level and occupation of the cosmopolitan is professional in nature. Materials read are both local, national, and international in scope contributing to the knowledge and information level of the cosmopolitan from the outside world (pp. 447-463).

Sergiovanni and Carver (1973) identify educators who are cosmopolitan as low in loyalty to the school, high in commitment to professional skills, and identified with external reference groups. Locals retain a high loyalty to the school, low commitment to professional skills, and are identified with an internal reference group (p. 92).

Educators who are locals are often life-time members of the community. They are loyal to the school and its ideology, and prefer to maintain the organization. Educators who are cosmopolitan are outsiders (new to the school and community), focus on professional skills, are oriented to outside reference groups, and will seek employment elsewhere (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973, pp. 92-96).

The descriptions of the locals by Sergiovanni, Carver, and Merton seem connected with some of the characteristics of rural settings. These include local relationships which are confined to citizens and organizations within the community. This tendency is also reported by Sorokin and Zimmerman, and inferred from research by Glenn and Alston, who stereotype rural relationships as isolationist and distrustful of people (p. 400). The tendency toward traditionalism, as reported by Fischer, the limited focus in relationships, lack of mobility, and attachment to the community are commonalities of both rural and local characteristics. Rural respondents, then, can be inferred as having attributes which are local in orientation.

Cosmopolitan characteristics, identified by Sergiovanni, Carver, and Merton, have commonality with urban tendencies toward impersonal, complex and superficial relationships. Selectivity in personal

relationships, a high mobility rate and higher level of education contribute to a composite associated with urban or cosmopolitan features. These features complement the research accomplished by authorities in the fields of sociological and educational inquiry.

Because of the deducted similarities, rural respondents in the study are considered to be more local in characteristics while the urban respondents are more related to the cosmopolitan traits.

Conclusion

In this study, some relationships between managerial styles and moral reasoning stages of educational functionaries have been explored, as well as the effects of demographic data on moral reasoning scores and managerial styles. It should be reiterated, however, that the moral reasoning stages explored do not indicate a type of personality. What has been examined here are types of thinking and functioning, and how these relate to styles of managing.

From the population studies, most participants were found to be traditionalist/judicial in managerial style and conventional in moral reasoning. Only a small number of the participants were visionary and postconventional in moral reasoning with a concern for human development. These results have been related previously to a value system which supports economic productivity through the regulation of men, materials and organizations.

Supporting evidence is advanced by Thomas Green (1969, p. 232). He identifies the predominant values of the school as managerial.

The two values identified by Green in his writing are the distributive value and the aggregate value.

The distributive value (p. 234) cultivates the individual to the fullest of which he is capable. Therefore the individual is placed above the society. The distributive value is the ideology of the school. This value is dormant in its development in schools. Green identifies the school as a production enterprise which prepares persons to assume a functional role in an orderly, productive and rational society. It is from this perspective that the results of the efforts of the school are measured (p. 233). Green also postulates that the managerial emphasis and function of the school supports aggregate values. He describes aggregate values as "a good to be examined for the society even though it may not be maximized for each individual within the society" (p. 234).

With the school's product measured and evaluated for its functional use to the larger society and the community, Green predicts that this managerial trend can be expected to remain dominant. Aggregate values and concerns will continue to be directed toward schooling which produces manpower to maintain the economic and military institutions of the society.

This research conducted with school administrators yielded evidence that the traditionalist/judicial managerial style and conventional moral reasoning contribute toward technical, economic productivity among the participating subjects. Green's research supports similar findings. These are directed toward social values of an aggregate dimension which continue the managerial emphasis of the school in its functions of organization and direction.

Functionaries as seen by this researcher have the aggregate value dimension as described by Green. The socio-cultural assimilation of value perspectives is broadly encompassed in home, community and school. The assimilation of value positions is both rapid and silent through the institutions of the society. Given the strength and massiveness of the institutions which advance values and moral perspectives, it is not surprising to find school functionaries that reflect value and moral positions found in the larger society.

The challenge remains for the school functionary to work toward balancing the aggregate and distributive value emphasis if the school is to remain an active societal force for the development of character of its membership.

The studies' findings report that females differ in their predominant managerial style. More females were catalyst than any other managerial style. This result may be questioned on the basis of an apparent sex-bias in the development of the Moral Judgment Scoring Scale by Kohlberg and associates.

The research of Kohlberg and associates has been conducted to ascertain moral understanding which is centered about justice concepts. Haan (1975) and Holstein (1976) challenge the Kohlberg scoring system. Their research indicates that female moral judgments are "tied to feelings of empathy and compassion and are concerned more with the resolution of 'real-life' as opposed to hypothetical dilemmas" (Gilligan, 1977, p. 490).

Gilligan's research has further verified the work of Haan and Holstein. Through a series of structured interviews with women, Gilligan found that females view moral dilemmas "in terms of conflicting

responsibilities" (p. 515). Female moral judgment proceeds from "a concern for survival, to a focus on goodness and finally to an understanding on non-violence" as the adequate guide to moral conflicts (p. 515). This morality of responsibility stands apart from the morality of rights underlying Kohlberg's highest stage of moral judgment (p. 509).

Interviews conducted by Gilligan revealed a different social and moral understanding. Desire for love and approval, obligation, sacrifice, reluctance to exercise choice, the desire to please, exercising care and avoiding hurt were commonly expressed by women as the basis for making moral judgments. These convictions that shape female moral judgments differ from those that apply to men, who are researched and studied predominantly by Kohlberg and associates.

With Kohlberg's moral judgment criteria based on male subjects, the standards for determining moral judgments are predicated upon principles of justice. Standards associated with the ramifications of love are found to be criteria by which women determine moral judgments.

Data as a result of this study indicate that females have a catalytic managerial style. This style has a focus on involvement with people which appears to have an oblique, unproven connection to the moral judgment criteria of females, which is based upon a love orientation. Again, the utilization of the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale may not be applicable to female respondents. In this event, these results, which link managerial style and moral judgment level, would be altered for females, based on evidence from recent and anticipated research endeavors.

Using the sex-biased findings of Haan, Holstein and Gilligan regarding moral judgment criteria utilized by females, future studies need to

be made to verify that women's moral judgments reflect a moral understanding more closely associated with the ethics of love than with the ethics of justice. Using a different moral standard, women could surpass the level three orientation identified by Kohlberg and Kramer (1969, p. 108).

Socialization patterns for male and female have been found to be cause for role differences assumed by the two sexes in our society. It would appear that these sex role differentiations, activated by socio-cultural influences, could also be applicable to the development of moral judgment criteria by males and females. Haan, Holstein, and Gilligan have so indicated in their research endeavors. Continuation seems appropriate in the effort to refine developmental theories applicable to the acquisition of moral judgment.

The results of this research indicate that educational functionaries hold conventional moral reasoning stages. Further examination of all managerial styles reveals a technical orientation toward productivity; i.e., the means-ends purpose for organizational effectiveness and efficiency is an underlying dimension of the traditionalist/judicial, troubleshooter/negotiator, catalyst and visionary managerial styles. These managerial styles support the definition of management, which was defined as a pattern of tasks to coordinate organizational efforts toward productivity.

Data from this study has implications for developing and understanding educational leaders. As reported in this study, a large percentage of the respondents has not reached the level of cognitive complexity necessary for individuals to function within the researcher's definition

of administration and Kohlberg's postconventional level of moral reasoning.

Using data from this study, school districts may want to utilize the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Scale and/or the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to provide data pertaining to persons' attitudes and cognitive functions necessary for administrative work.

The issue of invasion of privacy should be a consideration in such a screening effort. If the results are to be used for final job determination purposes, the organization using these instruments may elect to inform the applicants of the screening procedures. This would enable individuals to accept or reject the opportunity to participate in such information-gathering procedures. Persons consenting to the screening procedures would be immediately considered for administrative work by virtue of their acceptance of the reasoning for utilizing this type of screening device as a means to identifying potential administrators who have cognizance of human values.

Persons possessing cognizance for human values (as indicated in the definition of administrators in this study) would have a wider perception of the scope of education, be generalists in educational preparation, and more likely to have a keener sense of moral reasoning. These traits will enhance the attainment of higher levels of moral reasoning that are needed by school administrators. Schools with administrators of these dimensions would appear to be attempting to meet human needs while simultaneously advancing toward maximum productivity for technical and human effectiveness.

The search for the means to measure and develop human effectiveness is an ongoing endeavor. Kohlberg's research is one means to determine one aspect of human effectiveness; i.e., justness. However the identification of this desirable human trait may be more complex and illusive than recent research studies indicate.

Plato, in The Republic, realized that the trait of justness was difficult to isolate. He states that the practice of justice is "minding one's own business and not meddling into other men's concerns" (Cornford, 1945, p. 127). By doing one's own work and attending to one's own proper business, justice is established and maintained (p. 129).

The wisdom of Plato, expressed in the simplicity of the concept of justice, may be the reason why justice remains illusive and fully unattainable. It may be that the internal understanding of justice is within the nature of man and is evolving as humanity expands and changes in its ebb and flow of growth and development.

Realizing that concepts of justice require eternal search and understanding, this research endeavor contributes to the efforts to more clearly define how justice is exercised in the population, especially by school administrators.

This study provides data which may contribute to future study about the relationship between managerial style and moral reasoning of school administrators.

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APPENDIX A

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