LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ETHICAL VIEWS

OF PRESIDENTS OF SMALL

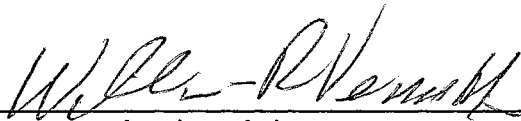COMMUNITY COLLEGES

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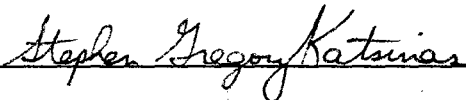
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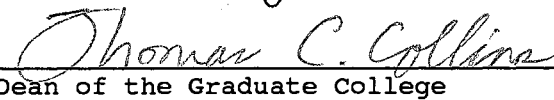
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PREFACE

This research was designed to identify the relationship between leadership characteristics and moral judgment among presidents of small community colleges. The research was conducted by utilizing a survey. The statistical determinations are descriptive and there is no attempt to make inferences to the finite population from the results obtained. The data collected from the survey demonstrate that leadership characteristics and ethics are not consistent among the small community college presidents. Ethics was important to the leaders.

I wish to thank the many individuals who assisted in this dissertation. In particular a special "thank you" to the graduate committee chair and adviser, of Dr. William Venable, whose long hours and many meetings are greatly appreciated. A special thanks for stimulating an interest in the concept of ethics as it is associated with leadership. A "thank you" to committee member Dr. Robert Nolan, whose orientation into the program at Oklahoma State University started the process, and to member Dr. Gary Oakley, who was always there to provide a kind word and valuable advice when needed; and finally to outside member Dr. Stephen Katsinas, whose knowledge of leadership and the community college system and his ability to convey his experiences instilled in me the desire to do the dissertation about leadership.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a popular topic in today's literature. However,

the study of leadership as it relates to ethics is not an abundant

topic. Blanchard and Peale (1988) indicated that "[d]ealing with

such a topic is like untangling a fishing line. The more you get

into it, the more complicated it becomes" (p. x). "During the past

decade or so, research in the field of moral development has

uncovered remarkable uniformities in hierarchies of moral reasoning

across a number of cultures. The research is far from complete"

(Burns, 1979, p. 30). "For the most part, the study of leadership

has dwelt on issues of style and levels of decision making,

assessing the consequences of their variations for followers'

satisfaction, individual compliance and performance, and

organizational effectiveness" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 2). Most

literature addressing subjects of leadership and ethics separate

them into completely different areas.

The relationship between leaders and followers is the

foundation for much literature, yet their alliance to an ethical

base is seldom mentioned. This is an unusual circumstance, since

the followers expect the leaders in an organization to be

trustworthy and to operate with integrity (Duncan & Harlacher,

1991). And the leaders expect their followers to function in a

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virtuous manner, working diligently and exhibiting honest characteristics (Burns, 1979, Duncan & Harlacher, 1991).

There appear to be as many definitions of leadership as there are writers. Estimates range from 130 (Burns, 1979, p. 2) to several thousand definitions, depending on the expert making the approximation. With all of these literary views, one would think the term leadership would be better defined. Jennings (1960) stated, "leadership seems to represent a set of ideas that cannot be empirically described or operationally studied with ease" (p. 3).

The definition of leadership is contingent upon an individual's concept of what constitutes a leader, as well as upon how followers contribute to the leader. The effective leader blends into the group and engages the followers from strategic positions. "It is appropriate for leaders on different occasions to use differing styles depending on the special problem or circumstance" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 50). The second segment of leadership is ethics. The ethical leader bases the merit of every decision on its effect on the followers. Ethical leaders exemplify the values of organizations by their leadership (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989). Leadership ethics are substantiated by the decisions a leader makes. The values leaders use to make decisions are the basis for their moral judgment. Moral judgment is the determining factor to the ethical behavior of the leader (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). Values are an underlying factor in the way an individual relates to others, makes decisions and leads (Burns, 1978, Ravlin & Meglino, 1987).

Many recognized leadership experts deal with the issue of ethics only after they have addressed all other important issues.

Problem Statement

The problem which gave rise to this study was the isolation of moral judgment from leadership in the current research about desirable leadership behavior.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationships between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small community colleges.

Research Questions

1. What are the leadership styles of presidents of small community colleges?

2. What is the relationship between the ways presidents of small community colleges perceive themselves and how they are perceived by members of their administrative teams?

3. To what extent do presidents of small community colleges use the concept of law and order in making moral judgments?

4. What is the relationship between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small community colleges?

Scope of the Study

The study is a national survey of presidents and administrative teams of small community colleges in the United States of America. A database was developed from the American Association of Community and Junior College 1992 Annual Membership Report containing all the member institutions who listed a student population. Small institutions were defined for the purpose of this research as those with a reported student population of fewer than 3,000. Each selected college president was administered two questionnaires identifying his or her leadership style and moral judgment. The selected team members of each president were asked to rate his or her college president's leadership style.

Definitions

"The people who are transforming education today are doing it by building consensus around a common set of principles, values, and priorities and debunking the high degree of specialization, departmentalization, and partisan politics" (Covey, 1991, p. 90). The message to future leaders candidly states that "the success of educational leadership in the twenty-first century will be dependent upon the strength of its ethical foundations, without which all other leadership competencies pale by comparison" (Duncan & Harlacher, 1991, p. 43).

There is a question among experts as to whether a great leader has to have an acceptable set of values. One particular individual who tends to exemplify this point is that of Adolph Hitler.

Although there are questions about his moral and ethical values, was Hitler a great leader? The question raised is, "Does an individual in power have to have moral and ethical values to be considered a great leader?" This study does not attempt to respond to this philosophical question, but attempts to tie leadership styles to ethical considerations for a single segment of a society. By examining various leadership styles and leaders and their ethical views, a better understanding of leadership, in relation to ethics, evolved. The reader must answer the philosophical questions involving the moral and values issues with respect to a great leader.

For the purpose of this study the following definitions are used.

Community College: The community college is a two-year post secondary institution providing liberal arts and/or technical learning experience (Parnell, 1989).

Community College President: The president is the chief executive officer (CEO) of the institution and responsible to the lay governance board for the operation of the institution.

Concept of Justice: The concept of justice was measured by the Thoma Utilized. For the purpose of the current study, the term law and order will be used to identify this type of moral judgment.

Dominant Leadership Style: Dominant leadership styles are those which when calculated exceed the mean by one standard deviation or more.

Ethical Leadership Style: The ethical leader is value oriented, demanding and demonstrating high standards, openness, trust, and leadership (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989).

Ethics: Ethics is the study of the interaction between individuals in a good or evil, right or wrong context (Covey, 1990, Rest, 1979, Trevino & Youngblood, 1990).

Influential Leader: The influential leader tends to be influenced by followers and encourages communication (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989). The influential leader is sometimes referred to as a situational leader.

Intuitive Leader: The intuitive leader is mission orientated and willing to take appropriate action to initiate change. The intuitive leader is also referred to as visionary (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989).

Justice: Justice is adherence to law and order.

Law and Order: Law and order are making decisions on the bases of what is legally correct. According to Rest, law and order are referred to as justice.

Leadership: Leadership is a process where one person or group persuades or influences an individual to accomplish a mutually acceptable goal (Bennis, 1989, Burns, 1979, Gardner, 1990).

Leadership Styles: Leadership styles are the perceived methods used by the presidents of small community colleges to lead or direct their organizations.

Legality: Legality is the process of making decisions on the bases of what is legally correct.

Management: Management is an organizationally affiliated responsibility for the process of directing specific functions of an individual towards certain objectives (Filley, House & Kerr, 1976).

Moral Judgment: Moral judgment is an indication of the consequences of people using their personal values in their decision making processes (Rest, 1990).

Motivational Leader: The motivational leader encourages creativity and inspires others to strive for organizational goals (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989).

People Oriented Leader: The people oriented leader is interested in individual needs and understands the organizational ideals without neglecting people (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989).

Principled Morality: Principled morality is the application of Kohlberg's higher stages of moral reasoning in an individual's use of moral judgment (Rest, 1993).

Small Community College: A small community college is a two-year post secondary institution which reported to the AACC in 1992 that it had a student population of fewer than 3,000 students.

Thoma Utilizer: The Thoma Utilizer score "represents the degree to which a subject uses concepts of justice in making moral judgments. By implication this asserts that some people use considerations and criteria for deciding what is morally right other than concepts of justice" (Rest, 1993, p. 13).

Assumptions

It was assumed that the presidents completed their own instruments. The administrative team members also completed the evaluations of the president without external influences.

For the purposes of this study it was assumed that moral judgment, moral reasoning and ethics have the same meanings.

Some of the subjects did not return all three of the required team members questionnaires, it was assumed that this was because the study dealt with small institutions and there may not have been more than two administrative team leaders. Responses from teams that were comprised of two or three members were used in establishing the leadership style for the president.

Limitations

The following limitations were identified for this study.

There has been little research relating leadership style to ethics. Most studies involving community college leadership have been restricted to the larger institutions. There is little empirical evidence to support the concept that small urban or suburban institutions function in the same ways.

The time from conception to the receipt of first completed form to the receipt of the last was sufficient to allow for the attitudes of the respondents to be altered. This normally occurs if there is a major disaster or political reformation (Warde, 1990). During the research period there was not a major national disaster or a major political reformation.

The survey was sent directly to the president of each in situation and he or she returned the completed forms to the researcher. There was no control over who actually completed the questionnaires. The process of the president handling the sealed, completed forms may have caused the results to be skewed. This does not lessen the validity of the results because the <u>Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II</u> (MCLQ) is used as an independent variable and is used only as a reference point.

Neither genders nor ethnic backgrounds of the presidents were considered separately for the purpose of identifying the leadership styles or moral judgment. The gender and ethnic demographic differences were relatively small and stratifying them may have caused distortion of the conclusions. The gender and ethnic backgrounds of the presidents and administrative team members were reported in the demographic section.

Region location was not considered as a factor for the presidents of small community colleges. According to Katsinas, regional classifications of the community colleges are poorly defined.

The design of the study attempted to reduce any possible manipulation by the leaders of the team members' questionnaires. The possibility of intervention by presidents of the small community colleges is not a consideration nor a factor. It must be assumed that none of the presidents interfered with members of their administrative teams in the completion phase of this survey.

Individual team member responses were not tracked. The survey was concerned with establishing the president's leadership style. The team member evaluations were only considered as an employee consensus of their leader.

Summary

Two distinct schools of thought exist in the area of leadership ethics. One group of experts indicates that for a leader to be defined as extraordinary, he or she must embrace a high level of ethics and values. The other side of this argument indicates that, regardless of the individual's ethical views, a great leader is still a great leader, similar to the "great man" theory. "Ethical and unethical behavior in organizations is viewed as a consequence of both organizational and individual influences" (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990, p. 378). And the moral reasoning process determines how the individual uses his or her values in making decisions.

The act of leadership influences the behavior of others in an organization or system context with reference back to the organization and system's goals (Bowers & Seashore, 1975, Hersey, 1984). The leader makes decisions based on his or her personal values. Ethics are a factor if a decision of the leader directly affects another person or organization. If the decision does not affect another individual, then ethics are not a part of the decision making process. Moral judgment is how the values of the leader are incorporated into his or her decision making process.

The effective leader is one who centers upon correct values in making decisions (Covey, 1989, Sergiovanni, 1992, Rest, 1986). Ethics, as demonstrated in the decision making process, play an important part in determining whether the leader is inadequate or extraordinary (Burns, 1979, Sergiovanni, 1992, Tead, 1935). The influence of principle-centered judgment is synonymous with leadership in a modern environment (Covey, 1990).

Covey (1989) states that the literature recognized ethics as a technique for success, "but tended to compartmentalize it [ethics] rather than recognize it as foundational and catalytic" (p. 19). Only in recent years has ethics been incorporated into leadership paradigms. Today's leader needs a commitment to ethical behavior (Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989). "Principle-centered leaders realize, too, that growth comes from the inside out, so they focus first on changing themselves and then on expanding to other areas of influence in the organization" (Covey, 1991, p. 216). The literature exhibited a need for research in ethical leadership. The need for research is substantiated by the continued separation of leadership and ethics.

The literature review is divided into three main sections. The first section examines variations among the leadership styles. The ethical preference associated with decision making is then explored. Finally, there is a general synopsis of the function of the community college president, with emphasis on the small institutions.

Chapter III explains the methodology for the research. The chapter defines every aspect of the methodology from the sampling techniques to the analysis of the data collected.

Chapter IV contains the actual results of the survey and the descriptive statistics of the research.

Chapter V concludes the research in an evaluation of the statistical information, and includes recommendations for practice and for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Leadership

Introduction

The leader's behaviors and beliefs, coupled with a multitude of

leadership definitions, make an exact definition of ethical leader-

ship difficult. To complicate the process further, in the earlier

writings authors did not distinguish between management and

leadership. Most experts agree that the difference is determined by

the individual, the situation, and the followers, but that they are

separate functions. In an effort to better understand modern

management behaviors, a brief examination of how leadership evolved

may be helpful. In 1776, Adam Smith published Wealth of Nations, in

which he stated that individuals must be held accountable for their

actions (George, 1972, p. 57). His publication initiated the

beginning of massive amounts of modern literature associated with

leadership.

Scientific Management

A practitioner of the management movement, Henry R. Towne,

1870, created the scientific management model. "Towne emphasized

the concept that shop management was equal in importance to

engineering management in the efficient direction of an enterprise"

(George, 1972, p. 84). In his second paper, Towne denounced profit
sharing as inequitable, in favor of gain-sharing. Gain-sharing is
determined by calculating the difference between costs associated
with a single department and that department's income. Employees
rewards are based on this difference. In his third paper, he
accredited an engineer Fredrick W. Taylor as the apostle of the
scientific management movement. "Henry R. Towne's main contribution
to management is that he set the climate and atmosphere for the
later application of scientific methods" (George, 1972, p. 85).

Henry Metcalfe's book, The Cost of Manufactures and the Admin-
istration of Workshops, Public and Private, "was hailed as a pioneer
work in the area of management science" (George, 1972, p. 85). The
book dealt with systems and their control. Not only did this work
inspire Fredrick W. Taylor, it laid the foundation for subsequent
researchers in the scientific management field.

In the early 1900s, Frederick W. Taylor became one of the most
noted individuals in management theory. His ideas would influence
the course of management thought for several decades. He
experimented with machines and people in an attempt to make them
more efficient. The process he used was referred to as a time and
motion study (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1976). Taylor's main
concern in introducing his theory of scientific management was that
it benefit society. He inquired in his paper, "What is Scientific
Management?" Scientific management was not either a device designed
specifically for securing efficiency, or a group of efficiency
devices (Taylor, 1960, Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1976, George,

1972). Taylor said, "Scientific management involves a complete mental revolution on the part of the workingman" and management (1960, p. 78). "Both sides must recognize as essential the substitution of exact scientific investigation and knowledge for the old individual judgment or opinion, either of the workman or the boss, in all matters relating to the work done in the establishment" (Taylor, 1960, p. 80). This devotion to scientific solutions and the desire to identify and correct a problem is the foundation of Taylor's theory.

The scientific management style tends to be authoritarian in nature. "An authoritarian manager makes the decisions and gives the commands, and workers conform and cooperate, perform and contribute, as requested to receive the economic rewards of pay and other benefits" (Covey, 1990, p. 176-177). Many organizations and leaders to day still function on this assumption when relating to their employees.

The scientific movement provided the foundation for the Hawthorne studies. The Hawthorne studies (1941) were originally designed to expand knowledge of the scientific model, but instead they initiated the human relations movement (Donnelly, Gibson, & Ivancevich, 1975). The experiment measured production improvement associated with improved physical conditions at the Chicago Hawthorne Western Electric plant. The lighting was changed and a corresponding change in production levels were measured. The hypothesis stated that by improving the lighting, the production would increase. The findings did not confirm this assumption

because the measured production level increased in both the test

group whose lighting changed and the control group whose lighting

remained the same. This indicated that something besides lighting

affected the change in production. "The studies made major

contributions to the knowledge of the importance of the social

system of an organization. They provided the impetus for the human

relations approach to organizations" (Gibson, Ivancevich, &

Donnelly, Jr, 1976, p. 477).

Behavioral Science Management

The foundations of behaviorist leadership lie in the belief

that the individual is a social-psychological being. The leader

secures maximum efficiency by manipulation of the worker's

environment. This manipulation, referred to as motivation, is

accomplished by controlling several aspects of the individual's

surroundings to include the reward system. The human relations

theory states that motivation is accomplished as a result of

satisfying the unsatisfied needs of an individual (Covey, 1989,

Filley, House & Kerr, 1976, Gardner, 1990, Koontz & O'Donnell,

1972).

The behaviorists demonstrated that by controlling the

individual's environment and reward system, they could re-direct an

individual. This discipline was the focal point for many management

studies. The behaviorist concept was nurtured by B. F. Skinner, as

the major spokesman. He exhibited that with proper use of rewards

and stimulation, the individual can be motivated or trained. His

experiments expanded the knowledge base attributed to behaviorism.
These experiments "lead to fruitful discoveries, such as the needs
and motivations of men at work" (Terry, 1968, p. 99). The evolution
of leadership started with the development of a basic concept,
expanded to a complex set of scientific based skills and finally
into a style that interacts directly with people.

General Leadership

One of the difference between leadership and management,
according to Covey (1991), is that leadership focuses on the top
line in an organization, while management focuses on the bottom
line." Leadership derives its power from values and correct
principles. Management organizes resources to serve selected
objectives to produce the bottom line" (p. 246). Leadership
influences the behavior of others in an organization or system
context with reference back to the organization of that system's
goals (Bowers & Seashore, 1975, Hersey, 1984).

A leader exists because of his social position with the
organization or system. He is expected to dole out the rewards
conducive to his status and provide for a fair distribution system.
If the leader fails to perform these tasks adequately, he will be
stripped of his power. "Leadership, in other words, is limited by
what followers will permit" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 138). And
leadership is a process which dictates that the followers are
directed by the leader towards an organizational objective.

The purpose of the leader is to understand the needs of his or her followers and have the ability to include these people in the decision process. An educational leader is special because he or she is a better follower: "better at articulating the purposes of the community; more passionate about goals, more willing to take time to pursue them" (Brandt, 1992, p. 47). A leader enhances the quality of life for his or her followers. The leader has faith in the human possibilities of the followers (Gardner, 1989, p. 43). "Leadership is a process of morality to the degree that leaders engage with followers on the basis of shared motives and values and goals" (Burns, 1979, p. 36). The needs of the followers and leaders should include psychological, economic, safety, spiritual, sexual, aesthetic, or physical needs (Burns, 1979). The better a leader is able to adjust his or her behavior and decisions to accommodate the followers, the more successful the leader appears. "And in no society are there leaders without followers or followers without leaders. Moreover, leaders and followers exchange roles over time and in different political settings" (Burns, 1976, p. 134).

A competent leader is not afraid of experts or of others who appear to know more than the leader himself or herself. The leader must be decisive. He or she must be able to get results. The leader needs the ability to recognize problems and develop solutions for that problem with the assistance of his followers. Finally, he or she must place the solution into practice. The leader needs intelligence, a sense of humor and an imagination (Tead, 1935, pp. 113-138).

Situational Leadership

The effective leader blends into the group. The leader should be invisible (Townsend, 1986). The leader engages the follower from different positions. "It is appropriate for leaders on different occasions to use differing styles depending on the special problem or circumstance" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 50). Hersey and Blanchard state that the concept of behavior fit, also referred to as situational leadership, "contribute in helping managers to become more effective and improving productivity and contributions to the quality of working life," (p. 52).

Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi identify two distinctive leadership behaviors. The first, directed behavior style is one in "which the leader engages in one-way communication" (p. 13). The follower is told exactly what to do and how to do it. This style requires close supervision and has three operative word descriptions: structure, control, and supervision. In the second, the supportive behavior style, the leader listens to what the follower has to say and involves them in all decision-making processes. "The three operations words for supportive behavior are praise, listen, and facilitate" (p. 13). Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi's research involved using these behavior characteristics and devising four separate styles. The styles developed are coaching, directing, supporting and delegating approaches. Although researchers agree on the nomenclature associated with effective leadership, agreement as to which is the best style is contradictory.

Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi indicate the best leader is one who "maximized results, satisfaction, growth and development in all situations" (1987, p. 14). Bennis (1989) indicates that leaders are necessary. "First, they are responsible for the effectiveness of organizations. Second, the change and upheaval of the past years has left us with no place to hide. We need anchors in our lives. Third, there is pervasive, national concern about the integrity of our institutions" (p. 15). A successful leader is one who has a clear understanding, a vision of what he wants, and the capability to persuade followers to accomplish these objectives. A leader is the focal point of any organization. "The difference between the effective and the ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of leader, but the appropriateness of this behavior to the situation in which it is used" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1981, p. 38).

Introduction to Transactional and

Transformational Leadership

As an individual climbs the corporate ladder, the more successful he or she becomes, the more he or she must depend "on the efforts of others, and the less he is able to rely on his own direct actions" (Bennett, 1976, p. 117). This interdependence between leader and follower is reflected in communication. "Listening behavior and attitudes in business transactions contribute significantly if not decisively, to how individuals view each other" (Bennett, 1976, p. 117). Interacting and communicating with people are modern leadership goals, nurturing the birth of a

multitude of leadership paradigms. Modern experts recognize two

unique leadership styles, transactional and transformational. There

does exist a degree of conformity between the two, but there is also

a distinct difference and both leadership styles must co-exist for

either to be successful (Burns, 1979, Covey, 1992).

A notable distinction between transactional and transformational

leadership styles is that:

> transformational leadership must be the parent, as it
> provides the frame of reference, the strategic boundaries
> within which transactions take place. Without a clear
> picture of what kind of transformation is needed,
> executives and their managers will tend to operate on
> social and political agendas and timetables (Covey, 1991,
> p. 287).

Transformational leadership does what the name implies, changes or

transforms people within the organization. It is primarily

concerned with the "top line" and is principle-centered.

Transactional leadership which focuses on the bottom line is event-

centered.

Transactional Leadership

The key to any successful organization is effective leadership,

which is meaningful communication. There exists a multilevel

communication sequence between individuals during a single

encounter. This multilevel interaction is referred to as

transactional. Mastering transactional communication provides an

individual with skills that allow him or her the ability to

communicate with individuals within the organization from a distinct

posture.

Transactional analysis is the process of evaluating this

interaction, and, by adjusting the interaction level, improving and

controlling communication.

Interrelationships between different people within an

organization led to a technique designed to analyze these

interactions. The art of evaluating this interaction is referred to

as transactional analysis. James (1976) postulated three

transactional states: parent, adult and child, which are similar to

a family environment. The employer (leader or manager) formally

relates to the employee from one of these three states and the

employee will respond from the proper corresponding state. The

ideal situation in a business environment is for both people to

function from adult states. This does not always occur. More times

than not, the individuals are operating from different levels

causing difficulty in communication. Most verbal communication is

done while an underlying nonverbal interaction is proceeding. This

nonverbal interaction can occur at the same level as the formal

communication or at a different level. If the verbal and nonverbal

communication is at different transactional states, there is a

chance for misunderstanding. This misunderstanding is called

"crossed" interaction. "Crossed" interaction occurs when two or

more people communicate from more than one state during the same

conversation (James, 1976, Bennett, 1976).

The communication process between leader and follower is

complicated and sometimes misleading. "Most personal and

organizational communication is governed by social values" (Covey,

1991, p. 117). The leaders and the followers must be communicating within an identical frame of reference. They both must agree on "the need to attain a specific goal, objectives are developed to reach the goal, and an understanding occurs about the reward for successful completion of the task or punishment for non-completion of the task" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989, p. 24). Transactional leadership is a relationship terminated upon successful completion of the interaction. The goal of both the leader and follower have been addressed and successfully negotiated. "This leadership style is structured, concerned only with efficient ideas and what will work, thus using the power of the position to reinforce" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989, p. 24).

Several leadership models have taken transactional's concept of one-on-one interactions and attempted to develop a hybrid leadership paradigm. For instance, a contingency reward system maintains that the reward is matched according to the perceived worth of the participant. The reward is tailored to each individual's desire. The leader controls the reward, promising the reward to the individual for good performance and recognizing accomplishments (Bass, 1985, Deluga, 1988, Hersey, 1984, Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989). The second key in the transactional maze is that the transactional leader has several options available with this leadership behavior. In one style, the leader may lead by exception. This requires that the leader take an active role, watch and search for deviations from the established rules and standards. If any deviation is noted, the leader takes corrective action (Bass,

1990, Deluga, 1988). The leader also may take a passive role and intervene, but only if the standard is not met.

Finally, the "laissez-faire" style of leadership requires that the leader "abdicates responsibility, avoids making decisions" (Bass, 1990, p. 22). Basically, all four of these styles prevail around the concept that the transactional leader emphasizes to the followers the benefits associated with compliance to the norm (Bass, 1990).

A study by Deluga (1988) indicates that "transactional leadership does promote more influencing activity between managers and employees" (p. 463). This relationship between the employee and leader is viewed as contractual. Because of this contractual agreement as the employee's work "falls short of expectations, the employee's bargaining position is eroded, while that to the manager is constantly strengthened" (Deluga, 1988, p. 464). The other side of this taxonomy is that the employees can strengthen their position and improve their reward system. The organization benefits from this situation with higher quality and production levels.

The example of a strengthening position for the employee is also demonstrated by the leader's ability to meet his goal without excessive intervention. On the down side, this relationship demonstrates that when an employee fails to meet his or her goals, the individual is negotiating from a posture of weakness and is often unsuccessful in securing any rewards. The leader uses the employee's reduced position to entice the employee to improve. The problem occurs when the employees resent "this carrot-and-stick

approach and seek to retaliate as [situation] and bargaining

strengths improve. The retaliation may take the form of unreasonable

demands to compensate for perceived slights or even through

accepting a position with a competitor" (Deluga, 1988, p. 464).

The flow of power in a transactional environment is constantly

being revised. A good transactional leader is able to balance this

erratic flow and stabilize the process. The key lies in the fact,

"transactional leaders give followers something they want in

exchange for something the leaders want" (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987,

p. 649). To summarize, transactional leadership is the interaction

of two or more people for the purpose of improving the situation of

both parties.

Decay of Transactional Leadership

Interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers are

declining due to increased use of computers. The decline in this

relationship prevails throughout business and educational

establishments. In the rapidly expanding informational world, the

computer is redefining the way people communicate and interact.

Drucker (1988) stated "as soon as a company takes the first

tentative steps from data to information, its decision processes,

management structure, and even the way its work gets done begin to

be transformed" (p. 46). No longer can the leader interrelate with

each employee. Distance between the different components of the

organization has expanded into a global situation. An organization

may communicate using electronic mail and eliminating the person--

to--person interaction altogether. Another cause of the dissociation of the leader and the followers is the collective bargaining process. Regardless of which of these two non-related events is to blame, computerization or collective bargaining, the deterioration of communication between leaders and members continues. The fact remains, people are no longer talking directly to each other (Drucker, 1967).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is the leadership style that may propel us into the next century. "Central to the transformational leadership process is the feelings of affiliation that subordinates develop towards the leader" (Singer & Singer, 1986, p. 776). Transformational leadership occurs when followers engage in such a way that leaders and followers raise each another to a higher level of motivation and morality (Burns, 1979, Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The transformational leader deals more with the group process, "recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower" (Burns, 1978, p. 4). Transformational leadership style is based on the concept of providing the individual contributor to the organization with a holistic environment. To provide these individuals with this new improved environment, several old-fashioned ideas must be changed. Covey (1991) stated in Principle-Centered Leadership, "One of the more popular lines of toys for children in past years has been Transformers. These colorful units are really two toys in one: they change like chameleons from one

thing to another -- from robot to jet plane, for example -- simply
by maneuvering certain parts" (p. 281). This new toy,
transformational leadership, is invading business and education at
an astounding rate.

"Transformational leadership arouses transcendental interests
in followers and/or elevates their need and aspiration levels. In
doing so, transformational leadership may result ultimately in a
higher level of satisfaction and effectiveness among the led" (Bass,
1985, p. 32).

"Transformational leaders focus on increasing subordinates'
confidence to induce greater effort and to generate performance
beyond expectations by the subordinates" (Singer & Singer, 1986,
p. 776). The whole concept of transformational leadership evolves
around the followers defined as a group and affiliated to their
environment.

The individual is as important to the transformational leader
within the group process as he or she was in the transactional
model. The primary difference is that the transformational leader
involves the group and the transactional leader does not. The group
feels an individual kinship to the transformational leader's process
and they have complete trust in the leader. The leader is able to
make the group function as a single entity at a higher than normal
level for both quality and quantity. He or she receives
individualized attention from the leader, creating a higher level
of intellectual stimulation which the leader provides to inspire the
followers to greater accomplishments (Singer & Singer, 1986,

p. 776). The transformational leadership style provides individuals within the group a feeling of belonging as well as autonomy. The dominant characteristic of the leader determines if the follower is manipulated by the leader or an active participant in the process. Where the vision originates, with the leader or the group, determines if the process is manipulative or participative for the follower. An example is, if a leader has an idea and then manipulates the group into thinking that the idea originated from the group as opposed to the group having an idea created independently of the leadership or organization.

Bass (1990) identifies four major characteristics associated with the transformational leader. First, charisma "provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust" (p. 22). The second characteristic is inspiration. "Inspiration communications high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, express important purpose in simple ways" (p. 22). Third is intellectual stimulation which "promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving" (p. 22). Finally, "individualized consideration gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises" (p. 22). The four characteristics emphasize the importance of the leader in a transformational environment, and the leader's ability able to get group results while providing the group with a sense of individualism.

Some experts claim that charisma is a dominate characteristic of a transformational leader, indicating that charisma is a natural

trait. Bass (1990) argues that this characteristic can be learned

by anyone. Bass (1985) defines charisma as:

> The charismatic who is a successful transformational
> leader (followers are influenced) and an effective
> transformational leader (followers benefit from the
> transformation) can be distinguished from the charismatic
> who is not. The successful and effective transformational
> leader is engaged with authentic rather than false needs
> of followers and with mutual enhancement of effort.
> Individualized consideration is more likely to be
> displayed. Relatively speaking, the charismatic
> transformational leader dealing with authentic needs will
> rely somewhat more on rational, intellectual persuasion;
> the false messiah who fails to have transforming effects
> will rely more on emotional appeals. The charismatic
> transformational leader structures problems for followers
> providing for their easier comprehension so that followers
> can more effectively deal with them; the charismatic leader
> who fails to uplift followers oversimplifies problems for
> them so that the followers readily make impetuous response
> to them, blindly support each other's positions, or evade
> the problems altogether (p. 52).

This idea is the main focus of definitions associated with

transformational.

The transformational leader displays a high level of self-

confidence and concern for the group. The high productivity

associated with this transformational leadership is a by-product of

the leader's commitment to the individual and the group processes.

"The effective transformational leader is self-actualized, able to

accept others as they are while extending trust; capable of working

in the present rather than the past; courteous and aware to those

who are close; and able to do without constant approval and

recognition from others. (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, cited in Roueche,

Baker III, & Rose, 1989, p. 27-28) "Transformational leaders

operate interactively, bringing other people in, bridging multiple

realities, and reconceptualizing activities to take account of this new, shared reality" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989 p. 112).

Throughout history, great leaders have had one thing in common and the transformational leader is no exception. Leaders must have a vision for the organization. He or she must be able to convey this vision to his or her followers. A well defined vision is the key to the success of any organization (Balasco, 1990, Peters & Austin, 1985, Townsend, 1986). Roueche, Baker III, & Rose (1989) stated that a vision is the prelude of reality.

> We must value and cherish our dreams and visions,
> nurturing them into fulfillment. Most of all, we
> must remember that few of our visions can be
> accomplished alone. The key to the achievements
> that we strive for is the ability to share our visions
> and thus earn the acceptance and assistance necessary
> for turning them into reality. What is truly important,
> what is lasting, is accomplished together. Be bold, be
> creative, be dynamic, and be willing to take risks to
> ensure the best possible education through the uniqueness
> of the community college. But do it together, leaders
> and followers, followers and leaders (p. 289).

A successful visionary is capable of, first being able to look into the future, and then relating this to others. The successful leader gets his or her followers to see the same vision. He or she inspires them and motivates them towards the achievement of what becomes the mutual goals. The ability to convey the vision is just as important as the vision itself. Without vision, the task becomes just that and there is no future.

Summary of Leadership

"Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate towards some goal which they come to find desirable" (Tead, 1935,

p. 20). Without a willing follower, no leader can succeed. This

mutual alliance between leader and follower provides the

organization with the human-resource material it requires to

prosper. "Followers' performance often mirrors the expectations

their leaders have, Situational leaders take responsibility for this

potent impact they have on others" (Hersey, 1984, p. 96).

Covey and Birnbaum summarize the various leadership ideologies.

They pose three leadership characteristics. The first is referred

to as the Great Man Theory, "which posited that leaders are persons

endowed with specific physical, personality, or ability traits to a

greater extent than are nonleaders" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 136). The

second approach simply states that the leader is identified by what

he does rather than who he is. Finally, leaders can influence

others through their offices (position) because of the legitimacy

provided by our social and legal system (legitimate power). "This

legitimate power is rare. It is the mark of quality, distinction,

and excellence in all relationships. It is based on honor, with the

leader honoring the follower and the follower choosing to contribute

because the leader is also honored" (Covey, 1990, p. 104). "To

reinforce his or her position, the leader has the ability to provide

rewards (reward power) and to punish (coercive power)" (Birnbaum,

1988, p. 137). The leader must evaluate the group and individuals

constantly in an effort to maintain the rewards system conducive to

the group characteristics.

Several leadership styles are identified, but the most

prominent is transactional and transformational. The transactional

leadership style is an advanced means of dealing with people in a sophisticated autocratic method. The transformational method tends to be more participative, depending on the leader and follower, and the source of their vision. The unique element concerning leadership style is that it is defined as how the leaders appear to others. "It's not how people see themselves that matters, but how they come across to others they're attempting to influence" (Hersey, 1984, p. 20). "The patterns of behavior (words and actions) of the leader as perceived by others" (Hersey, 1984, p. 27).

Researchers indicate that in order for a transformational environment to exist, the leader must possess characteristics associated with transactional characteristics, yet these two styles are perceived differently. "While both transactional and transformational leadership involve sensing followers' felt needs, it is the transformational leader who raises consciousness about higher considerations through articulation and role modeling" (Bass, 1985, p. 15-16).

Transformational leaders are separated from transactional leaders by the way they relate to a situation. According to Bass (1985), the transformational leaders are pro-active in their thinking process, "more creative, novel, and innovative in their ideas; more radical or reactionary than reforming or conservative in ideology; and less inhibited in their ideational search for solutions" (p. 105). Transactional leaders may be as bright, but they focus on the individual "ever mindful of the organizational constraints within which they must operate" (p. 105).

The transactional leaders are confined to one primary method of achieving their goals. The transactional leaders deal with an individual at either a conscious or subconscious level. The transactional leaders' success is measured by whether they are able to get individuals to subscribe to their objectives. The transformational leaders achieve their goals in one of a multitude of ways. The transformational leaders "may be charismatic to their followers and thus inspire them; they may meet the emotional needs of each employee; and/or they may intellectually stimulate employees" (Bass, 1990, p. 21).

Both leadership styles are definitely people based. They both cherish the concept of individuality, while striving for the good of the group. The leader and follower are no longer adversaries, but partners working towards a common goal. The leader is the focus of this type of relationship. Without a dynamic leader the entire process is compromised and there will be no enhancement of the organization (Bass, 1985, Deluga, 1988, Greenleaf, 1977).

The art of getting more done through others is evolving from the autocratic single leadership style to one of empowerment. The leader who gives followers the right to govern their own destiny is liberated. A liberated leader exponentially expands the vision for the organization. This expansion provides the organization with an amplified mission. The confident leader allows followers the opportunity to determine their individual goals while maintaining ultimate control over the organization (Bardwick, 1991, Tead, 1935). This control from a position of power, while allowing the followers

the opportunity to prosper, is the foundation of transformational
leadership. "There can be no doubt that teamwork is essential to
successful leadership. Without an effective team approach,
organizational vitality is not possible" (Gardiner, 1988, p. 141).
The ability of the leader to maintain his power position while
empowering individuals within the organization is demonstrated in
transactional communication. The individual-to-individual
interaction is fundamental in transactional leadership style and
the group--to--individual interaction is fundamental to the
transformational style (Bass, 1985, Burns, 1979, Hater & Bass,
1988).

The difference between the leadership styles is predicated on
the method in which an individual used his or her power and the
values associated with the decisions made. An individual's
leadership style is determined by how the leader interacts with his
or her followers. This is ethics (Bass, 1985, James, 1976, Hersey &
Blanchard, 1982, Terry, 1968, Rest, 1986).

<div align="center">Ethics</div>

<u>Background</u>

Many consider Immamuel Kant to be the father of modern ethics.
Kant provided mankind with a definition of what he considered to be
ethical behavior when dealing with other humans. His writings are
considered to be the cornerstone of modern ethics. "Kant rejects
the view that morality is based on religion . . . but he considers
that religion is based on morality, not morality on religion" (Ross,

1978, p. 64). He considered morals to be empirical and absolutes and not subject to a variety of interpretations. Kant considers the "two parts of ethics are metaphysics of morals and practical anthropology (Kant's name for what we call psychology)" (cited in Ross, 1978, p. 1).

In further defining values, Kant's theory as quoted in Ross (1978), states "Nothing can possibly be conceived in the world, or even out of it, which can be called good without qualification, except a good will" (p. 8). Kant holds that to make our perception of the rightness an act, depends on its tendency to promote a certain end, that would deprive the imperative of duty of its absolute, categorical character; it would become a hypothetical imperative, "Do this if you desire that" (p. 44).

Since Kant writings, other experts in the area of ethics have advanced the concept that ethics are contingent on the situation. The phase, "When in Rome, do as the Romans," indicates that ethics are not an absolute, but contingent on an individual's environment. Many educational and business leaders reject the concept of dual ethics, while others embrace the concept that moral leadership is universal. "Max Weber contrasted the 'ethic of responsibility' with the 'ethic of ultimate ends,' the direct and indirect effects of different goals for different persons and interests, all in a context of specificity and immediacy, and with an eye to actual consequences rather than lofty intent" (cited in Burns, 1979, p. 45). Ethics are the guidelines or rules of conduct by which one strives to live. It is the way an individual conducts himself or

herself. The leader must know what is ethical and unethical in an organization (Cadbury, 1987, Nielsen, 1990).

Tead (1935) expressed the idea that leadership was tied to positive values. The followers must possess a feeling of trust in their leader and know "that he will not betray them, or sell out, or get tired of serving them" (p. 111). Burns (1979) goes on conveying that the leader/follower relationship is not only one of power, "but of mutual needs, aspirations and values; second, that in responding to leaders, followers have adequate knowledge of alternative leaders and programs and the capacity to choose among those alternatives; and, third, that leaders take responsibility for their commitments" (p. 4). "Humans are driven not only by self-interest but also by our emotions, values, and beliefs, and by the social bounds that emerge from our identification with and membership in various groups" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 57).

The key component associated with ethics is the decision making process. If ethics enter into the decision making process, the community college president relies on personal values to determine the solution. The decision making process of a leader is the determining factor with respect to the leader's ethical behavior. The moral reasoning that evolves out of this process establishes the leader's ethical behavior traits (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). "In sum, ethical decision making behavior in organizations appears to be a complex phenomenon influenced by the interplay of individual differences, how individuals think about ethical decisions, and how

organizations manage rewards and punishments" (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990, p. 384).

"The purpose of an ethic is to ensure that an action that is designed to achieve a certain objective will do so without violating a value" (Karp & Abramms, 1992, p. 38). The best interest of those affected by the leader's decision making process concerns the ethics of the leader. Ethics involve not compromising moral principles and values in the course of an organization's operation. Ethics are all those things that keep one individual from taking an unfair advantage of another, and thus separating the benevolent leader from the tyrannous leader. The study of ethics is important because ethics bridge the gap between itself, values, and action (Karp & Abramms, 1992).

Power

Power is the underlying principle of all leaders. Power is defined by Hersey (1984) as either position or personal. The position power is the extent the leaders reward, punish or sanctions follower. Its source is generated by the organization. Personal power is power that is gained from the confidence and trust from the people the leader is trying to influence. Personal and positional power demonstrate the source of the power in an organizational setting (pp. 77-78.)

Burns (1979) describes two essential powers that of motive and resource. The two are interrelated and dependent on one another for existence. "Lacking motive, resource diminishes; lacking resource,

motive lies idle. Lacking either one, power collapses" (p. 12).
Power over others is used to motivate individuals to achieve goals
selected by the leader as important, Burns refers to these leaders
as "power wielders." To control things "is an act of power, not
leadership, for things have no motives" (Burns, 1979, p. 18).

Legitimate power is thrust upon a leader who is honored and
respected by others. This power originates from the followers
(Burns, 1979, Covey, 1992, Gardner, 1990). "Depending on how
leaders deal with others (which includes both real and perceived
intent, interactive capacity, and interactive history), the honor
followers extend to them will increase or decrease and legitimate
power in the relationship will increase or decrease. To be
honorable is to have power" (Covey, 1992, p. 107).

Moral leadership becomes more of a concern with the
introduction of power. Power can be positive or destructive. Power
is the ability to cause another person to alter their behavioral
patterns. Andrew McFarland wrote "If the leader causes changes that
he intended, he has exercised power; if the leader causes changes
that he did not intend or want, he has exercised influence, but not
power" (cited in Burns, 1979, p. 19).

Values

While many authors tend to associate ethics and leadership,
Stephen Covey has written several books and articles with strong
foundations in ethics. Covey defines principles as the self-evident
and self-validating laws of nature that control our lives with

consistency and absolution. He refers to values and leadership as principle-centered leadership. "Principle-centered leadership is based on the reality that we cannot violate these natural laws with impunity. Whether or not we believe in them, they have been proven effective throughout centuries of human history" (Covey, 1992, p. 19). The leader who is ethical, considers every transaction he or she is involved with, to be a test of their values. "Value leadership is leadership by which CEOs exemplify, through their behavior, the values upon which an organization is founded. Value leadership does not seek to command, but to influence" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989, p. 213).

The concept of value is an underlying factor in how an individual relates to others, makes decisions and leads (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). "Values have a special potency because they embrace separate but closely interrelated phenomena. Values indicate desirable or preferred end-states of collective goals or explicit purpose, and values are standards in terms of which specific criteria may be established and choices made among alternatives" (Burns, 1979, p. 74). Values are a composite of an individual's life. Values are manifested in the attitudes the individual has towards the environment and others (Fritzsche, 1991). And, only those values that "involves social interaction and does not concern individual values that do not affect other people" are used in determining a leader's ethics or morality (Rest, 1979, p. 20). "The function of values is to define meaning for the individual or the organization" (Karp & Abramms, 1992, p. 38). "Values are part of

our personalities and cognitive systems; they direct how we behave

(react to stimuli) and what we think" (Oliver, 1985, p. 110). These

value types are evident in everything accomplished by people.

According to Hunter Lewis (1990) "Human beings cannot separate the

way they arrive at values from the values themselves. Authority,

deductive logic, sense experience, emotion, intuition, and science

are modes or techniques of moral reasoning but by adopting and

emphasizing one over the other we turn them into dominate personal

values (p. 14)" (cited in Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 11). The value of

an individual is the active part of that individual, and all

relationships relished by the individual. The ethically correct

community college president is only one example of a leader using

his or her values in the decision making process.

Personal Values

Spranger (1929) and Oliver (1985) identify six personal values:

political, aesthetic, social, theoretical, economic and religious.

Political values are demonstrated by the individual's pursuit of

power. This type of individual is lead by power and tends to lead

accordingly. "The political person recognizes the relationship

between money and power and may measure success in dollars; however,

the ultimate goal is positions" (Oliver, 1985, p. 110). This type

of person works for advancements in both their social and

professional endeavors. The aesthetic individual is concerned with

beauty, symmetry and harmony. He or she is concerned with creating

style and glamour, and spends less time on practical matters. "They

believe in the dignity of man and the nobility of the individual.

This person belongs to all the correct clubs, and is concerned with

their individualism" (Oliver, 1985, p. 110). The social-valued

individual is concerned for his or her fellow beings. This person

values charity, unselfishness, and the freedom of others and is apt

to offer aid and assistance to others and is understanding of others

(Oliver, 1985). This individual cannot act without first considering

the impact his or her decision will have on his or her fellow human

beings. People value truth and knowledge above all else (Burns,

1979, Covey, 1990, Oliver, 1985). This individual is very research

oriented and places a lot of confidence in scientific endeavors.

"Unlike the theoretical person, the economic type has no use for

knowledge that is not immediately applicable to pragmatic

achievement, to the production of something tangible and useful"

This individual is goal driven and tends to judge others on the

materialistic holdings of others (Oliver, 1985, p. 111).

"Trust--or the lack or it--is at the root of success or

failure in relationships and in the bottom-line results of business,

industry, education, and government" (Covey, 1990, p. 31).

Leadership and ethics of a president in a small community college is

the combination of several positive characteristics. The leader

must have values and the ethics to act upon these values, so that

the best interest of all concerned is safeguarded. The leader

should internalize and be responsible for his or her ethical

behavior. He or she must deal with every aspect of rational and

emotional behavior to clarify his or her ethical values (Hunt & Bullis, 1991).

Moral Judgment

The individual uses values when a value judgment is required. Decisions requiring no value or ethical input are made constantly and are not part of the moral judgment process. Other decisions require that the decision maker consider the well-being of the other individuals in the process. This process is referred to as moral judgment (Rest, 1979). And morality is concerned only with an individual's values which affects others (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, Rest, 1979).

There are two approaches in studying the moral development concept. First there is the cognitive developmentalist who tries to understand the moral decision-making process by examining the process from the inside. The developmentalist attempts "to understand how the subject sees the world, what his pressing concerns are, what possibilities for action he sees" (Rest, 1979, p. 6). The second approach is the behaviorist. The behaviorist "attempts to discover regularities in human behavior from an external point of view, relating the occurrence/non-occurrence of observable behavior to objective events in the environment" (Rest, 1979, p. 6). Kohlberg expounded the idea of cognitive developmental approach which is currently accepted by most experts in the field as the prevailing theory (Rest, 1979).

Kohlberg provided a method for assessing moral judgment by developing the six stage theory for cognitive moral judgment. The stages of cognitive development refer to the structure of one's reasoning and imply that the individual is consistent in his or her level. He or she never skips a stage and there is a tendency for mature adults to function at the highest possible level available (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977).

The six stages are:

1. punishment-and-obedience orientation;

2. instrumental-relativism orientation;

3. good-boy or good-girl orientation;

4. law-and-order orientation;

5. social-contract, legalistic orientation;

6. individual ethical-principles orientation (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, Rest, 1986).

These stages basically correlate to Rest's moral decision making and prediction theories.

Researchers have gone beyond the measurement of moral judgment. Moral judgment is not an only an issue of the psychology of morality, but an understanding and prediction of actual moral behavior and decision making (Rest, 1986). "The fundamental assumptions of moral judgment research are that a person's moral judgments reflect an underlying organization of thinking and that these organizations develop through a definite succession of transformations" (Rest, 1979, p. 17). Ethical decision making in an organization is "influenced by the interplay of individual

differences, how individuals think about ethical decisions, and how

organizations manage rewards and punishments" (Trevino & Youngblood,

1990, p. 384). "In summary, moral judgment is concerned with how

the benefits and burdens of social cooperation are to be

distributed" (Rest, 1979, p. 20).

> The function of morality is to provide basic guidelines
> for determining how conflicts in human interests are to
> be settled and for optimizing mutual benefit of people
> living together in group. It provides the first
> principles of social organization; it remains for
> politics, economics, and sociology to provide the
> second-level ideas about the specifics for creating
> institutions, role-structure, and practices (Rest, 1986,
> p. 1).

"When confronted with a complex moral problem, people do not

necessarily agree on what is at stake, and not surprisingly they

diverge in their judgments about solutions, advocating different

courses of action" (Rest, 1979, p. xvii). The individual's

perception of values and social responsibility is the underlying

driving force affecting his or her decisions. Kohlberg explains

this process with the introduction of the stage model. Kohlberg

states that there are six stages of moral development and the higher

an individual is in moral reasoning, the higher his or her stage

(Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, Rest, 1979, 1986).

Rest has changed the architecture of Kohlberg's six stages of

moral judgment, not the content. The changes, according to Rest

(1985), better explain how moral judgment is affected by the

individual's values and still follows Kohlberg's stage theory. Rest

(1979) believes that what a person considers important, such as

maintaining social order is part of the development level. This

accounts for an architectural difference between Rest and Kohlberg.

.   Stage 2 deals with the act of fairness, "a simple exchange of favor for favor" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). Stage 3 "represents considerations that focus on the good or evil intentions of the parties, on the party's concern for maintaining friendships and good relationships, and maintaining approval" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). The fourth stage "represents considerations that focus on maintaining the existing legal system, maintaining existing roles and formal organizational structure" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). The difference between the stages 2 and 4, for example, is concerned with why the individual made the choice as well as the choice itself. "If a subject is concerned about law in the sense of maintaining social order, that is Stage 4; if the subject is concerned about law in the sense of worrying about a jail sentence, that is Stage 2" (Rest, 1979, p. 45).

Rest's first three stages correlate with Kohlberg's first four stages of moral development. The last two stages of Kohlberg's theory are expanded into three stages defined by Rest.

Stage 5A, as it is referred to by Rest, deals with the social consensus as imposed upon others by the will of the majority population. These people insist "on due process (giving everyone his day in court), and safe guarding minimal basic rights" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). The next development stage is referred to as 5B. Stage 5B "represents considerations that focus on organizing social arrangements and relationships in terms of intuitively appealing ideas" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). This concept lacks support by the

general population. The two stages, 5A and 5B, are not a process by which the individual does one and then the other, but rather two separate paths leading to the same goal (Rest, 1979).

The final Stage 6 "represents considerations that focus on organizing society in terms of ideals that appeal to a rationale for eliminating arbitrary factors and that are designed to optimize mutual human welfare" (Rest, 1993, p. 12). The final stage 6 is sometimes associated with the position of a moral philosopher. This is not always desirable "and sometimes people with low P scores are greatly relieved to hear that they don't think like moral philosophers" (Rest, 1993, p. 13).

TABLE I

STANDARDIZED NORM STATISTICS FOR THE DEFINING ISSUES TEST

ID	2	3	4	5A	5B	6	P Score	D Score	U Score
Jr Hi N=270	6.3	15.0	20.2	8.0	2.6	1.41	20.0	10.34	0.103
Sr Hi N=270	5.2	11.8	19.2	13.1	3.1	2.42	31.03	19.48	0.195
College N=270	3.1	8.6	17.0	15.8	5.2	4.98	43.19	25.41	0.108
Grad N=270	2.2	8.0	18.0	15.1	5.3	6.56	44.85	28.26	0.094
Phil/Sem Student N=40	2.0	7.8	11.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	65.1		

Rest developed the Defining Issues Test (DIT) to measure the moral judgments of individuals. The DIT provides the subject with a story that requires that values be used to respond to the questions associated with it. Education appears to be the dominate trait into which the DIT divides the subject. Rest has developed a standardized scale for the DIT based on the educational level of the individual. Table I is supplied for comparative purposes (Rest, 1993). The different categories are students at a particular level of their education.

"The fundamental assumption of moral judgment research is that a person's moral judgments reflect an underlying organization of thinking and that these organizations develop through a definite succession of transformations" (Rest, 1979, p. 17). The idealistic philosophy of Rest, Kohlberg and others is to answer not only the question of an individual moral judgment, but why did the individual make that particular choice.

Role of Community College Presidents

Introduction

The concept of leadership as a visionary force is not unique to the community college environment, but is characteristic of all successful enterprises. Businesses and colleges have a defined customer base that is critical to the organizations' existence and subsequent success.

The student in the small community college is this unique commodity, whose needs must be satisfied in order that the

institution can continue to prosper. The organization must listen to its customer (Peters & Austin, 1985). The measure of student satisfaction and the success rate of the community college was originally based solely on its growth rate; the more the better. This growth parallels success and is a dominate factor in determining the success of a community college system. The constant expansion of the community college is no longer a major function of the institution. The community colleges are concerned with additional activities, such as: transferability, tech-prep, outcome assessment, and accountability, just to name a few (Parnell, 1989, Brint & Karabel, 1989). The community college is the foundation for America's future growth and prosperity.

> Excellent community college leaders envision and plan
> for the growth of a college culture; they influence
> and are influenced by their followers as individuals;
> they model value, respect, and seek to empower others;
> and they demonstrate strong personal values and honor
> the intellectual and individual development of others
> (Gillett-Karam, Roueche, & Roueche, 1991, p. 38).

The president of a community college today is responsible for everything that transpires at the institution. Unlike his or her colleagues in the urban/suburban areas, the president of a small community college performs more than one job function. He or she may be responsible for several functions while the president of a larger city community college delegates these responsibilities. Notwithstanding this multitude of functions, the way in which presidents of small community colleges lead their institutions is similar to the way the urban or suburban presidents lead.

Roueche, Baker III, & Rose (1989) described the community college as vital to the future of this nation and the main force that will influence America's workforce. "It will be the community college that will keep America working. It will be the community college that will be able to transfer the technology, developed in partnerships between the American corporation and the American university, into operational reality" (p. 5). "The function of the chief executive offices have been identified by Simon as raising money, balancing the budget, participating in the establishment of institutional goals, working with faculty to create an environment that encourages learning, and recruiting, and maintaining a high quality of faculty" (Richardson, Blocker, & Bender, 1989, p. 87). It appears that the president is becoming less visible at the institution, but a more pronounced figure in the community. The small community is looking to this individual for guidance and economic leadership.

Facility

The community colleges of America, unlike the traditional four-year colleges, have facilities that vary greatly. Community colleges' campuses range from a traditional looking campus to those resembling a shopping mall. The modern aspect of the community colleges provides a learning facility that is easily accessible by everyone. The campus is not by itself a single determining factor as to the success of the institution, yet proper maintenance and use of the facility maximizes its benefit.

<u>Mission</u>

The mission needs to be articulate and realistic. The president is responsible for the leadership process associated with the mission statement. The mission should address transfer, technical and specialty programs and the awarding of an associate degree (McCabe, 1988, Nunley & Breneman, 1988). The modern community college is evolving into a comprehensive community college, which conflicts with the old concept of a traditional education by the community college. The new role of the comprehensive community college can tilt "toward non-credit programs [adult education] and community services. Nontraditional delivery: electronic learning centers, TV, "store front" sites, cooperative education" (Deegan, Tillery, & Associates, 1985, p. 27). "Individual schools have lost their sense of mission and become de-specialized" said Dr. VanTrease, in a seminar held at Oklahoma State University, February 17, 1992, but the community college "needs to become liberalized before we become specialized."

Another difficulty facing the small community colleges is shrinking resources which may cause them to alter their mission. Current discussion as to the role of the community college revolves around transferability and local economic development. "Shrinking resources may force the choice between remaining a part of traditional higher education or moving to become a community-based service organization. It may no longer be possible to have it both ways" (Breneman & Nelson, 1989, p. 107). The primary reason for this shift is that financing is available to the schools for

business type training but not for the liberal arts. The role of
the president is to pilot the organization within the scope of the
mission, recognize deficiencies, and be willing to change if
necessary.

Vision

The future of community colleges depends on their ability to
enter into partnerships with business and other institutions. In
1988, experts predicted that 85 percent of the technical jobs
available by the year 2000 have not yet been defined. This coupled
with the fact that "all who will be in the work-force by the year
2000 are alive today" completely alters job-force profiles (Parnell,
1989, p. 143). An improperly trained work-force plus a dwindling
human resource is a challenge for the community college
administration. The community college president must provide a
vision that encourages people to handle constant change in the work
environment.

One of the most common elements of a leader is vision. He or
she must think longer-term than the average person. He or she is
able to view the macro picture (Peters & Waterman, 1982). "They can
describe the outlines of a possible future that lifts and moves
people; or that they actually discern, in the cluster and confusion
of the present, the elements that determine what is to come"
(Gardner, 1990, p. 131-132). "While managers must focus on the
bottom line, leaders must look to the top line for clear vision and

direction. Where there is not vision, says the proverb, people

perish" (Covey, 1991, p. 69-70).

A successful visionary is indicated by the fact that he is a

"risk taker" (Peters & Austin, 1985, Townsend, 1986, VanTrease,

1991). " The president is expected to know where the organization

should be headed, and acts as the catalyst to keep all aspects of

organizational effort focused on progress towards the objective"

(McHugh, 1991, p. 142). The community college leader possesses a

vision of the institution and the willingness and ability to share

with others what he desires for the future. These visions are

shared with people who can help make the vision successful (Balasco,

1990, Peters & Waterman, 1982, Townsend, 1986). He must be

committed to change and communicate this change in the form of a

vision. The leader delegates and empowers others in the

institution. He is motivated and able to motivate others (Roueche,

Baker III, & Rose, 1989). One of the problems facing the community

college president is "a better educated work force that

is eager to apply and develop its abilities on a job would probably

thrive under a leader who transmitted a sense of mission, stimulated

learning experiences, and aroused new ways of thinking. On the

other hand, leaders who simply reward performance as contracted are

not likely to energize a work force expecting personal enrichment"

(Hater & Bass, 1988, p. 702).

Economic Development

Overlooked by community college presidents is involvement in the community's economic development. Economic development requires the institution to assist in securing new businesses for the community, and to train individuals for these new businesses. And, finally, to help maintain the established enterprise's work force. The community college is a viable source of trained labor and impacts the entire community directly. The community college affiliates with the community and is a key participant in the prosperity of the community.

The community college cannot solve all of the economic woes of the nation or their community. They have taken on a number of economic developments in the areas outside of the regular, credit curriculum in an effort to help solve these problems (Katsinas & Lacey, 1990). The problem that exists between the community and the institution evolves because there is no attempt to tie the college into community needs. Faculty and staff participation in economic development is a method that will improve the marketability of the student's learned skills. Yet, on the other side, is the idea that in order to retain its creditability a community college must reinforce its ties to the four-year baccalaureate colleges. Without transferability, the community college will die (Parnell, 1989). The president must balance the needs of the community against the affiliation to the four year college.

<u>Classification System for Rural</u>

<u>Community Colleges</u>

The current Carnegie Classification for Institutions of Higher Education published in 1987 has all community colleges listed in a single category, either public or private two-year institutions. The community colleges constitute approximately one-third of the educational institutions in the United States, yet no system of classification exists for the two-year colleges. "This lack of generally accepted classifications of community colleges has hindered our understanding about two-year colleges" (Katsinas, p. 19). Katsinas has proposed that the two-year institutions be divided into several sub-categories which "would expedite the creation of more explicit measurements by which to assess institutional transfer and social mobility" (p. 20).

The American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) has been divided into several special interest groups. For example, the rural community college area is one of the divisions. The AACC classified "about 600 institutions as small and rural, with 430 as being rural only" (Katsinas, p. 10). The rural community colleges resemble the original concepts of "comprehensive" institutions. The rural community colleges "possess vocational as well as transfer curricula, with strong emphasis on 'democracy education' to prepare students for active participation among the citizenry of a democracy" (Katsinas, p. 12). These institutions are closely tied to the needs of the community.

Decision Maker

McHugh (1991) surveyed presidents, deans, and chairpersons in education. The decision making process was ranked as the highest among all of the tested concerns. A president needs to use the information systems available in an effort to assist him with the decision-making process. "Decision-making in the decade ahead must be based more on fact than opinion" (Lorenzo & Banach, 1991, p. 18). The decision making process is where the ethical choice of an individual is demonstrated. In education, each state has its own style of control, traditions, mores, and legal arrangements. Institutions are governed by outsider boards of lay governance as well as people within the institution, making the process to determine the ethics of the president more difficult. The process ends with the president and he or she is ultimately responsible for all activities within the institution. The president is a key figure in holding the entire system together, with the interjection of management decisions from a lay governance entity.

Leadership Paradigm

"Leadership is the ability to influence, shape, and embed values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors consistent with increased staff and faculty commitment to the unique mission of the community college" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose. 1989, p. 18). "Excellent community college leaders envision and plan for the growth of a college culture; they influence and are influenced by their followers as individuals; they model value, respect, and seek to

empower others; and they demonstrate strong personal values and honor the intellectual and individual development of others" (Gillett-Karam, 1991, p. 38). "Leaders accumulate power through their offices and their own personalities to the extent that they produce the expected rewards and fairly distributed them and lose power to the extent they do not. Leadership, in other words, is limited by what followers will permit" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 138). The community college president returns to the group tangible and intangible rewards desired by the group. These rewards are confirmed in research by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) indicating that leadership in the community college is "the ability of the community college president to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them in order to accomplish the college's mission and purpose" (p. 11).

Fisher (1988) proposes there are only "two schools of academic thought on leadership: situational and trait" (p. 160). First, the leadership role is restricted to reacting to situations existing in the institutions. The second trait deals with the traditional aspects of leadership. "Some analysts believe that the role of leaders is to "manage" the organization culture; others believe that culture cannot be managed and that the role of leaders is therefore more symbolic than real" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 142).

McHugh (1991) indicated that leadership behaviors were not exactly the same as those predicted by the literature as being important to college leadership. The research ranks in order from

most important to least the aspects of the president role: "1)
administration leadership; 2) academic leadership; 3) external
relations; and 4) internal relation" (p. 139). The significance of
this research is that the first most important role, administration,
is a management function not a leadership function.

Aspects of Presidents of Small
Community Colleges

The above elements are just a few of the more important
characteristics attributed to a community college president. Every
individual has his or her own technique for leading the institution,
but the major components mentioned in this study are mandatory for
all. His or her success depends on his or her ability to "take
risk," be a visionary, make decisions that will directly impact his
or her staff and faculty, as well as the future of the school's
students. The community college president must lead the institution
in a style that promotes academic excellence at a marketable price
to the community and provides business in the community with a means
to thrive (Fisher, 1988, McCabe, 1988).

Characteristics demonstrated by a successful community college
president are his or her ability to interface with the community.
He or she is politically cognitive and willing to sacrifice some of
his autonomy in favor of the community. The president perceives
himself or herself as having high moral and ethical values. Many
community college presidents practice "a form of leadership that is
based on moral authority, but often this practice is not

acknowledged as leadership" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 119). Each felt that what he or she is doing makes a difference in the future of the community and the students. The president's goal should provide the community with some long-lasting benefit. Each president has an agenda that benefits the community and his college while providing him with a legacy.

The future requires that the president spends less time on the "nuts and bolts" of the college and more on the universal aspect of the community and college. "A new moral principle is emerging which holds that the only authority deserving one's allegiance is that which is freely and knowingly granted by the led to the leader in response to, and in proportion to, the clearly evident servant stature of the leader" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 10). There is a need for community college presidents to become more leaders and less managers. The community college president is the future of his or her community, his or her college, and his or her country.

Summary

The leadership paradigms of the past dealt with methodologies that did not consider the follower in the decision-making process and, therefore, ethics were not a consideration. Scientific management assumes that a follower is beneficial to the leaders only because of his or her economic benefit. "The scientific management style is authoritarian and the manager manipulate the reward system to get the behavior they desire" (Covey, 1991, p. 177). The behavioral management paradigm is cognizant on the follower if the

follower provides an economic benefit to the leader and ethics is not a consideration in this relationship (Covey, 1991, George, 1972, Jennings, 1960, Tead, 1935).

In describing desirable leadership behaviors, there is isolation of ethics from leadership in the current research. There is a need to identify leadership behavior and moral judgment associated with the decision making process of the small community college leader. The leadership behaviors and ethics have been studied extensively by themselves, but their affiliation is sparse. According to Rest (1986) moral judgment is not only an issue of the psychology of morality, but an understanding and prediction of actual moral behavior and decision making. And decision making is the foundation of leadership interaction with followers and evident in the definition of leadership.

In the past most researchers tend not to deal with ethics and leadership as a single issue. Most researchers discuss leadership and then ethics. But none seem to answer the question: Is there any correlation between ethics and leadership characteristics?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationships

between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small

community colleges. The research identified leadership styles and

moral judgments associated with the decision making process for

presidents of small community colleges. The method used to collect

the data was a survey. The survey contained an instrument to

identify leadership style and an instrument to identify moral

judgment.

A survey is a method used to collect large amounts of data from

specific populations. The survey is one of the most used research

tool, but it has the greatest potential for abuse. In spite of

potential abuse, the survey, when properly administered, provides an

abundance of data (Emory, 1976, Zemke & Kramlinger, 1982).

There were 458 community colleges identified as small from the

American Association of Community and Junior College (AACJC) 1992

membership directory. A student population of less than 3,000

was used to determine which institutions were classified as small

community colleges.

The survey was conducted in two steps. In the first step,

approximately five percent of the total population (23 presidents)

was randomly selected, establishing a pilot test sample. Each of the selected presidents was sent an invitation asking them to participate in the survey. The pilot test sample was not informed that they were a pilot test group. The purpose of the pilot test was to get an estimate of the potential response rate for the whole population.

The second step involved the remaining presidents of 435 small community colleges. The number of presidents represents the difference between the total population of 458 presidents and the pilot test sample of 23 presidents. The 435 individual presidents were sent a letter inviting them to participate in the leadership and ethics survey. The survey instruments were then sent to the presidents of small community colleges responding positively to the invitation request.

The results were reported as descriptive statistics.

> Studies aimed at description do not seek to discover correlations among variables which are then to be used as the basis for expos facto models which are fundamentally causal in nature (even though they may not use the terminology of causation). Rather descriptive studies simply focus on answering questions of fact using measures of central tendency and dispersion and confidence intervals (Sonquist & Dunkelberg, 1977, p. 356).

The responses collected were reported in the form of descriptive statistics. The object of this type of statistical process was to determine the "who, what, when, where, and how" of a topic, and not "why." Descriptive research demands high standards of design, implementation and scientific skills (Emory, 1976).

There was no null hypothesis to accept or reject. The survey's design evolves around answering the five research questions stated in Chapter I.

Sampling Technique

There are two general types of populations. One is an infinite population, the whole of mankind or the whole of any item. The other is a finite population, with members who are similar in nature, occurring in limited and determinable numbers (Mason, 1978).

Community college presidents are limited in number and constitute a finite population. There are two primary methods of collecting data from a finite population. They are the segmentation and holistic approaches. The segmentation method examines a representative segment of the population "about which we wish to make inferences" (Emory, 1976, p. 135). The segmentation sampling technique uses only a percentage of the total population. Sampling is based on the premise "that there is enough similarity among the elements in a population that a few of these elements will adequately represent the characteristics of the total population" (Emory, 1976, p. 135). "The purpose of sampling is to estimate a population parameter based on a sample statistic" (Mason, 1978, p. 259).

The holistic method requires that a survey includes the entire population. The holistic method is appropriate in surveying smaller populations. A survey utilizing the holistic method increases the validity of the research based on the percentage of the finite

population responding (Emory, 1976, Keppel, 1991, Sanders, 1990).

The results of research that includes the whole population are

representative of the finite population and possess a high level of

confidence.

If the whole population is the sample and all members of the

population is invited to participate, then all of the subjects must

participate (Keppel, 1992, Warde, 1990). This is the only ways in

which the sample is not one of self-selection. Research is normally

one of self selection (Emory, 1976, Keppel, 1991, Warde, 1990).

For success of the sampling technique, the sample's mean must

approximate the population's mean (Emory, 1076, Mason, 1978,

Sanders, 1990). The results from a well defined finite population

cannot be expanded beyond the population (Emory, 1976, Sanders,

1990). If the whole population is selected and responds positively,

then all sampling errors are eliminated. The errors eliminated are:

1) the independent-variable confounding factors which are

controlled, and held constant; 2) nuisance variable is eliminated;

3) Type I and Type II errors are also held to a minimum (Keppel,

1991, Mason, 1978). The presidents of small community colleges

constitute a homogeneous group based on the characteristics and size

of their institutions.

The Sample. Regardless of the selection method used, a sample

is normally one of convenience. The subjects are invited

to participate in a study and they determine by their response

the participation rate. Therefore, there was no control over the

subjects' willingness to participate. The sampling technique

selected provided a sample with the opportunity to participate.

The sample selects itself based on the each subject's

willingness to participate. A sample of convenience occurs because

the individuals determine whether they elect to participate.

Finally, regardless of the selection method, the sampling technique

is one of self selection (Warde, 1992).

"The failure to sample randomly from a known population means

that we are not justified statistically in extending our results

beyond the bounds of the experiment itself" (Keppel, 1991, p. 17).

Utilizing the whole finite population reduces the effects associated

with nonprobability sampling and the actual response rate becomes

the limiting factor (Emory, 1976, Mason, 1978).

Population. There were 458 small community colleges selected

from a list of all the community colleges. These colleges have a

student population of fewer than 3,000 (Mahoney, 1992). Each small

community college had an equal chance of participating in the

survey.

The sample population consisted of presidents and members of

their administrative teams from small community colleges in the

United States. There were approximately 1,032 community colleges

within the United States with a total student population of

approximately 7.5 million. The sample population consisted of

those institutions with a total enrollment of less than 3,000

students in 1992, according to the AACJC's membership manual. There

were 458 institutions that meet this student population criteria.

There were 23 institutions that claimed a student population of zero. They are not included in the 458 schools because their actual size is undetermined.

Adjustment for Non-Respondents. The non-response error causes population bias if the non-respondents differ from the respondents in some systematic way (Emory, 1976). One effective method of handling the non-respondents is to make additional attempts to secure these individuals as subjects for the survey (Emory, 1976, Russell, 1991, Zemke & Kramlinger, 1982).

The second method is to survey a sample of the non-respondents. If the non-respondents demonstrate characteristics similar to those of the respondents, then the results can be expanded to the entire population. A limitation of this process is determining whether the responses of the non-respondents are actually representative of the remaining non-respondents or just normal respondents who are responding late.

The third method is to compensate for the non-respondents statistically. A power calculation provides an insight into the significant level of the smaller sample (Keppel, 1990). Finally, a correction factor demonstrates the degree to which the results may be extended beyond the respondents. The correction factor for a finite population is:

$$\sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \times \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$$

N = Total Population

n = number of respondents

p = point estimator (Mason, 1978, p. 266).

This correction factor is valid, provided the sample size does not

fall below 5 percent of the finite population (Mason, 1978).

Sanders (1990) calculates the standard error for a finite population

with the following formula:

$$\delta_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\delta}{\sqrt{n}} \times \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$$

δ = the population standard deviation

N = population size

X = sample mean

n = sample size

μ = population mean

$\sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$ = finite population correction factor

The standard error is computed as follows:

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X-\mu)^2}{N}} \quad \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$$

(Sanders, 1991, p. 230)

The correction factor allows the researcher to make assumptions about the reliability of the research based on these correction factors. If the researcher calculates a correction factor of 0.78, this indicates that 78 percent of the time acceptance or rejection of the research question, as it applies to the whole population, is valid. The larger the percentage of the sample population surveyed, the less the need for a correction factor. "As the sample size increases, we have more information on which to estimate the population mean, and thus the probable difference between the true value and any sample outcome decreases" (Sanders, 1991, p. 232). The correction factor may be eliminated if the sample size is relatively large in relation to the finite population (Mason, 1978, Sanders, 1991). As the sample mean approaches the population mean, the correction factor approaches 1.0. This indicates that the sample was representative of the population (Mason, 1978, Sanders, 1991). The correction factor was reported to demonstrate the congruency among the respondents.

The Instruments

Two instruments were used in this survey. Most experts in the area of social-psychological research contend that using two instruments maximizes the effectiveness and expands the scope of the study. This is due in part to the fact that in most cases no single instrument can measure what the research desires or needs. When using more than one instrument, it is necessary to examine each

instrument independently. The reliability of each subsequent test is critical, not the overall testing (Gay, 1985).

Predictive validity is concerned with how well the instrument assesses the subjects. "The practical task is really to compare the average performance of respondents selected through use of the scale in question with that of those selected through other methods" (Sonquist & Dunkelberg, 1977, p. 334).

The predictive reliability is how well the instrument actually determines the future characteristic or behavior of the subjects. This predictability is determined by several researchers using the instrument and demonstrating comparable results. The Defining Issues Test (DIT) has been used in more that 1,000 surveys and the results are consistent, indicating complete instrument reliability.

The validity of an instrument is determined by answering the question, "Did the test measure what is was supposed to measure?" (Nunnally, 1964, Kurtz & Mayo, 1979). There are various types of validity. Two broad aspects of validity involve external and internal validity. The external validity is a sampling problem and is concerned with how the research relates to the sample population (Son & Dunk, 1977). The internal validity is concerned with all aspects of the survey instrument through multiple testings.

Each of the instruments has been validated by its respective authors and have been proven reliable by subsequent research. The first instrument is the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II (MCLQ) revised by Baker (1991) from the Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) study in Shared Vision. The MCLQ was

developed at the University of Texas at Austin by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) and revised by Baker and Russell (1991) and compiled by a panel of experts nationally known in the field of community college president leadership.

The original MCLQ was validated by Baker and a panel of experts at the University of Texas. The instrument has been slightly modified and revalidated since its conception. "This instrument has been validated through several research studies and was used to collect data concerning the style of presidential leadership in the selected community colleges" (Russell, 1991, p. 57). When comparing the current MCLQ to the original, Russell's research (1991) found "the statements of the MCLQ were reoriented and now more accurately reflect the leadership behavior found in community college administrators" (p. 57).

The response sheet was compressed from five columns to one, simplifying the scoring procedure and requiring the respondents to return the form for scoring. George Baker III authorized this change and confirmed that it would have no effect on the response patterns of the respondents.

According to Russell (1991), the reliability and validity of the MCLQ appear to be extremely high in determining leadership behavior within the community college system. "The high Cronbach Alphas and the increase in correlations found in [the Russell] study complement the work already done by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) and lend credence to the further use of the data in statistical analysis. . ." (Russell, 1990, p. 77). The reliability

of the instrument has a Cronbach Alpha ranging form a low of 0.75 to

a high of 0.97 (Russell, 1990).

The MCLQ was lengthened so that seven items determined the

leadership styles. Lengthening the test is "the most rational way

to increase reliability" (Gay, 1985, p. 177). Lengthening an

already proven test improves the test's reliability because it

measure more of the area being sampled (Gay, 1985). The ideal

situation is to create a test long enough to measure all behaviors

required, but no longer than necessary (Zemke & Kramlinger, 1982).

The revised MCLQ appears to meet this criterion.

The MCLQ's scoring method has been changed from the original

seven point Likert scale to a percentage system. This improved the

scoring method by transforming the scoring from an ordinate to an

interval scale. The respondent reads each statement and enters a

number that indicates how well each statement applies to the college

president. The scores obtained from the MCLQ are interval because

they represent a percentage. The respondents answer with a number

from 0 to 100 indicating how well each statement applies, or a

blank, which indicates that this particular statement does not

apply. The responses are then presented as an absolute. This type

of modification only increases the instrument's reliability (Gay,

1985). The MCLQ is used with the permission of the author.

The Roueche, Baker, and Rose leadership test was revised by

Baker and includes the ethical component as a leadership style.

This ethical component is primarily concerned with the question,

"Does the chief executive officer display ethical preference?"

The reliability of an instrument is concerned with how well the test supplies the researcher with results that are respectable (Nunnally, 1964). A method of measuring the reliability of an instrument is the split-half technique. "The instrument is administered to the subject, and then the results are separated by item into two randomly selected halves. These are then compared; if the results are similar, the instrument is said to have a high reliability in the equivalence sense" (Emory, 1976, p. 125).

The MCLQ demonstrated a high level of reliability as measured by the split-half technique. The results of the presidents' scores were identical for a sample size of 89. The mean scores for the members of the administrative teams was not as consistent as the presidents' self-evaluations.

The second instrument is the DIT, developed by James Rest and tested in more than 1,000 situations. "A review of several studies by Davison and Bobbins (1978) concludes that the test-retest reliability for the P and D scores are generally in the high .70s or .80s and that the Cronbach Alpha index of internal consistency is generally in the high .70s" (Rest, 1993, p. 25). "The DIT is based on the premise that people at different points of development interpret moral dilemmas differently, define the critical issues of dilemmas differently, and have different intuitions about what is right and fair in a situation" (Rest, 1986, p. 196). The DIT is based on Kohlberg's research on moral judgment, but there are several methodological and theoretical differences from the Kohlberg study (Rest, 1986).

The tasks assigned in the DIT research are easier for the subject to understand than were those in the Kohlberg experiments. The scores derived from the Rest DIT questionnaire parallel the six Kohlberg stages of cognitive development, but they are more explicit.

The DIT measures the moral reasoning or moral judgment of the subjects and returns a score used to identify the subject's principled morality. The most used score from the DIT is the "P score" index, P standing for "principled morality," derived from Stages 5A, 5B and 6 (Rest, 1986). This score is converted to a percentage relating to stages 5A, 5B and 6 from the DIT (Rest, 1993). The scores obtained from this instrument are ordinal and must be interpreted as relative scores in the statistical analysis process. The DIT provides greater depth to the study of moral judgment than does the MCLQ. The construct and concurrent validity of the DIT have been proven in more than a thousand tests. The DIT is used with the permission of the author.

An individual's moral judgment position was based on the way the individual applied his or her personal values in responding to the test questions as measured by the DIT. The DIT questionnaires were sent to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development for tabulation. The Center returned a complete report containing the raw data and the processed data. The report received from the Center contained a consistency check that recommended rejecting selected subjects because of inconsistencies in their DIT questionnaires.

The Center returned several scores. A meaninglessness value was indicated by an M score. An anti-establishment attitude was noted by an A score. Principled morality was represented by a P factor. The Thoma Utilizer score was represented by an U score. The report also contained the scores of each of the subjects in each of the six Kohlberg's stages. The consistency check and the M value are used to purge subjects scores from the results (Rest, 1993; Rest, 1989). The consistency check is designed to identify subjects who randomly mark items on the questionnaire. It works by comparing the rating data with the ranking data for each of the stories. The M score indicates that the selection process used by an individual does not represent a specific point of view (Rest, 1993). "The 'A' point of view is critical but offers nothing positive in its place" (Rest, 1993, p. 12).

The principled morality (P) factor is reported as a percentage and is the value most used in determining an individual's moral judgment. The P score is "the simple sum of the scores for Stages 5A, 5B, and 6 converted to a percent" (Rest, 1993, p. 13). These three scores are combined because "they behave very similarly empirically, and theoretically they are all versions of principled moral thinking" (Rest, 1993, p. 13).

The Thoma Utilizer (U) score, as stated in Thoma's dissertation, "involves the degree to which a subject uses concepts of justice in making moral judgment" (Rest, 1993, p. 13). This score tends to be more experimental than the other scores reported.

The meaninglessness (M) score is a reliability check of the subjects taking the DIT. The lower the M score, the more consistent the subject was throughout the test. Normally, most individuals fail the consistency check because they are tired, not sufficiently motivated or lack the reading skills necessary to complete the DIT (Rest, 1993). Presidents failing the consistency check or the M score were eliminated from the calculations involving the DIT. They were, however, included in the demographics and the independent variable calculations.

The anti-establishment (A) score indicates that the individual understands the current legal system as indicated by Stage 4, "but fault existing authority and 'the establishment' for being hypocritical and inconsistent with its own rationale" (Rest, 1993, p. 12).

Combining the two instruments made it possible to categorize the presidents of the small community colleges by their dominant leadership styles, as well as to identify their prospective principled morality or P scores. All presidents who have similar dominant leadership styles, based on the Friedman Two-way Analysis of Variance, are placed into groups. The principled morality and the Thoma Utilizer scores were weighted, averaged and totaled, providing an average P and U score for each of the five leadership styles. Relationships between leadership style and moral judgment behavior for presidents of the small community college were identified.

Distribution of Survey

The survey was accomplished in two phases, the pilot test and the survey. The initial distribution process used in each phase was identical. The only differences were the sample sizes and the sample selection method. Due to the expense, time and level of commitment required of the subjects with this type of testing, a letter inviting participation by the presidents of small community colleges was sent to the entire population. The letter briefly explained the proposed study and indicated that the president would need to select three members of his or her administrative team. These team members were also administered a segment of the MCLQ. The letter identified the range of time each president needed to allocate for the survey. (See Appendix A.) Each letter contained a postcard that was returned. (See Appendix B.) The presidents of small community colleges choosing not to participate had the opportunity to state why they elected not to participate.

Presidents indicating that they would participate were sent the MCLQ-DIT packet. (See Appendix D.) The packet contained an introductory letter, an MCLQ instrument and a DIT questionnaire for the college president. Three CEO evaluation questionnaires for three of the administrative team members were also included. The team members sealed their responses in unmarked envelopes and returned them to the president. Only presidents of the small community colleges completed the DIT questionnaire. The presidents returned all of the completed forms in a single envelope.

Pilot Test

The purpose of a pilot test is to establish parameters and provide a foundation for the main survey. This pilot test was used to project the return rate and identify potential problems with the instruments or sample. Several problems with the research demeanor were identified and corrected.

The pilot test was initiated in order to estimate the response rate for the survey. This pilot test involved five percent, or a total of 23, of the presidents of small community colleges.

They were selected randomly by the computer from the population. Every president within the entire population of small community colleges had an equal chance of being selected. In spite of every effort to make the selection process random, in the final analysis the selection process is one of self selection (Keppel, 1991, Warde, 1992).

Pilot Test Return Rate

The invitation to participate was sent to 23 randomly selected presidents. Sixteen returned the enclosed card, for a 70 percent return rate. Ten agreed to participate and six elected not to participate. The ten were sent the questionnaire packet. After three weeks only two had responded, one returning the questionnaire completed and the other returning an uncompleted form. A second contact was made with the eight remaining non-participants. The contact was made by sending the non-respondents a facsimile (FAX). Two additional presidents responded by returning a completed packet.

This provided the pilot test database with three complete forms and six packets outstanding. The final return rate was 30 percent of the original ten who agreed to participate. Thirteen percent of the total randomly selected population completed the questionnaires.

Pilot Test Non-Responses. In the pilot test, only two of the ten participants had returned their survey forms within a three week period. One was completed and the other was not. After the three weeks, a FAX was sent to the eight non-respondents. The FAX solicited the non-respondents to complete and return the survey forms. The FAX generated two additional responses. There was no attempt to replace the non-respondents in the pilot test. Those individuals who responded negatively to the initial inquiry were not contacted again. The respondents and non-respondents for the pilot test were not included in the survey.

Demographics for the Pilot Test

The profile of the three respondents indicated that they were all Caucasian male. They each had more than 20 years of experience. They were over the age of 50 and had earned doctoral degrees acquired in the 1980s.

Neither correlations nor inferences can be made due to the small sample size. The profile of the administrative team members was more varied. The administrative teams were composed of nine individuals, six male and three female. Eight were Caucasian and one of Asian or Pacific Islander descent. The ages of the administrative team members ranged from 30 to more than 60 years.

Their experiences were just as varied. Six had received doctoral

and three master degrees. All nine administrative team members had

received their last degree in the 1980s.

Pilot Test Treatment

The treatment of the subjects was divided into two parts, the

MCLQ results and DIT results. Due to the low response rate of the

pilot test, the information cannot technically be generalized to the

whole population.

The pilot test population mean was 89.40. A standard deviation

of 4.17 was calculation by Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3. The presidents' self-

evaluation and team members' mean scores for the MCLQ were

calculated.

Using the presidents' self-evaluation mean and the mean

scores from the administrative teams, a Friedman Two-way Analysis of

Variance was used. The presidents were divided by their dominant

leadership styles. A Friedman test was used to calculate the

dominant leadership style of each president separately. The results

of the Friedman analysis were that two presidents demonstrated

intuitive leadership style dominance with an average principled

morality score of 39.2. One president showed an ethical leadership

style dominance with a principled morality score of 50.0.

The stage was set for the survey. The pilot test provided an

expected return rate of 70 percent for the invitation and a 13

percent return rate for the completed packets. The pilot test

revealed several mechanical problems which were corrected for the
survey.

Non-Respondents. The subjects who agreed to participate but
did not return the packet within a five week period were contacted a
second time by postcard. The postcard was mailed to 105 presidents
of the original 181 who agreed to participate but had not returned
the MCLQ and the DIT. An additional 13 presidents responded to the
follow-up postcard.

Data Collection

The data were collected by sending the packets to the small
community college presidents responding favorably to the invitation
letter. The packet included five instruments, one president self-
rating MCLQ, three team member MCLQs and one DIT for the president.
Three plain envelopes which allowed the three team members to
conceal their responses were enclosed with one self-addressed
stamped return envelope. A letter was included thanking all for
their willingness to participate and stating the need for urgency.
(See Appendix C.)

Analysis

The results were evaluated with descriptive statistics in
several ways. The relationships between the leadership styles as
independent variables and principled morality as the dependent
variable were statistically determined. The independent variables

from the MCLQ were the leadership styles intuitive, influential,

people oriented, motivational, and ethical.

The mean scores from the MCLQ instrument completed by the

presidents and by the team members provided values for comparison.

Each of the survey instruments was entered into a Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3

file. This file recorded the demographics for each president and

his or her team members. Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3 was utilized to calculate an

arithmetic mean score from each member of the administrative team.

An arithmetic mean was calculated for each team member in each of

the five leadership styles. The three arithmetic means were

combined into a single average mean for each of the five leadership

styles. The single average mean and the mean from the presidents'

self-evaluations were used in calculating the dominant leadership

styles of the presidents.

The t-test is a nonparametric test that represents the

distribution of the mean scores from two groups. The t-test is

useful with small groups of independent data. A t-test is used to

determine the statistical differences between two sets of data

(Brase & Brase, 1991, Emory, 1976, Gay, 1985, Mason, 1978, Sanders,

1990). The mean scores from the president self-evaluations and the

average means from the team member evaluations of the presidents

were entered into a t-test program developed for this study (O'Dell,

1984). The t-test was used to determine if there were any

significant differences between the perceptions of the two groups

about the leadership styles of the presidents. A confidence level

of 0.01 was used in determining if the president's self-evaluation

and the evaluation by his or her administrative team members were similar.

With a confidence level of 0.01, the t-value is 3.4. A confidence level of 0.01 indicates that in only one percent of the time are the similarities of the two groups due to chance. Respondents who failed the t-test of significance agreed with each other on the leadership styles of the presidents. A t-test with a negative value indicates that the team member average mean scores were greater that the president self-evaluation mean scores. A group t-test score below the 3.4 level indicates that the mean scores were not significantly different. At a confidence level of 0.01, it is assumed that the means are the same and their differences due to chance would occur one in one-hundred times. If the t-value "exceeds 3.36, we can be 99 percent sure that there is a real, not chance, difference between the groups" (O'Dell, 1984, p. 250). This t-test is not concerned with the difference but the sameness of mean scores from the president and the average mean from the team members. The ideal situation would have occurred if all the mean scores through all five leadership styles were identical. This would have indicated that the presidents and members of their administrative teams agreed upon the president dominant leadership style.

The MCLQ mean data were transferred to a SYSTAT^{Tm} file and a Friedman two-way analysis of variance was performed. The Friedman analysis utilizes the president mean score and the average mean score of members of the administrative team to indicate which

leadership style was dominant. The Friedman analysis identified the leadership style which was the most dominant. The Friedman analysis provided a scale of one to ten, with ten indicating the most dominant leadership style. This leadership style became the independent variable.

"The Kendall coefficient of concordance is an estimate of the average correlation" between the values or ratings processed by the Friedman analysis (Systat, 1990, p. 400). Kendall's coefficient "measures the degree of agreement among many ordinal-scaled variables when ranked" (Mason, 1978, p. 303). The chi-square is used in conjunction with the Kendall coefficient. If the computed value of chi-square is less than the critical value, then the sampled population has agreement with respect to the test (Brase & Brase, 1991, Mason, 1978, Sanders, 1990). The chi-square "goodness of fit test" evaluates how well the population follows normality or uniform distribution (Sanders, 1990). A computed chi-square value of zero is ideal. Therefore, the lower the chi-square, the more agreement there is within the sample (Brase & Brase, 1991, Sanders, 1990).

The dependent variable is the principled morality score for the presidents of the small community colleges. The dependent variable correlates to the Kohlberg and Rest morality stage theories. Rest's moral judgments of the respondents are divided into six stages which are numbered to equate them with Kohlberg's original list:
2) fairness of simple exchange, 3) maintaining a relationship,
4) legal and formal structure, 5A) abiding by the will of the

people, 5B) social arrangements and relationships in terms of intuitively appealing ideas, and 6) optimized mutual human welfare, (Rest, 1986, 1993).

The study is concerned primarily with the principled morality (P) score and the Thoma Utilizer or concept of law and order (U score) score. The P score is derived from answers to the questionnaire attributed to stages five and six of the Kohlberg and Rest stage theories. The U score is based on action the respondents make and the logical implications associated with that selection.

The concept of law and order (U) score is a theoretical score that "represents the degree to which a subject uses the concepts of justice in making moral judgments" (Rest, 1993, p. 13). The U score separates what is "right or wrong" from what is "fair or just." A low Thoma Utilizer score indicates "that the person makes moral decisions on some different basis than the concepts of justice" (Rest, 1993, p. 13). The U score can range from +1.0 to - 1.0.

The DIT was sent to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development for tabulation. The principled morality score and the Thoma U score were requested. "These indices represent a subject's development level in terms of continuous variable" (Rest, 1986, p. 199). For this reason, it was not included in the results but is reported in Appendix F.

The principled morality scores on the DIT reflect the percent to which the community college presidents utilize their values in

making moral decisions. The MCLQ and DIT were examined together to determine whether there was a relationship between leadership styles and principled morality.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF LEADERSHIP AND DEFINING

ISSUES SURVEYS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to identify the relationships

between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small

community colleges.

The Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II (MCLQ) was

used to determine the leadership styles of the presidents. The data

were collected from the self-evaluations of the presidents and

evaluations by their administrative teams. The MCLQ information was

processed with Systat^{Tm}, Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3 and a BASIC t-test program.

The Defining Issues Test (DIT) was used to identify the moral

judgment of the presidents. The information was processed and

compiled by the University of Minnesota Center for the Study of

Ethical Development with an optical reader and a mainframe program

designed specifically to process the DIT data.

This chapter contains the results of the surveys and a

statistical analysis of the data. The survey's results are reported

as descriptive statistical information.

The study was divided into two sections. The first part was a

pilot test. The results of the pilot test were reported separately

from the results collected from the population, and were related in Chapter III.

Research Questions

1. What are the leadership styles of presidents of small community colleges?

2. What is the relationship between the ways presidents of small community colleges perceive themselves and how they are perceived by members of their administrative teams?

3. To what extent do presidents of small community colleges use the concept of law and order in making moral judgments?

4. What is the relationship between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small community colleges?

Analysis of Data

The study used several statistical methods. The returned MCLQ forms were entered into a Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3 spreadsheet. Demographic information was recorded and the actual values from each questionnaire. The arithmetic mean was calculated for each of the five leadership styles. The self-evaluation of the presidents and the evaluations of their team members were averaged. The mean scores from each team member were combined into an average mean. This provided two arithmetic means for each president, a self-evaluation and the average of his or her team members. A t-test was performed on the MCLQ means for each president's and team members' average mean scores. The purpose of this statistical calculation

was to determine whether the president's self-evaluation agreed with the evaluations by the team members. The t-test computer program was constructed from a sample program by O'Dell (1984).

A Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance was performed on the data. The Friedman analysis provided a value identifying the dominant leadership styles for each president.

Survey

Correction Factor

In a finite sample, the correction factor provides an accurate standard error of measurement and provides a procedure for expansion of the results (Sanders, 1991). Calculation of the population's standard deviation and correction factors with a population containing 458 subjects was performed. A standard deviation of 1.67 was calculated using the mean scores of the presidents and the mean scores of members of the administrative teams. The error correction value was developed from the formula presented in Chapter III. The overall correction factor was 0.92. The standard error for this finite population was 0.183.

Return Rate

The presidents of small community colleges who were not randomly selected as part of the pilot test comprised the surveyed population. This population was composed of the presidents from 435 small community colleges selected from the total finite population of 458. This population was identified by using the American

Association of Community and Junior Colleges 1992 Directory. An invitation to participate in the survey was sent to all 435 presidents of the small community colleges.

The return rate from the invitation was 70 percent. There were 181 who agreed to participate and 122 who chose not to participate in the leadership and ethics survey. Seventy-five or 62 percent of the 122 respondents who chose not to participate provided reasons of their unwillingness to participate.

The two most frequently cited reasons given by the non-participants were a lack of time and a pending or current change in leadership. Forty-seven percent of the non-participating respondents stated that time was a factor in electing not to participate. Twenty-nine percent of the presidents indicated that the reason for not participating concerned changes in their current leadership. One school stated that it was not a small college and eight institutions stated that they were not community colleges. Two of the colleges were closed during the survey period. One college was being closed and three stated that they were either not interested in or saw no value in the study. One president stated that he would participate but could not commit any of the staff's time to the survey. One said that all studies had to be coordinated through a state agency. And finally, one response was not readable.

A packet was sent to the 181 presidents who indicated that they were willing to participate. This accounted for 41.6 percent of the population. The presidents returned 85 completed packets, four were partially completed, and three uncompleted. Two uncompleted packets

were returned with the explanation that they lacked the time necessary to complete the survey. The other returnee stated that he or she could not remember agreeing to participate. The return rate for the presidents who initially agreed to participate was 47.5 percent or 19.8 percent of the population.

There were nine small community colleges that had two team members responding to the survey. All other responding institutions had three responding members of the administrative teams. The surveys containing two administrative team members were treated identically to the surveys containing three administrative team members. The relatively small student popultions of these instiltutions may have been an indication that they may have had only two administrative team members.

There were 85 DIT instruments sent to Dr. James Rest at the University of Minnesota Center for the Study of Ethical Development for tabulation. There were 71 respondents who survived all of the confounding barriers imposed by the DIT scoring checks and balances. There were four subjects rejected for using the same ranking method on several different stories. One subject was rejected for having an M or meaninglessness score greater than 8. This same subject was also among the ten rejected by the inconsistencies check, which involved having scoring incongruity in more than two stories. The Center for the Study of Ethical Development recommended removing from the sample population 14 DIT scores for a rejection rate of 12 percent.

The presidents returned 89 completed MCLQ instruments. All of these questionnaires were tabulated and used in the leadership style statistics including demographics. A total of 71 DIT scores survived all the consistency and meaninglessness tests imposed by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development. These scores were used to evaluate principled morality and the concepts of law and order consequences.

Demographics

The presidents and members of their administrative teams were requested to complete the demographic section of the MCLQ. (Refer to Appendix D for a sample of this section of the survey.) The demographic questions for the presidents and team members were identical except that the presidents were asked one additional question regarding the classification of their colleges. The presidents were asked to identify the classification of their colleges. They selected from among rural, suburban, and urban classifications. Of the small community colleges responding, 87 percent were rural.

All 11 of the female president respondents were leaders of rural colleges. Eight of the 11 female presidents possessed a doctoral degree. The demographics of the presidents are presented in Table II. The presidents are primarily white males in their fifties with advanced degrees and more than 20 years of community college experience.

The demographics of the team members are displayed in Table III. The team members are on average ten years younger than the presidents. While more than 87 percent of the presidents have doctoral degrees, 32 percent of the team members have doctoral degrees. More than 50 percent of the team members have Master's degrees. The total female segment of the population consisted of approximately one third of the responding team members. Twenty-five percent of the female members of the administrative team have their doctoral degrees.

TABLE II

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF PRESIDENTS

Demographics	Number	Percentage
Gender (N=89)		
Male	77	87
Female	11	12
Unknown	1	1
Ethnicity (N=89)		
American Indian	0	0
Asian or Pacific Islander	0	0
African - American	1	1
Hispanic	3	3
Caucasian	84	94
Unknown	1	1
Length in Community Colleges (N=89)		
0 - 4 years	1	1
5 - 9 years	7	8
10 - 14 years	10	11
15 - 19 years	17	19
20 years or more	53	60
Unknown	1	1

TABLE II (Continued)

Demographics	Number	Percentage
Age (N=89)		
29 or less	0	0
30 - 39	1	1
40 - 49	25	28
50 - 59	52	59
60 or more	10	11
Unknown	1	1
Time at this campus (N=89)		
0 - 4 years	18	20
5 - 9 years	24	27
10 - 14 years	14	16
15 - 19 years	8	9
20 years of more	22	25
Unknown	3	3
Level of education (N=89)		
Doctoral degree	75	84
Master's degree	13	15
Bachelor's degree	0	0
Associate degree	0	0
High-school diploma	0	0
Unknown	1	1
Received last degree (N=89)		
prior to 1949	0	0
1950 - 1959	0	0
1960 - 1969	16	18
1970 - 1979	40	45
1980 - 1989	29	33
1990 - present	3	3
Unknown	1	1
College Classification (N=89)		
Rural	77	87
Urban	2	2
Suburban	9	10
Unknown	1	1

Results

Lotus^{Tm} 1-2-3 was utilized in tabulating the subjects' completed
MCLQ. It was used to calculate several scores for the entire sample
and to score each of the major groups of individuals. The
presidents' overall mean score was 86.6, the team members' overall
mean score was 87.1, and the mean for all participants was 86.9 on
the MCLQ. The maximum mean in all areas was 100 and the minimum
mean was 40. A standard deviation of 8.1 was calculated for the
sample of 89 participants. This standard deviation score was higher
than the standard deviation calculation for the finite population
(N=458) which was 1.67. The presidents' self-evaluation mean scores
and the team members' scores of their leaders are presented in Table
IV by leadership styles. The mean scores from the self-evaluation
of the presidents and the evaluation of the team members measured
the same behaviors.

TABLE III

ADMINISTRATIVE TEAM MEMBER DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Demographics	Number	Percentage
Gender (N=258)		
Male	173	67
Female	85	33
Ethnicity (N=258)		
American Indian	4	2
Asian or Pacific Islander	0	0
African - American	8	3

TABLE III (Continued)

Demographics	Number	Percentage
Hispanic	1	< 1
Caucasian	245	95
Length in Community Colleges (N=258)		
0 - 4 years	20	8
5 - 9 years	43	17
10 - 14 years	47	18
15 - 19 years	54	21
20 years or more	91	35
Unknown	3	1
Age (N=258)		
29 or less	1	< 1
30 - 39	41	16
40 - 49	116	45
50 - 59	83	32
60 or more	16	6
Unknown	1	< 1
Time at this campus (N=258)		
0 - 4 years	59	23
5 - 9 years	64	25
10 - 14 years	34	13
15 - 19 years	32	12
20 years of more	65	25
Unknown	4	2
Level of education (N=258)		
Doctoral degree	83	32
Master's degree	137	53
Bachelor's degree	28	11
Associate degree	3	1
High-school diploma	5	2
Other	2	1
Received last degree (N=258)		
prior to 1949	0	0
1950 - 1959	10	4
1960 - 1969	34	13
1970 - 1979	98	38
1980 - 1989	88	34
1990 - present	24	9
Unknown	4	2

A t-test analysis was performed between presidents and team members. A confidence level of 0.01 was selected. The means of the presidents' self-evaluations and the average means of the team members had a t-value of negative 0.45 with 8 degrees of freedom. The t-value less than 3.4 indicated that the means were not significantly different at a confidence level of 0.01. Therefore, the presidents' self-evaluation scores and the evaluations of the presidents by the team member scores were in agreement for the sampled population.

A t-test was conducted between each of the 89 presidents and their administrative team members. At a confidence level of 0.01, there were 59 subjects who had t-values less than 3.4. This indicates that in 66 percent of the cases, the presidents' self-evaluations agreed with the team members' evaluations of them. The subjects whose mean scores were significant, with a t-value greater than 3.4, comprised approximately one-third of the sample.

A negative t-value indicated that the team members' overall ratings of their presidents were higher than the presidents' self ratings. A tabulation of the t-test scores indicated that 55 percent of t-values were negative.

The mean score from the self-evaluations by the presidents and their evaluations by the team members were used in determining the presidents' leadership styles. The evaluation was accomplished using the Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance.

TABLE IV

MCLQ MEAN SCORES

Leadership Style	President Average Mean Scores N=89	Team Member Average Mean Score N=258
Intuitive	85.2	87.9
Influential	85.3	86.6
People Oriented	86.6	87.0
Motivational	85.5	85.4
Ethical	90.5	88.9

The Friedman analysis provided a rank order enumeration for each of the five leadership styles. The numbers ranged from one to ten in determining the presidents' dominant leadership styles. A tie between two or more leadership styles was interpreted as to mean that no variance existed between the mean scores.

The descriptive statistics for the moral judgment scores of the sample population are displayed in Table V. Table V contains the group mean scores and the standard deviations for each of the six stages of moral development as well as the principled morality and Thoma U scores.

Tabulation of the DIT produces an anti-establishment score. It is intended to identify individuals who answer the questions from a

totally anti-establishment view point. These anti-establishment responses are not indicative of ethics or moral judgment as demonstrated in Stage 4. The anti-establishment score displays an individuals willingness to blame society as a solution in the decision making process. A high anti-establishment score indicates subject's contempt for the "establishment" as an entity. A high anti-establishment score was used to identify an individual who demonstrates this behavior in his or her responses.

The principled morality scores and concept of law and order scores in Table V are for the finite sample population as a whole. The study is concerned with the P and U scores and the corresponding leadership style. Rest proposed a "low," "medium," and "high" notation for the P scores. He recommended the following ranges as a dividing scale for the principled morality scores. The "low" P scores are all the scores up to 27. The "medium" P scores range from 28 to 41. The "high" P scores are from 42 and up. "The generalizations seems to hold well that the P scores from junior high school subjects average in the 20s, senior high school subjects are in the 30s, college subjects are in the 40s, graduate students are in the 50s, and Adults in general are in the 40s" (Rest, 1993, p. 19).

TABLE V

AVERAGE MORAL JUDGMENT MEAN SCORES FOR TOTAL SAMPLE

ID	Stages of Moral Development						P SCORE	U SCORE
	2	3	4	5A	5B	6		
MEAN	2.4	5.6	22.6	14.1	4.8	6.5	42.196	0.248
SD	1.8	4.4	7.1	5.4	3.3	3.5	12.791	0.167

N=71
Stages of Moral Development:
   2 -- Exchange   5A -- Due Process
   3 -- Conformity   5B -- Intuition
   4 -- Law and Order   6 -- Idealism

The anti-establishment mean score was 1.09 with a standard deviation of 1.58. This is lower than that of the graduate student who has an A score of 1.86 and a standard deviation of 2.43.

In Table VI, the total number of presidents who responded to the DIT are not whole numbers because if the Friedman analysis indicated a tie in two or more leadership styles, then the P score and U score were proportionally divided between the respective leadership styles that were identified as equal for that president.

There were a total of 8 presidents whose Friedman scores in two or more areas were equal. The leadership styles that scored equally high in more than one area were: intuitive --4; influential --1; people oriented --2; motivational --1; and ethical --5. These 13

rankings included 8 presidents, indicating that several scored high in more than two areas.

Calculating the principled morality score involved averaging the scores of all the presidents having the same Friedman value in each leadership style. Table VI contains the number of presidents associated with each leadership style. An arithmetic average for the principled morality scores and an arithmetic average for the Thoma Utilizer scores are displayed in Table VI. These arithmetic averages are based on a proportional distribution of each of the Friedman analysis rankings.

TABLE VI

PRESIDENT LEADERSHIP STYLES AND MORAL JUDGMENT

Leadership Style N=71	Number Responding Score	Principled Morality Score	Thoma Utilizer Score
Intuitive	17.83	44.47	0.229
Influential	5.00	43.84	0.181
People Oriented	11.00	43.19	0.250
Motivational	1.33	37.02	0.283
Ethical	35.83	39.25	0.238

Note: The fractional number responding is due to leaders having more than one dominate leadership style. In calculating the Thoma U, people had 1 and ethical had 2 missing scores.

Table VII contains the tabulation of all the responding presidents who completed the MCLQ. The number of respondents was divided proportionally between each of the dominant leadership styles. This segment of the population included the 71 who were included in Table VI plus an additional 18 respondents: four presidents who did not complete the DIT and the 14 presidents who were purged from the DIT tabulations due to inconsistent or incomplete responses.

TABLE VII

PRESIDENT LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR ALL RESPONDENTS ON THE MCLQ

Leadership Style	Number of Presidents N=89	Percentage of Presidents
Intuitive	21.6	24.3
Influential	6.3	7.0
People Oriented	15.3	17.1
Motivational	1.3	1.5
Ethical	44.6	50.1

The statistical tabulations for the two dependent variables are displayed in Table VIII. These tabulations demonstrate how each of the two scores measured by the DIT are statistically viewed.

TABLE VIII

STATISTICAL DATA FOR PRINCIPLED MORALITY AND THOMA UTILIZER

	Thoma Utilizer	Principled Morality
N of CASES	5	5
MINIMUM	37.0	0.181
MAXIMUM	44.5	0.283
MEAN *	41.6	0.236
MEDIAN	43.2	0.238
VARIANCE	10.6	0.001
STANDARD DEVIATION *	3.3	0.037
STANDARD ERROR	1.5	0.017
COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION	0.1	0.157
MEAN (DIT)	42.2	0.248
STANDARD DEVIATION (DIT)	13.0	0.167

*NOTE: Uses the average from each of the five different leadership styles N=5, as opposed the DIT values which uses all scores separately N=71.

A Friedman Two-way Analysis of Variance of the Principled Morality percentage and the Thoma Utilizer score provided a ranking for the five leadership styles. Table IX displays the Friedman

Ranking. The low Kendall concordance value indicates that these rankings are plausibly inconsistent and the chance for agreement between the two scores is negligible.

TABLE IX

FRIEDMAN RANKING OF P AND U SCORES BY LEADERSHIP STYLE

Leadership Style	Leadership Style Rank Scores
Intuitive	7.0
Influential	5.0
People Oriented	7.0
Motivational	6.0
Ethical	5.0

Friedman Test Statistic = 0.80
Kendall Coefficient of Concordance = 0.10
Probability is 0.938 assuming Chi-Square distribution with 4 DF

Summary of Results

The statistical methodology selected for reporting the results of the leadership style and moral judgment surveys was descriptive. Descriptive statistics mandate that the results be confined to the responding segment of the population and are not expanded to the population as a whole (Keppel, 1991, Mason, 1978, Sanders, 1992).

The percentage of presidents whose dominant leadership styles, based on the MCLQ, were intuitive or visionary accounted for 24.3 percent of the total 89 respondents. Seventeen percent (17%) of the presidents of small community colleges displayed "people orientation" as their dominant leadership styles. Fifty percent of the presidents were perceived as ethically oriented. The two remaining leadership styles were "influential orientation," which accounted for seven percent, and "motivational orientation," which was dominant in only two percent of the respondents. (See Table VII for a detailed accounting of each category.)

A t-test was conducted using the presidents' mean scores for each leadership style as one value and the average mean score from members of the administrative teams as the other value. A confidence level of 0.01 was used for determining agreement between the two groups in all five leadership style categories.

The t-test was performed in each of the leadership style categories using the presidents and administrative team member total mean scores. The overall t-value was a negative 0.45. The significant t-table value was 3.4 at a confidence level of 0.01. Second, the t-value was negative, indicating that the overall team members' evaluations of their presidents' leadership styles were greater than the presidents' self-evaluations.

The Thoma Utilizer score is an experimental value that relates the degree to which the subject used the concept of justice or simply law and order as opposed to some other moral value in his or her decision making process. Although the maximum range can be from

+1 to -1, the average range is from 0.1 to 0.2 (Rest, 1993). The U

scores for the presidents of small community colleges ranged from

0.181 to 0.283. The higher the score, the more the respondent

utilized the concept of law and order in their decision making

process.

The subjects completed the DIT by using their personal values

to make decisions with respect to each of the stories. The

individual values are displayed in the principled morality scores.

The principled morality scores for each of the five leadership

styles ranged from 37 to a maximum of 44 percentages. The mean

score was 42 with a median of 43. The P score's standard deviation

was 3.25 with a standard error of 1.45. Table VIII contains the

complete statistical information. The average P or U score for the

total population was displayed in Table V. Each of the leadership

style groups established their own average value of the P and U

scores. As a point of reference, Rest (1993) stated that a moral

philosopher or seminary student would typically have a P score of 65

or higher.

The independent variables intuitive, influential, and people

oriented leadership styles were relatively close in their average P

scores. The U score had a variance of 0.001 and a standard

deviation of 0.04. The motivational category included only one

president, but another president identified motivational as one of

several dominant leadership styles. The motivational leadership

style also demonstrated the lowest weighted average P score and the

highest U score. The last independent variable was the ethical

leadership style. The ethical leadership style was the dominant style for 50 percent of the total 89 respondents. Ethical leadership style received a weighted average principled morality score of 39.25 and a concept of law and order score of 0.24.

The leadership style scores were clustered with the majority of the presidents rated with a predominantly ethical leadership style. Yet this group has the second lowest weighted average principled morality score at 39.3. The highest weighted principled morality average scores included the second largest number of presidents. The intuitive leadership style was the dominant style for 25.1 percent of the population with a P score of 44.5.

The positive and negative aspects of the t-values communicate information beyond the concern for substantial levels of agreement. A negative t-value indicates that the team members rated the presidents higher in the overall leadership style profile than the presidents rated themselves. Examining only the ethical leadership styles, the team members rated the presidents higher than the presidents rated themselves in 62 percent of the cases. And Table IV indicates that the overall mean of the presidents' self-evaluation was greater than the overall average mean score of the team members for the ethical leadership style.

By combining the principled morality scores and the Thoma Utilizer scores, the Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance indicates that intuitive and people oriented leadership styles tied for the highest ranking. The motivational leadership style, with its low response rate, was ranked second. Finally, based on Friedman Two-

Way Analysis of Variance, the influential and ethical leadership
styles received the lowest ranking. There was a low Kendall
coefficient of concordance in evaluating the P and U scores.
The Kendall concordance was 0.1.

The MCLQ provided an insight into the president leadership
styles. The DIT provided scores that measured the principled
morality and Thoma Utilizer for the presidents of small community
colleges. The MCLQ and the DIT provided the contributions to a
database needed to commence evaluation of the leadership style as it
relates to the moral judgment of the subjects.

Chapter V presents a summary of the study, the conclusions, and
recommendations for practice and for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to identify the relationship between leadership styles and moral judgment of presidents of small community colleges. The problem which gave rise to this study was the isolation of ethics from leadership in the current research about desirable leadership behavior. This study was needed to identify the dominant leadership styles of the presidents of small community colleges and relate that leadership style to ethics. The leadership style was established by using the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II (MCLQ) and the Defining Issues Test (DIT) was used to define ethics by measuring the leaders' moral judgment. These two instruments were used to maximize the effectiveness and expand the scope of the study, because in most cases a single instrument cannot measure what is desired or needed by the study.

Research Questions

1. What are the leadership styles of presidents of small community colleges?

2. What is the relationship between the ways presidents of small community colleges perceive themselves and how they are perceived by members of their administrative teams?

3. To what extent do presidents of small community colleges use the concept of law and order in making moral judgments?

4. What is the relationship between leadership style and moral judgment of presidents of small community colleges?

Summary

Introduction

Leadership is a process in which one influences the behavior of others in a group, an organization, or system context. The purpose of a leader is to understand the needs of the followers and respond accordingly (Birnmbaum, 1988, Bower & Seashore, 1975, Hersey, 1984). The method or technique a leader employs when dealing with his or her followers reflects his or her leadership style.

There are numerous leadership styles. The leadership style categories range from authoritarian to situational to transformational to laissez faire. The literature review limited the leadership styles to these large comprehensive categories. The MCLQ assumed that all leaders demonstrated traits associated with transformational leadership behavior.

The MCLQ measured the various styles associated with transformational leadership. This study was concerned with the dominant traits of the leadership styles.

The MCLQ identified five leadership styles. The presidents' self-evaluations were either reinforced or disputed by members of their administrative teams who completed a survey about how they perceived their presidents' leadership behaviors.

Ethics are concerned with decisions that affect others individually in an organization or system context. Ethical decisions are based on the values, realities, and perceptions of the decision maker (Burns, 1979, Covey, 1990, Oliver, 1985, Rest, 1979). Not all decisions are ethical decisions. If a decision does not affect another person, group, or entity in the past, present, or future, then that decision is not considered ethical. This study was concerned with the ethical decisions made by the presidents of small community colleges.

All of the decisions measured by the DIT were based on personal values. Personal values are the foundation for all decisions (Covey, 1991, Rest, 1993, Sergiovanni, 1992, Tead, 1935). Personal values utilized in the decision making were measured and evaluated by the DIT.

Moral judgment is the term used to refer to the utilization of personal values in the decision making process when others are affected by the decision (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, Rest, 1979). The principled morality scores identified how the presidents' values influenced their responses on the DIT with respect to the decision making process.

An individual perpetuates ethics because of a concern for his fellow man or what is fair or right, or because of a fear of

reprisal from a greater being, or a fear of legal entity (Covey, 1990, Karp & Abramms, 1992, Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, Rest, 1979, Ross, 1978, Sergiovanni, 1992). All of these terms are considered to be constraints in the decision making process. The decision maker arrives at an ethical decision based on one or more of these constraints.

In an organizational context, the leaders must know what is ethical and unethical (Caldbury, 1987, Nielsen, 1990). The ethical leader considers every transaction a test of values. Ethics are all things that keeps one individual from taking an unfair advantage of another. According to Karp and Abramms (1992), the study of ethics is important because it bridges the gaps between itself, values and action.

The survey identified the dominant leadership styles of the participants and measured how their personal values influenced their decision making processes. The MCLQ measured an individual's leadership style and systematically recorded an ordinal average score for each of the five leadership categories. The two mean scores derived from the presidents' MCLQ and the team members' MCLQ were used by the Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance. The Friedman analysis was used to determine the dominant leadership style for each president. The DIT was used to determine and report the subject's moral judgment scores. The leaders' moral judgment was measured by the DIT and provided a principled morality score and Thoma Utilizer score.

Combining the two instruments allowed for the classification of a dominant leadership style for each president. And it allowed for the development of assumptions concerning the moral judgment of the subjects without comparing the two instruments' results.

Response to Research Questions

The results of the survey and all conjectures are limited to the responding segment of the population of presidents of small community colleges with a reported student population of less than 3,000.

Question One. The first research question asked, "What are the leadership styles of presidents of small community colleges?" There was no consistency among the five leadership styles of presidents of the small community colleges surveyed. And there was not a normal distribution of the five leadership styles.

The ethical leadership style was dominant in approximately 50 percent of the respondents. The intuitive leadership style was dominant in approximately 25 percent. The presidents of small community colleges who were affiliated with people oriented as their dominant leadership style accounted for 17 percent of the respondents. The presidents who were either predominantly influential or motivational comprised less than ten percent of the respondents.

The positive and negative aspects of the t-values provided additional information beyond the level of significance. A negative t-value indicated that the team members rated the presidents higher

in the overall leadership style profile than the presidents rated themselves. There were 61.82 percent of the team members who rated their presidents higher than the presidents rated themselves.

Table IV in Chapter IV indicated that the overall mean score of the presidents' self-evaluation was higher than the overall average mean of the team members for the ethical leadership style. Successful leaders are confident in their abilities.

The presidents whose dominant leadership style was intuitive or visionary accounted for 24.25 percent of the population. They are considered by some experts to be manipulative and depend upon charisma as a leadership technique. The intuitive group of leaders received the highest principled morality scores.

Question Two. The second research question asked, "What is the relationship between the ways presidents of small community colleges perceived themselves and how they are perceived by members of their administrative teams?" The subjects who responded to this survey have a high level of agreement about the various leadership styles of their presidents.

A t-test between the mean scores of the presidents and the team members' average mean scores showed a t-value of negative 0.452. A confidence level of 0.01 was used in determining agreement between the two groups in all five leadership style categories. The significant t-table value is 3.4 at a confidence level of 0.01. The t-test for the means did not achieve the t-table value, indicating that there was no significant difference between the presidents' self-evaluation and the administrative team member

evaluations of the presidents. Chance occurrence was not a consideration in this study. One objective of this study was to determine whether the presidents and team members agreed upon their evaluations of the leadership styles for the presidents of small community colleges.

Second, the t-value was negative, indicating that the overall team members' evaluations of their presidents' leadership styles were higher than the presidents' self-evaluation. The team members' average mean scores were higher than the presidents' mean scores in three of the five leadership styles.

Question Three. The third research question asked, "To what extent do presidents of small community colleges use concepts of law and order in making moral judgments?" The degree to which the presidents of small community colleges used the concept of law and order in their decision making process was almost identical. The U score is an experimental value that relates the degree to which the subject used the concept of law and order as opposed to some different criteria in his or her decision making process. The U scores indicate the degree to which the concept of law and order was a consideration. The higher the score the more the respondent utilized the concept of law and order in making their decisions.

Normally, the U scores can range on a probability scale of 1.0 to -1.0, with the majority of the scores falling between 0.10 and 0.20. The U score for the standardization norm sample was 0.131, with a standard deviation of 0.032 (Rest, 1993). The U scores of

the sample ranged from 0.181 to 0.283. The median of the U score
was 0.23&. The mean of the U score was 0.236, with a standard
deviation of 0.037 and a variance of 0.001. The close proximity of
the mean and median, and the relatively small variance, indicates
that there is agreement within the group and the distribution
approaches normality, as measured by the Bell curve.

The smallest number of subjects was found on both extremes of
the Thoma Utilizer scale. The two leadership styles, influence and
motivation, accounted for less than ten percent of the total sample.
If these extremes are eliminated, the other three leadership styles
accounted for 90 percent of the leadership styles measured. These
presidents in their decision making process were almost identical on
the concept of law and order scores. This closeness of concept of
law and order scores and an above average U score support the
position that justice as it relates to law and order was a dominant
factor associated with the decision making process of presidents of
small community colleges.

Question Four. The fourth research question asked, "What is
the relationship between leadership and moral judgment for
presidents of small community colleges?" There was no consistency
between leadership style and principled morality. There was,
however, consistency with respect to the concept of law and order as
it related to the decision making process. The independent
variables intuitive, influential, people oriented, motivational and
ethical leadership styles were relatively close in their average
principled morality scores with a standard deviation of 3.3. A low

variance of 0.001 with a standard deviation of 0.037 was calculated for the concept of law and order score.

The intuitive leaders were the second largest group of presidents at 24.3 percent. The intuitive presidents had the highest principled morality scores on the DIT at 44.5 percentage points. The concept of law and order score was 0.229, which was slightly below the mean of 0.236. The principled morality scores associated with this group indicated that their decisions were based on moral or religious doctrine, or what is right, when compared with the other leadership styles.

The influential group of leaders had the second highest principled morality score and the lowest concept of law and order score. This leadership style had a total of five respondents. The Friedman analysis ranked influential equal to ethical as the lowest for the leadership styles.

The motivational leadership style included only one president. Another president had motivational orientation as one of three dominant leadership styles. The motivational leadership style had the lowest P score and highest U score. The low response rate did not allow for a conclusion associated to this leadership style.

The ethical leadership style was dominant with 50.1 percent of the respondents. These individuals were perceived as ethical, yet they received a lower than average principled morality score based on the results of the DIT. They had an average principled morality score of 39.3. An explanation for this situation is that the presidents and their followers perceived the presidents as being

ethical. The above average Thoma Utilizer score indicated
that the presidents tended to use the concept of law and order, not
morals or religion, in their decision making processes.

A large number of presidents who perceived themselves as
ethical was within itself significant. The high number of ethical
presidents on the MCLQ and the low principled morality score
raising questions about the conclusion that their decision making
process was completely ethical.

The Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance was used to rank the
overall P scores and U scores for the five leadership styles.
(Refer to Table IX.) A Friedman analysis of the P and U scores
indicated that the highest ranked were the intuitive and people
oriented leadership styles. This indicated that these leadership
styles were the highest in the utilization of the concepts of law
and order and principled morality in their decision making process.
The motivational style, with its small response rate, ranked second.
Finally, the influential and ethical style were ranked the lowest on
the Friedman analysis. There was a low Kendall coefficient of
concordance. The low Kendall score indicated the enormous
difference between the values for the P and U scores and the
presidents' P and U scores do not coincide. There was a difference
between the presidents' principled morality score and their use of
the concept of law and order in their decision making process. The
presidents who used the intuitive and people oriented leadership
styles were ranked the highest category in the Friedman analysis
when comparing the P score to the U score. These groups of leaders

were the most ethical, as determined by this study. On the other hand, the lowest rankings went to the ethical and influential leadership styles.

The DIT was developed to measure personal values in making moral decisions. The subjects were given a story that contained moral issues and several potential solutions. (A copy of the DIT stories is in Appendix E.) The subjects selected the response that approximated their moral judgment. The individual's principled morality score was calculated for the way in which the subjects responded on the DIT. "All tests of moral judgment (Piaget's, Kohlberg's, the DIT) at best give a characterization of the reasoning process by which a person arrives at a judgment of what is the moral thing to do in a moral dilemma" (Rest, 1993, p. 18). The interaction of personal values and decision making is the essence of ethics. Ethics are defined by how personal values influence a decision making process that affect another person.

The principled morality scores for each of the five leadership styles range from 37 to a maximum of 44.5 percent. The mean score was 41.6 with a median of 43.2. The standard deviation was 3.3 with a standard error of 1.5. The median P score of 43.2 for presidents of the small community colleges was identical to the score for college students in the standardized norm sample. (See Table I.) The concept of law and order in the decision making process was higher than any of the standardized groups from the standardized norm sample. (Refer to Table VI.) The scores of the presidents indicate that they considered law and order as an important aspect

in their decision making process. According to Rest, a moral philosopher normally has a principled morality score of 65 or more and the average adult has a principled morality score in the 40s.

Conclusions

The demographic profile between the small community colleges in this study and those surveyed by Russell (1991) provide for an interesting comparison. (See Tables II and X.) Both studies use the same instrument and both instruments were interested in securing approximately the same demographic information. A comparison of the two groups indicates that the presidents were similar in their years of experience. In the survey of small community colleges and the Russell survey, presidents were about the same age, with over 50 percent between the ages of 50 and 59, and slightly more than ten percent over 60. The vast majority, over 87 percent of the presidents, were male. The ethnicity of the two groups was almost identical.

The percentage of presidents having advanced degrees in the Russell study was 96.4 percent as opposed to 84 percent for the presidents of the small community colleges. Neither of the two studies included anyone with less than a master's degree. Both segments of the community college system have substantial percentages of advanced degree people at the top.

TABLE X

PRESIDENT AND TEAM MEMBER DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE
IN THE 1991 SURVEY BY RUSSELL

Demographics	President Percentage N=62	Team Member Percentage N=186
Gender		
Male	89.0	74
Female	11.0	26
Ethnicity		
Other	0.0	0
African-American (Black)	3.0	4
Hispanic	3.0	4
Caucasian	93.0	92
Age		
30 - 39	0.0	12
40 - 49	35.0	54
50 - 59	51.0	32
60 or more	14.0	2
Time at this campus		
0 - 4 years	33.9	27
5 - 9 years	25.0	17
10 - 14 years	19.6	16
15 - 19 years	5.4	19
20 years of more	16.2	21
Level of education		
Doctoral degree	96.4	51
Master's degree	3.6	

The profiles of the team members were distinctly different from those of the presidents. The ethnicity of the two groups of team members was predominantly Caucasian. The largest age group for the team members was in the 40 to 49 year range.

The biggest difference was the educational levels of the members of the administrative teams of the small community college as opposed to members of the administrative team in the Russell survey. The small community colleges had only 32 percent of their administrative team members with a doctoral degree, while the Russell survey had 51 percent. This difference in the levels of education could be significant.

At the small community colleges, members of the administrative teams and the presidents are responsible for a vast assortment of activities and responsibilities. These responsibilities prevent them from rendering special attention to ethics as a method of making decisions. Therefore, the leaders consider that the best method to insure fairness and protect their organizations, is to use law and order in the decision making process. The concept of law and order or fairness is important, but the use of religious doctrine or what is morally right cannot be a used in today's social environment because of potential legal actions against the institutions.

The MCLQ was developed by Baker in an effort to identify the various leadership styles among presidents of community colleges. The results from the MCLQ indicated that there was no common leadership style noted among presidents of the small community

colleges. This fact illustrates that there was no consensus or dominant leadership style among the subjects as defined by this study.

The leadership style most observed was the ethical leadership style. Fifty percent of the presidents were rated highest on the MCLQ questions relating to the ethical leader. This ranking was supported by their administrative teams. The ethical group of presidents had the second to lowest principled morality score. They apparently consider themselves to be ethical, but failed to make choices on the moral judgment test associated with high principled morality. The ethical leadership style had a principled morality score of 39.25, which falls between the principled morality scores of the high school student and college student, indicating that these individuals function predominantly at the lower Kohlberg stages of moral judgment.

The concept of law and order score for the ethical leadership style was 0.2384, which was 0.014 degrees below the mean score of the population but higher than the average adult score of 0.131. The ethical presidents appear to perceive the concept of law and order as what was considered to be moral judgment as measured in the DIT.

The anti-establishment scores of the presidents of small community colleges were surprisingly low when compared to the Rest's (1993) norms of the standardized sample which has a mean for all participants of 2.72 and 1.86 for graduate students (p. 20). The total anti-establishment score for the sample in this study was

1.09. This low score could indicate the willingness of the respondents to function within the constraints of "the establishment" in their decision making process. The presidents not only have a high understanding of Kohlberg's Stage 4, but tend to function within "the establishment" norms of which they are a part.

Summary of Conclusions

Leadership and ethics are intertwined in everyday life. The more the leader interfaces with the follower the more the leader is required to consider the well being of the follower. This simple interaction perpetuates ethics. The principled morality scores and the high scores with respect to the concept of law and order demonstrate that the leaders of the small community colleges have an aspiration for doing what is considered correct. The Thoma Utilizer score on the DIT indicates that the presidents of the small community colleges were concerned with legality as a focal point for their decision making process. This score was higher than the standardized norm sample score. The logic behind this higher law and order score was that the presidents may be concerned with the legal aspects of their decisions, such as being sued. According to Townsend (1988), if you treat people as you would like to be treated, in a fair and equitable fashion, you will not have to waste time being concerned with the legal ramifications of your decisions.

The ideal situation was for the presidents to perceive themselves as ethical, and to function in all activities as an ethical leaders. The problem was that people who believe themselves

to be ethical are often proven to be unethical by their actions involving others. Compensating for this difference, an individual uses concepts of what is legally right or the concept of law and order to make ethical decisions, as opposed to using other moral or religious criteria.

The practical aspects of this study are demonstrated by the fact that ethical improvements are within the reach of any leader. Community college leaders are not moral philosophers. They are individuals making ethical decisions on a daily basis. Their concept of law and order was a driving force in their decision making processes. The presidents of small community colleges are cognitive of the establishment in making moral decisions and acting according. They must now evolve into doing what is fair.

In his study of college leaders, McHugh (1991) concluded, "The president is expected to know where the organization should be headed, and acts as the catalyst to keep all aspects of organizational effort focused on progress towards the object" (p. 142). The presidents must insure that all their decisions concerning the organization are based on solid ethical foundations. The ethical leader of a community college "does not seek to command, but to influence" (Roueche, Baker III, & Rose, 1989, p. 213). An ethical leader cannot make a decision without first considering how the decision effects mankind and society. The relationship between leadership and moral judgment must be a factor in further considerations involving leadership styles.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. Additional research in all areas of ethics is required. This study just scraped the surface as to what constitutes an ethical leader and what are the appropriate methods for measuring this individual.

2. There was a disagreement between what the two instruments measured as ethical. Was the difference because of a flaw in the measuring technique, or was it because of the difference between what individuals say they do as opposed to what they actually do in ethical situations?

3. A replication of this study with other student populations would demonstrate whether the ethical concerns were unique to the presidents of small community colleges.

4. Research is needed into the difference between what is considered morally correct and the concept of law and order or justice among leaders in the community college system, as well as leaders in other sectors of society.

5. Additional studies with the Defining Issues Test of actual proven leaders in the community could establish new standardized norms for a population of actual leaders, one which may prove to be significantly different from those observed in the students.

Recommendations for Practice

Leadership is an assortment of techniques used by an individual to influence others. The one method of interest to this study was moral judgment. Leadership style was the perceived way in which presidents of small community colleges dealt with others in their organization. The leadership style was determined by how the presidents perceived themselves and how they were perceived by members of their administrative team by the MCLQ score. The moral judgment determination was made by the DIT.

The results of this study indicated that the presidents view themselves as ethical but use the concept of law and order, rather than moral or religious foundations, as a method for making decisions. This does not indicate that the leaders are immoral in their decision making processes, but they do what they perceive to be just, not necessarily what is right.

The future of leadership must revolve around the follower. The follower is the foundation for all successful leaders. Leaders of the future need to influence followers in such a way that the leaders can accomplish their goals. Followers of today are more sophisticated than followers in the past and, therefore, require more sophisticated leaders.

In the future, the secret to successful leaders depends upon their ability to employ the concept of ethics in dealing with others. The leaders must be ethical in all activities, not just present an appearance of being ethical. It is necessary that the presidents of small community colleges not only perceive themselves

as being ethical, but they make decisions based on how their decisions affect others past, present and future.

Successful leaders appear consistent in all dealings with their followers. Consistent leaders should use the concept of what is right and wrong as the foundation for all their ethical decisions. The leadership style of the president is not the important factor in accomplishing organizational goals. The important factor is how these goals are accomplished. The leadership styles and moral judgment of the leaders must be combined in both theory and practice.

This study recognized the fact that leadership styles and ethics are not mutually exclusive because of the lack of unity between the two concepts. The presidents of the small community colleges must examine their leadership style as well as their moral judgment and move towards becoming ethical leaders.

Implications

This study was one of a few that did not use a captive sample of students. This study used proven leaders in their respective communities. The published standardized norm sample information shows the scores for students to be used as the standard. (See Table I.) The lack of data concerning subjects who were not students, hindered any assumptions with respect to an educational or industrial leader. There was no way to determine if the presidents' scores were representative of a non-student population.

The principled morality scores ranged from a low of 25 to a high of 70 for several presidents. The implications are that a few presidents of small community colleges are considered moral philosophers, ranking high in the later development stages of moral development according to Kohlberg. And there are some presidents who rank low in their use of principled morality in their decision making process.

The participants completed the MCLQ and DIT without supervision or additional explanation and without outside motivation. In a telephone conversation with one of the subjects, he indicated that he had never done anything like this and several times almost quit. But his desire to participate in the study and his knowledge that there was a need for research in small community colleges kept him going. Another president wrote a note that he had never seen anything like this. The completion of the survey appeared to be traumatic for several presidents. This stress was probably due to the time required to complete the survey, which parallels the excuse most often given in the beginning for not participating. Second, the determination of the presidents to follow through with their promises probably played an important factor in the relatively high response rates associated with this survey.

The participants were offered the results of the survey as a reward for their participation. Several presidents of the small community colleges elected to take advantage of this offer. The participants requesting the results of the survey were approximately 22 percent of the 89 respondents. This interest in the results is

indicative of the desire of presidents of small community colleges to improve their situations. They want to know how they stand with respect to others in the industry and how they stood with respect to some standardized norm. This desire for information is the first step in improving the leadership of the small community college.

The final response rate and the request for the results, from 22 percent of the subjects, indicated that there is a desire by the small community leadership for additional information about their segment of the higher education industry. The presidents of the small community colleges feel forgotten in the scope of educational advancements. Several telephone calls and messages from presidents conveyed these opinions. The participants were concerned with their future and were interested in discovering methods of improving the small community college system.

Small and rural institutions operate in a relatively isolated environment, while the urban and suburban community colleges are constantly scrutinized by researchers. The small and rural community colleges are historically poorer than the larger city institutions. Small and rural community colleges have fewer resources from which to draw. The number of expert team members available is limited.

Rural

The rural community colleges, comprising the great majority of respondents in this study, are unique. The rural community colleges

constituted 87 percent of the respondents. The generalizations associated to the rural community colleges may also apply to the remaining 13 percent of the respondents who were not rural, but this section deals with the uniqueness of the rural community college.

These institutions have limited resources. The presidents and members of their administrative teams must perform several different tasks within the confines of the institution. They are limited on the amount of outside assistance they receive from "experts" in the community college area, and, finally, and most importantly, is the configuration of their student population. Students who attend the rural institutions normally have the option of attending their local community college or not going to college at all. This imposes a unique situation for the presidents of rural community colleges. They must provide the students with the best possible education and establish a values foundation for the students while insuring that each student is treated equally.

Normally, the rural community colleges are governed by a local lay governance boards and the presidents are responsible to them. The concerns of the rural communities become the concerns of the institutions. With limited financial and faculty resources, the rural community college must educate the people of the surrounding area, set an example for "citizenship," and survive the financial dilemmas facing their institution. The presidents must be responsive to the communities' needs and govern according to these needs.

The ethical foundations of the rural presidents are critically important to the enhancement of higher education within their environment. The rural community college is a mainstay of rural America. The location and uniqueness of the rural community college makes it a valuable asset to the United States of America and its future. The presidents of the rural community colleges are key factors for the future of rural America. It is their responsibility to govern their institutions in higher ethical ways.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INQUIRY LETTER TO THE SMALL COMMUNITY

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

TO:

FROM: Kenneth M. Preston
      307 Hardy
      Edmond, OK 73013

You are invited to participate in a study restricted to the small
community college presidents. This research relates to the "Shared
Vision" study and will add significantly to the national study of
leadership. This study is conducted with full support of Dr. George
Baker, III.

The purpose of this study is to identify leadership styles and
ethics associated with the decision making process of the small
community college president.

Your participation is necessary to insure the success of the study.
The study involves Baker's Multifactor College Leadership
Questionnaire (MCLQ) requiring you and three of your staff members
complete the survey. The MCLQ takes approximately 10 - 15 minutes
to complete. Based on Kohlberg's stage theory, the James Rest's
Define Issues Test (DIT) is only completed by the president and
takes approximately 30 - 45 minutes.

The success of the study is in your hands. **Please complete the
enclosed card and drop it in the mail.** If you elect to participate,
you will receive a packet containing the instruments in two or three
weeks.

The results of the survey will be made available to all participants
requesting them. Your responses and those of your staff members
will be confidential.

I would be happy to answer any questions you might have. Please
call or write, the telephone number is (405) 341-8616.

Thank you for your assistance and support.

APPENDIX B

RETURN POST CARD SENT TO THE SMALL

COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Please correct the following information:

    President's name
    College
    Address
    City, State   Zip Code
     ID Number

()   Yes, we will participate in this survey.
()   No, we do not want to participate.
     Reason _____
            _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Kenneth M. Preston
P. O. Box 5145
Edmond
OK   73083-5145

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER FOR THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

SENT TO THE SMALL COMMUNITY

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

TO:

FROM: Kenneth M. Preston
      P.O. Box 5145
      Edmond, OK   73083-5145

Thank you for participating in this national survey. The purpose of
this study is to identify leadership styles and, also, moral
judgment associated with the decision making process of the small
community college leader. Your institution's responses to each item
are essential.

Enclosed is three <u>Team Member Evaluation Form</u>, one <u>Presidents Self
-Evaluation</u> form and one <u>Defining Issues Test</u>. There are three
plain envelopes for each of your team member's evaluation and a
postage paid return envelope for the completed survey.

It should take each individual approximately 10 minutes to complete
part one and approximately 30 minutes for part two.

The team members can seal their responses in the envelopes to be
returned with the survey. There are two different instruments for
you, the Presidents Self-Evaluation survey and the Defining Issues
Test.

All responses are confidential. An identification number is on the
postage paid return envelope. All responses are **anonymous,** and
individual responses will not be reported. If you desire a copy of
the results of the survey or any additional information, please
enclose your name and address o n a separate sheet of paper or
contact me at (405) 341-8616.

Thank you again for agreeing to participate.

APPENDIX D

MULTIFACTOR COLLEGE LEADERSHIP

QUESTIONNAIRE

Leadership Profile
Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II
PRESIDENTS SELF-EVALUATION
PLEASE READ BEFORE BEGINNING QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>Directions</u>

The questionnaire contains 35 statements. Please read each
statement a nd then select a number between 0 and 100 that indicates
how well that statement applies to you. A rating of 0 indicates
that the statement does not apply to you at all; a rating of 100
means that the statement applies to you perfectly. Write the number
you have selected in the blank to the right of each statement.

Example:
I employ my expectations of future events to motivate others. __75

Before you begin, please take a moment to complete the demographic
information section below.

Demographic Information - Please complete by checking the
appropriate blank.

Gender	Ethnicity	How long have you worked in community college education?
___ 1. Male	___ 1. American Indian or Alaskan Native	___ 1. 0-4 years
___ 2. Female	___ 2. Asian or Pacific Islander	___ 2. 5-9 years
	___ 3. African - American	___ 3. 10-14 years
	___ 4. Hispanic	___ 4. 15-19 years
	___ 5. Caucasian	___ 5. 20 years or more

Age	How long have you worked on this campus?	Highest level of Education
___ 1. 29 or less	___ 1. 0 - 4 years	___ 1. Doctoral degree
___ 2. 30 - 39	___ 2. 5 - 9 years	___ 2. Master's degree
___ 3. 40 - 49	___ 3. 10 - 14 years	___ 3. Bachelor's degree
___ 4. 50 - 59	___ 4. 15 - 19 years	___ 4. Associate degree
___ 5. 60 or more	___ 5. 20 years or more	___ 5. High-school dip.
		___ 6. Other

What is the classification of your college?	In what year did you receive your last degree?
___ 1. Rural	
___ 2. Urban	19 _____
___ 3. Suburban	

Please select a number between 0 and 100

1. I apply consistent ethical standards to my job..............____
2. I inspire followers in appropriate ways....................____
3. I empower followers appropriately...........................____
4. I make changes when appropriate..............................____
5. I seek the opinions of followers.............................____
6. I am able to visualize a specific future for the
    organization...____
7. I encourage the ethical development of followers............____
8. I accommodate the individual needs of followers.............____
9. I am open to the influence of followers.....................____
10. I provide followers with incentives to excel................____
11. I believe that I exert appropriate influence on
    followers..____
12. I understand the values of followers.........................____
13. I influence followers through my personal behavior..........____
14. I motivate followers through clarification of my
    expectations...____
15. I employ quick and ready insights............................____
16. I involve followers appropriately in decision making........____
17. I conform to a standard of what is right.....................____
18. I value students and consider their needs....................____
19. I am visible to those I am attempting to influence..........____
20. I am committed to innovation action to achieve goals........____
21. I seek to build an ethical environment.......................____
22. I empower followers through tasking and considerations
    of their needs...____
23. I believe that I will be able to shape the future of
    this institution...____
24. I motivate followers to action..............................____
25. I employ appropriate power to influence the performance
    of others..____
26. I am committed to the ethical development of followers......____
27. I respect individual differences among followers............____
28. I enable followers to share in a vision of the future.......____
29. I consider the needs of my followers.........................____
30. I motivate followers to use their creative skills...........____
31. I reward followers appropriately............................____
32. I am able to communicate a sense of mission to others.......____
33. I am able to galvanize a group to action....................____
34. I am a principled leader......................................____
35. I stimulate change when needed...............................____

Leadership Profile
Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire II
TEAM MEMBER EVALUATION FORM
PLEASE READ BEFORE BEGINNING QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions
     The questionnaire contains 35 statements. Please read each
statement and then select a number between 0 and 100 that indicates
how well that statement applies to you. A rating of 0 indicates
that the statement does not apply to you at all; a rating of 100
means that the statement applies to you perfectly. Write the number
you have selected in the blank to the right of each statement.

Example:
Our leader employs expectations of future events to motivate
others.. __75

Before you begin, please take a moment to complete the demographic
information section below.

Demographic Information - Please complete by checking the
appropriate blank.

Gender	Ethnicity	How long have you worked in community college education?
___ 1. Male	___ 1. American Indian or Alaskan Native	___ 1. 0-4 years
___ 2. Female	___ 2. Asian or Pacific Islander	___ 2. 3-9 years
	___ 3. African - American	___ 3. 10-14 years
	___ 4. Hispanic	___ 4. 15-19 years
	___ 5. Caucasian	___ 5. 20 years or more

Age	How long have you worked on this campus?	Highest level of Education
___ 1. 29 or less	___ 1. 0-4 years	___ 1. Doctoral degree
___ 2. 30 - 39	___ 2. 5-9 years	___ 2. Master's degree
___ 3. 40 - 49	___ 3. 10-14 years	___ 3. Bachelor's degree
___ 4. 50 - 59	___ 4. 15-19 years	___ 4. Associate degree
___ 5. 60 or more	___ 5. 20 years or more	___ 5. High-school dip.

In what year did you receive
your last degree?
19____

Please select a number between 0 and 100

1. Our leader applies consistent ethical standards to our job..____
2. Our leader inspires us in appropriate ways...................____
3. Our leader empowers us appropriately.........................____
4. Our leader makes changes when appropriate....................____
5. Our leader seeks the opinions of us..........................____
6. Our leader is able to visualize a specific future for the
      organization..____
7. Our leader encourages our ethical development...............____
8. Our leader accommodates our individual needs................____
9. Our leader is open to our influence.........................____
10. Our leader provides us incentives to excel..................____
11. Our leader exerts appropriate influence on us...............____
12. Our leader understands our values...........................____
13. Our leader influences us through his or her personal
      behavior...____
14. Our leader motivates us through clarification of his or
      her expectations.....................................____
15. Our leader employs quick and ready insights................____
16. Our leader involves us appropriately in decision making.....____
17. Our leader conforms to a standard of what is right..........____
18. Our leader values students and consider their needs........____
19. Our leader is visible to those he or she is attempting to
      influence..____
20. Our leader is committed to innovation action to achieve
      goals..____
21. Our leader seeks to build an ethical environment...........____
22. Our leader empowers us through tasking and consideration
      of our needs...____
23. Our leader believes that he or she will be able to shape
      the future of this institution.......................____
24. Our leader motivates us to action..........................____
25. Our leader employs appropriate power to influence our
      performance..____
26. Our leader is committed to our ethical development.........____
27. Our leader respects our individual differences.............____
28. Our leader enables us to share in a vision of the future....____
29. Our leader considers our needs.............................____
30. Our leader motivates us to use our creative skills.........____
31. Our leader rewards us appropriately........................____
32. Our leader communicates a sense of mission to us...........____
33. Our leader is able to galvanize our group to action.......____
34. Our leader is a principled leader..........................____
35. Our leader stimulates change when needed...................____

APPENDIX E

DEFINING ISSUES TEST

INSTRUCTION BOOKLET

DIT

DEFINING ISSUES TEST
University of Minnesota
Copyright, James Rest
All Rights Reserved, 1979

Opinions about Social Problems

The purpose of this questionnaire is to help us understand how people think about social problems. Different people have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers to such problems in the way that math problems have right answers. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories.

You will be asked to read a story from this booklet. Then you will be asked to mark your answers on a separate answer sheet. More details about how to do this will follow. But it is important that you fill in your answers on the answer sheet with a #2 pencil. Please make sure that your mark completely fills the little circle, that the mark is dark, and that any erasures that you make are completely clean.

The Identification Number at the top of the answer sheet may already be filled in when you receive your materials. If not, you will receive special instructions about how to fill in that number.

In this questionnaire you will be asked to read a story and then to place marks on the answer sheet. In order to illustrate how we would like you to do this, consider the following story:

FRANK AND THE CAR

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. For instance, should he buy a larger used car or a smaller new car for about the same amount of money? Other questions occur to him.

We note that this is not really a social problem, but it will illustrate our instructions. After you read a story you will then turn to the answer sheet to find the section that corresponds to the story. But in this sample story, we present the questions below (along with some sample answers). Note that all your answers will be marked on the separate answer sheet.

1

First, on the answer sheet for each story you will be asked to indicate your recommendation for what a person should do. If you tend to favor one action or another (even if you are not completely sure), indicate which one. If you do not favor either action, mark the circle by "can't decide."

Second, read each of the items numbered 1 to 12. Think of the issue that the item is raising. If that issue is important in making a decision, one way or the other, then mark the circle by "great." If that issue is not important or doesn't make sense to you, mark "no." If the issue is relevant but not critical, mark "much," "some," or "little" --depending on how much importance that issue has in your opinion. You may mark several items as "great" (or any other level of importance) -- there is no fixed number of items that must be marked at any one level.

Third, after you have made your marks along the left hand side of each of the 12 items, then at the bottom you will be asked to choose the item that is the most important consideration out of all the items printed there. Pick from among the items provided even if you think that none of the items are of "great" importance. Of the items that are presented there, pick one as the most important (relative to the others), then the second most important, third, and fourth most important.

SAMPLE ITEMS and SAMPLE ANSWERS:

FRANK AND THE CAR: ● buy new car   O can't decide   O buy used car

Great Some   No
   Much   Little

O O O O ● 1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives.
● O O O O 2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car.
O O ● O O 3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
O O O O ● 4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200.
● O O O O 5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car.
O O O O ● 6. Whether the front connibilies were differential.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	O	O	O	O	●	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Second most important	O	●	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Third most important	O	O	●	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Fourth most important	●	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Note that in our sample responses, the first item was considered irrelevant; the second item was considered as a critical issue in making a decision; the third item was considered of only moderate importance; the fourth item was not clear to the person responding whether 200 was good or not, so it was marked "no"; the fifth item was also of critical importance; and the sixth item didn't make any sense, so it was marked "no".

Note that the most important item comes from one of the items marked on the far left hand side. In deciding between item #2 and #5, a person should reread these items, then put one of them as the most important, and the other item as second, etc.

Here is the first story for your consideration. Read the story and then turn to the separate answer sheet to mark your responses. After filling in the four most important items for the story, return to this booklet to read the next story. Please remember to fill in the circle completely, make dark marks, and completely erase all corrections.

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

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

ESCAPED PRISONER

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

NEWSPAPER

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

When Fred started his newspaper, he asked his principal for permission. The principal said it would be all right if before every publication Fred would turn in all his articles for the principal's approval. Fred agreed and turned in several articles for approval. The principal approved all of them and Fred published two issues of the paper in the next two weeks.

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

DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

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

WEBSTER

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

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

STUDENT TAKE-OVER

Back in the 1960s at Harvard University there was a student group called Students for a Democratic Society (SDS). SDS students were against the war in Viet Nam, and were against the army training program (ROTC) that helped to send men to fight in Viet Nam. While the war was still going on, the SDS students demanded that Harvard end the army ROTC program as a university course. This would mean that Harvard students could not get army training as part of their regular course work and not get credit for it towards their degree.

Harvard professors agreed with the SDS students. The professors voted to end the ROTC program as a university course. But the President of the University took a different view. He stated that the army program should stay on campus as a course.

The SDS students felt that the President of the University was not going to pay attention to the vote of the professors, and was going to keep the ROTC program as a course on campus. The SDS students then marched to the university's administration building and told everyone else to get out. They said they were taking over the building to force Harvard's President to get rid of the army ROTC program on campus for credit as a course.

Were the students right to take over the administration building?

Please make sure that all your marks are dark, fill the circles, and that all erasures are clean.

THANK YOU.

4

DEFINING ISSUES TEST
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IDENTIFICATION NUMBER

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

HEINZ AND THE DRUG: ○ Should Steal   ○ Can't Decide   ○ Should not steal

○○○○○ 1. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
○○○○○ 2. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much for his wife that he'd steal?
○○○○○ 3. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
○○○○○ 4. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
○○○○○ 5. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else.
○○○○○ 6. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be respected.
○○○○○ 7. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually.
○○○○○ 8. What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act towards each other.
○○○○○ 9. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
○○○○○ 10. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society.
○○○○○ 11. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel.
○○○○○ 12. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not.

Most important item   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Second most important ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Third most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Fourth most important ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

ESCAPED PRISONER: ○ Should report him   ○ Can't decide   ○ Should not report him

○○○○○ 1. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long time to prove he isn't a bad person?
○○○○○ 2. Everytime someone escapes punishment for a crime, doesn't that just encourage more crime?
○○○○○ 3. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the oppression of our legal system?
○○○○○ 4. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
○○○○○ 5. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly expect?
○○○○○ 6. What benefits would prisons be apart from society, especially for a charitable man?
○○○○○ 7. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr. Thompson to prison?
○○○○○ 8. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
○○○○○ 9. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?
○○○○○ 10. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped criminal, regardless of the circumstances?
○○○○○ 11. How would the will of the people and the public good best be served?
○○○○○ 12. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or protect anybody?

Most important item   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Second most important ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Third most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Fourth most important ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫

PLEASE DO NOT WRITE IN THIS BOX
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GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

NEWSPAPER: ◯ Should stop it   ◯ Can't decide   ◯ Should not stop it

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

◯◯◯◯◯   2. Did the principal give his word that the newspaper could be published for a long time, or did he just promise to approve the newspaper one issue at a time?

◯◯◯◯◯   3. Would the students start protesting even more if the principal stopped the newspaper?

◯◯◯◯◯   4. When the welfare of the school is threatened, does the principal have the right to give orders to students?

◯◯◯◯◯   5. Does the principal have the freedom of speech to say "no" in this case?

◯◯◯◯◯   6. If the principal stopped the newspaper would he be preventing full discussion of important problems?

◯◯◯◯◯   7. Whether the principal's order would make Fred lose faith in the principal.

◯◯◯◯◯   8. Whether Fred was really loyal to his school and patriotic to his country.

◯◯◯◯◯   9. What effect would stopping the paper have on the student's education in critical thinking and judgment?

◯◯◯◯◯ 10. Whether Fred was in any way violating the rights of others in publishing his own opinions.

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

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

Most important item   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Second most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Third most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Fourth most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

DOCTOR'S DILEMMA: ◯ He should give the lady an   ◯ Can't decide   ◯ Should not give
overdose that will make her die   the overdose

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Most important item   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Second most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Third most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Fourth most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

DILEMMA #7: ○Pro ○Can't decide ○Con

○○○○○	1.
○○○○○	2.
○○○○○	3.
○○○○○	4.
○○○○○	5.
○○○○○	6.
○○○○○	7.
○○○○○	8.
○○○○○	9.
○○○○○	10.
○○○○○	11.
○○○○○	12.

Most important item   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Second most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Third most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Fourth most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫

DO NOT WRITE IN SHADED AREAS

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

DILEMMA #8: ○Pro ○Can't decide ○Con

○○○○○	1.
○○○○○	2.
○○○○○	3.
○○○○○	4.
○○○○○	5.
○○○○○	6.
○○○○○	7.
○○○○○	8.
○○○○○	9.
○○○○○	10.
○○○○○	11.
○○○○○	12.

Most important item   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Second most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Third most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫
Fourth most important   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑫

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GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

WEBSTER: ◯ Should have hired Mr. Lee   ◯ Can't decide   ◯ Should not have hired him

◯◯◯◯◯ 1. Does the owner of a business have the right to make his own business decisions or not?
◯◯◯◯◯ 2. Whether there is a law that forbids racial discrimination in hiring for jobs.
◯◯◯◯◯ 3. Whether Mr. Webster is prejudiced against orientals himself or whether he means nothing personal in refusing the job.
◯◯◯◯◯ 4. Whether hiring a good mechanic or paying attention to his customers' wishes would be best for his business.
◯◯◯◯◯ 5. What individual differences ought to be relevant in deciding how society's rules are filled?
◯◯◯◯◯ 6. Whether the greedy and competitive capitalistic system ought to be completely abandoned.
◯◯◯◯◯ 7. Do a majority of people in Mr. Webster's society feel like his customers or are a majority against prejudice?
◯◯◯◯◯ 8. Whether hiring capable men like Mr. Lee would use talents that would otherwise be lost to society.
◯◯◯◯◯ 9. Would refusing the job to Mr. Lee be consistent with Mr. Webster's own moral beliefs?
◯◯◯◯◯ 10. Could Mr. Webster be so hard-hearted as to refuse the job, knowing how much it means to Mr. Lee?
◯◯◯◯◯ 11. Whether the Christian commandment to love your fellow man applies to this case.
◯◯◯◯◯ 12. If someone's in need, shouldn't he be helped regardless of what you get back from him?

Most important item   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Second most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Third most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Fourth most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫

GREAT MUCH SOME LITTLE NO

STUDENTS: ◯ Take it over   ◯ Can't decide   ◯ Not take it over

◯◯◯◯◯ 1. Are the students doing this to really help other people or are they doing it just for kicks.
◯◯◯◯◯ 2. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them.
◯◯◯◯◯ 3. Do the students realize that they might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school.
◯◯◯◯◯ 4. Would taking over the building in the long run benefit more people to a greater extent.
◯◯◯◯◯ 5. Whether the president stayed within the limits of his authority in ignoring the faculty vote.
◯◯◯◯◯ 6. Will the takeover anger the public and give all students a bad name.
◯◯◯◯◯ 7. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice.
◯◯◯◯◯ 8. Would allowing one student take-over encourage many other student take-overs.
◯◯◯◯◯ 9. Did the president bring this misunderstanding on himself by being so unreasonable and uncooperative.
◯◯◯◯◯ 10. Whether running the university ought to be in the hands of a few administrators or in the hands of all the people.
◯◯◯◯◯ 11. Are the students following principles which they believe are above the law.
◯◯◯◯◯ 12. Whether or not university decisions ought to be respected by students.

Most important item   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Second most important ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Third most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫
Fourth most important   ①②③④⑤⑥⑦⑧⑨⑩⑪⑫

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APPENDIX F

SURVEY RESULT: DIT, t-TEST AND

FRIEDMANS SCORES

IDN	Definin 2	Issues 3	Test 4	Scores 5A	5B	6	A	M	P Score	D Score	U Score	ID NUMBER	A	B	C	D	E	Kendall Concord	t Test	Adjusted P-Scores	U Score	Duplicated LS Char
425	1	0	13	21	6	10	5	4	61.7	47.8795	0.0394	425	4	7	8	4	7	0.350	0.963	61.700	0.0394	
132	0	2	20	18	6	8	1	5	53.3	38.7429	0.5462	132	5.5	5	10	4.5	5	0.512	-0.534	53.300	0.5462	
184	3	4	32	11	0	4	3	3	25	22.8768	0.6533	184	3	8	10	5	8	0.850	0.307	25.000	0.6533	
314	3	3	21	17	6	4	1	5	45	44.4103	0.1512	314	4	5	10	3	8	0.850	-1.755	45.000	0.1512	
131	0	12	21	10	4	10	0	3	40	25.4764	9.99	131	5.5	3.5	9.5	3	8.5	0.850	2.472	40.000		
229	2	1	10	20	12	8	0	7	66.7	45.0024	0.2172	229	5.5	4	9	3	8.5	0.712	3.939	66.700	0.2172	
269	1	7	18	18	7	9	0	2	56.7	30.7166	0.3159	269	5	8	9	3	5	0.600	-6.044	56.700	0.3159	
275	3	8	32	10	3	6	0	0	31.7	22.7292	0.5058	275	4	8	9	2	9	0.950	2.740	15.850	0.2529	*
423	4	5	19	25	1	5	0	1	51.7	26.3604	0.3783	423	5	5	9	5	8	0.300	4.191	51.700	0.3783	
448	4	11	24	11	9	1	0	0	35	31.4697	0.1266	448	2.5	5	9	5	8.5	0.738	10.040	35.000	0.1266	
388	1	0	25	17	0	12	1	4	48.3	31.648	0.135	388	3	9	9	5	4	0.800	-2.987	24.150	0.0875	*
																		11		43.190909091	0.2499	

IDN	Definin 2	Issues 3	Test 4	Scores 5A	5B	6	A	M	P Score	D Score	U Score	IN NUMBER	A	B	C	D	E	Kendall Concord	t Test	Adjusted P-Scores	U Score	Duplicated LS Char
88	2	12	25	9	8	3	2	1	30	30.1593	0.23	88	7	5	4	8	6	0.250	-5.243	30.000	0.2300	
3830	5	0	18	18	7	12	1	1	58.3	32.5466	0.2664	3830	8	4	2	8	8	0.800	0.115	19.239	0.1465	*
																		1.33		37.021804511	0.2831	

IDN	Def 2	Issues 3	Test 4	Scores 5A	5B	6	A	M	P Score	D Score	U Score	ID NUMBER	Leadership A	B	C	Chara D	ter E	Kendall Concord	t Test	Adj. P-Scores	Adj. U-Scores	Duplicated LS Char
83	0	3	30	5	0	13	2	7	30	31.2624	0.2982	83	10	4.5	4	6	5.5	0.563	6.724	30.000	0.2982	
288	4	1	24	13	3	9	2	4	41.7	26.9945	0.2388	288	10	5	7	6	2	0.850	-0.689	41.700	0.2388	
289	3	2	17	13	6	17	0	2	60	33.0164	0.2344	289	10	5	4	4	7	0.650	-3.225	60.000	0.2344	
294	0	5	20	12	8	10	0	5	50	32.0304	0.2196	294	10	4	7	2	7	0.950	3.029	50.000	0.2196	
324	2.3	3.4	26	23.8	0	4.5	0	0	47.2	33.7276	-0.0179	324	10	4	7	5	4	0.650	2.032	47.200	-0.0179	
1	3.4	3.4	26	11.3	0	9.1	3.4	3.4	34	28.179	0.527	1	9	3	7	3.5	7.5	0.688	0.869	34.000	0.5270	
17	4	5	26	16	3	4	0	2	38.3	30.274	0.1909	17	9	3	4	6	8	0.650	-3.119	38.300	0.1909	
105	3	1	6	29	4	9	2	6	70	42.7084	0.2697	105	9	2	4	7	8	0.850	-0.626	70.000	0.2697	
114	0	7	20	11	13	4	2	3	46.7	29.6585	0.1854	114	9	2	7	6.5	5.5	0.663	13.185	46.700	0.1854	
148	0	8	10	16	6	11	2	5	58.3	32.7037	0.0236	148	9	5	2	6	9	0.900	0.072	29.150	0.0118	*
197	0	1	32	11	5	6	0	5	36.7	34.4675	0.5661	197	9	3	5	6	7	0.500	-0.019	36.700	0.5661	
331	6	9	25	7	0	8	3	2	25	23.5732	0.2106	331	9	4	6	7	4	0.450	5.111	25.000	0.2106	
426	4	5	26	12	6	0	4	1	30	23.7687	0.2233	426	9	5	6	3.5	6.5	0.412	-1.239	30.000	0.2233	
459	0	2	23	12	7	10	0	6	48.3	29.1012	0.1606	459	9	2	4	6	9	0.950	-4.645	24.150	0.0803	*
320	2	6	27	14	4	7	0	0	41.7	28.9359	0.1931	320	8	7	4	6	6	0.250	0.684	41.700	0.1931	
412	4	8	1	23	7	12	0	6	70	41.6357	0.2218	412	8	6	7	6	4	0.250	-2.813	70.000	0.2218	
445	2	4	26	10	6	9	0	4	40	27.6261	0.0809	445	6	3	6	4	7	0.550	-3.413	20.000	0.0405	*
3830	5	0	16	16	7	12	1	1	58.3	32.5466	0.2664	3830	8	4	2	6	6	0.800	0.115	19.239	0.0879	*
25	2	10	12	17	7	6	0	7	48.3	35.9967	0.1576	25	6.5	6	7	6.5	3	0.412	4.785	48.300	0.1576	
315	6	1	20	12	6	2	3	6	33.3	29.2503	-0.0107	315	7.5	5	7.5	3.5	6.5	0.300	-5.259	16.650	-0.0054	*
107	2	9	24	11	2	4	0	6	26.3	23.8847	0.2276	107	7	4	6	6	7	0.150	2.915	14.150	0.1138	*
									17.83											44.472161716	0.2287	

IDN	Definin 2	Issues 3	Test 4	Scores 5A	5B	6	A	M	P Score	D Score	U Score	ID NUMBER	A	B	C	D	E	Kendall Concord	t Test	Adjusted P-Scores	U Score	Duplicated LS Char
161	4	9	9	16	6	9	3	2	55	33.0824	0.2495	161	4	9.5	4.5	3.5	6.5	0.775	-4.467	55.000	0.2495	
36	2	18	18	12	6	2	1	2	31.7	34.229	0.2525	36	6	9	3	6	6	0.450	-1.848	31.700	0.2525	
368	1	0	25	17	0	12	1	4	48.3	31.648	0.135	368	3	9	9	5	4	0.800	-2.987	24.150	0.0675	*
419	3	3	30	16	1	7	0	0	40	32.5035	-0.0259	419	7.5	8.5	4	2	6	0.813	-3.933	40.000	-0.0259	
454	4	9	15	16	6	7	0	4	46.7	32.584	0.4049	454	4	8	7	3	6	0.550	4.847	23.350	0.2025	*
284	1	6	22	14	9	4	0	2	45	32.9804	0.1585	284	6.5	7.5	2	7	7	0.512	5.542	45.000	0.1585	
									5											43.84	0.1809	

IDN	Definin Issues Test Scores 2	3	4	5A	5B	6	A	M	P Score	D Score	U Score	ID NUMBER	A	B	C	D	E	Kendall Concord	t Test	Adjusted P-Scores	U Score
3	1	2	37	8	3	10	0	1	31.7	24.2861	0.44	3	7	3	3	7	10	0.900	1.587	31.700	0.4400
5	4.1	12.2	15.3	8.2	4.1	2	7.1	6.1	25.4	20.0382	0.2638	5	8	6	7	2	10	0.850	3.534	25.400	0.2638
9	8	16	21	7	4	3	0	3	23.3	20.3052	-0.0489	9	5.5	6	6.5	2	10	0.813	-0.901	23.300	-0.0489
33	1	4	21	23	3	4	4	0	50	32.1035	0.0589	33	7	4.5	6.5	2	10	0.887	-8.536	50.000	0.0589
38	8	8	24	14	3	3	0	2	33.3	20.9463	0.1944	38	2	8	8	8	10	0.800	-2.515	33.300	0.1944
68	3	2	24	22	2	4	0	3	46.7	30.9013	0.1416	68	8	3	4	7	10	0.750	0.130	46.700	0.1416
98	3	0	27	11	6	11	0	3	45	31.5018	0.5913	98	5.5	4.5	6.5	3.5	10	0.625	-8.802	45.000	0.5913
102	4	0	29	14	4	6	2	2	38.3	34.4901	0.5457	102	7.5	3	3	6.5	10	0.913	1.301	38.300	0.5457
142	0	2	21	14	8	14	0	1	60	32.6925	0.1156	142	7	8	6	2	10	0.850	-3.420	60.000	0.1156
175	0	6	17	17	10	2	3	5	48.3	31.5299	0.0471	175	3	7	7	3	10	0.900	-4.915	48.300	0.0471
213	4	3	24	11	6	6	0	6	38.3	45.0636	0.6718	213	3.5	7	5	4.5	10	0.633	0.204	38.300	0.6718
242	5	6	16	19	4	4	3	3	45	30.6426	0.1435	242	7	5	5	3	10	0.700	-2.927	45.000	0.1435
339	2	10	26	15	1	3	0	3	31.7	34.6532	0.3103	339	3	7.5	5.5	4	10	0.788	-4.160	31.700	0.3103
351	1	4	16	18	9	7	0	5	58.7	34.5934	0.2345	351	8	2	8	8	10	0.800	4.582	58.700	0.2345
359	1	2	28	24	3	2	0	0	48.3	29.9865	0.3879	359	4	4	8	4	10	0.800	1.807	48.300	0.3879
372	2	5	27	7	4	6	2	6	31.7	33.4973	9.99	372	6	5	4	6	10	0.550	-6.458	31.700	
378	0	6	16	23	6	7	0	0	63.3	37.586	0.26	378	8	3	3	6	10		-8.127	63.300	0.2600
433	0	0	29	16	2	7	2	4	41.7	29.199	0.3204	433	6	6	6	2	10	0.800	-2.140	41.700	0.3204
449	1	3	17	22	10	7	0	0	65	35.7662	0.0536	449	2	6	6	6	10	0.600	-0.681	65.000	0.0536
130	2	7	23	18	1	6	0	3	41.7	28.0348	0.163	130	6.5	5	4	3	9.5	0.813	-0.857	41.700	0.1630
198	3.2	3.2	26.3	16.8	0	7.4	0	3.2	40.4	26.7772	0.1996	198	4	4	8.5	4	9.5	0.782	-1.314	40.400	0.1996
90	4	7	24	16	0	6	2	1	36.7	21.4459	9.99	90	8	5	4	4	9	0.550	-4.905	36.700	
92	1	20	27	6	1	0	0	6	11.7	10.7973	0.0923	92	8	5	4	4	9	0.550	4.203	11.700	0.0923
108	4	6	10	15	14	8	0	3	61.7	35.1118	0.247	108	3	7.5	7	3	9	0.837	3.211	61.700	0.2470
194	3	9	31	10	0	6	0	2	25	15.9398	0.1255	194	8	6	7	2	9	0.650	-0.373	25.000	0.1255
255	3	14	25	9	4	2	0	3	25	17.4929	0.113	255	4	7	6.5	4.5	9	0.700	-2.389	25.000	0.1130
301	3	7	24	11	4	10	0	1	41.7	32.2929	0.4007	301	7	8	5	3	9	0.500	-8.544	41.700	0.4007
310	0	8	30	9	3	6	3	3	30	33.6584	0.3012	310	8	3	3	7	9	0.800	-0.777	30.000	0.3012
321	1	2	35	5	6	4	4	3	25	14.6529	0.1451	321	8	2	7	4	9	0.850	2.804	25.000	0.1451
369	2.1	0	35.2	10.3	5.2	7.2	0	0	37.9	31.5775	0.3577	369	8	4.5	5	5.5	9	0.313	-3.317	37.900	0.3577
28	0	8.6	28.9	11.8	5.4	6.4	0	0	37.5	27.7399	0.5532	28	8	6.5	6.5	3	8	0.338	1.210	37.500	0.5532
349	4	5	31	5	10	5	0	0	33.3	20.2347	0.3758	349	5.5	5	7	4.5	8	0.213	-1.560	33.300	0.3758
107	2	9	24	11	2	4	0	8	28.3	23.8847	0.2276	107	7	4	8	8	7	0.150	2.915	14.150	0.1138
283	3	7	28	6	6	3	4	5	25	31.4432	0.2392	283	5	6.5	5.5	8	7	0.063	-1.172	25.000	0.2392
148	0	8	10	18	6	11	2	5	58.3	32.7037	0.0236	148	9	5	2	5	9	0.900	0.072	29.150	0.0118
459	0	2	23	12	7	10	0	6	48.3	29.1012	0.1606	459	9	2	4	6	9	0.950	-4.845	24.150	0.0803
3830	5	0	18	16	7	12	1	1	58.3	32.5486	0.2664	3830	8	4	2	8	8	0.800	0.115	19.239	0.0879
454	4	9	15	16	5	7	0	4	46.7	32.564	0.4049	454	4	6	7	3	8	0.550	4.847	23.350	0.2025

																		35.83		39.25032096	0.2384
									Totals									70.99		41.555043256	

Purged IDN	Records	and	no	DIT	Records	Purged NUMBER	A	B	C	D	E	Concord	Test
456						456	10	7	5	3	5	0.7	5.108
125						125	9	5	2	5	9	0.9	-2.237
156						156	9	2	6	6	7	0.65	-3.828
456						456	9	5	5	6	5	0.3	-4.645
153						153	7	7	7	2	7	0.5	11.522

						3.75							
297						297	6	8	6	3	7	0.35	-0.026
153						153	7	7	7	2	7	0.5	11.522

						1.25							
226						226	4.5	5	10	4	6.5	0.587	0.485
277						277	4	7	9	3	7	0.6	-1.565
279						279	6	4.5	9	3.5	7	0.483	1.863
150						150	6	6	8	3	7	0.35	-0.261
153						153	7	7	7	2	7	0.5	11.522

						4.25							

						0							
406						406	6	6	4	4	10	0.6	3.18
432						432	6	6	6	2	10	0.8	-3.256
157						157	4	8	4	4	10	0.8	0.7
45						45	2	7	5	6	10	0.85	-1.321
178						178	5	5	6	5	10	0.5	-4.127
364						364	6	6	4	4	10	0.6	0.878
217						217	6	2	8.5	4	9.5	0.962	-5.879
1350						1350	6	5	4	6	9	0.35	1.565
125						125	9	5	2	5	9	0.9	-2.237
153						153	7	7	7	2	7	0.5	11.522

						5.75							
		Total	Purged			16							

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VITA

Kenneth Marshal Preston

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ETHICAL VIEWS OF PRESIDENTS OF SMALL
COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Emphasis Area: Human Resource Development

Biographical:

Personal Date: Born in Butte, Montana, July 12, 1943, the son
Abe and Ineva Preston.   Married on July 1, 1966 to Nancy
G. Swiggart in Enid, Oklahoma.

Education: Graduate from Enid High School, Enid, Oklahoma, in
May, 1962; received a Bachelor of Science degree in
Chemistry from Central State University, Edmond, Oklahoma
in May, 1973; received a Master in Business Administration
from Phillips University, Enid, Oklahoma in May, 1979;
completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree
at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in
December, 1993.

Professional Experience: Seven years administration and
teaching experience at the junior college level.   Fourteen
years of computer background.   Six years oil field
technological experience.

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Date: 03-03-93   **IRB#:**   ED-93-063

Proposal Title: LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ETHICAL VIEWS OF ᒪᒪᒪᒪ
                 COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Principal Investigator(s): William Venable, Kenneth Preston

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

APPROVAL STATUS SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW
BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A
CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR
BOARD APPROVAL. ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO
BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for
Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

COMMENTS:

    The cover form of the questionnaire should also reference
    how the identifier codes will be secured and when (or if)
    they will be destroyed.

Signature: *Marcia L. Tilley*   Date: March 5, 1993
            Chair of Institutional Review Board