

Social and Moral Reasoning in Sport of Secondary School Administrators

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

with a

Major in Education

in the

College of Graduate Studies

University of Idaho

by

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August 2019

Authorization to Submit Dissertation

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Abstract

This dissertation research uses the RSBH Rudd Soll Values Choice Judgment Inventory to provide an understanding of a specific population of high school administrators related to reasoning in both social values and moral character. Test subjects are secondary school administrators employed in a northwestern state. In the RSBH, the social character index consists of ten sports scenarios outside of competition and contains the social values of teamwork, loyalty, and self-sacrifice. The moral index incorporates the values of honesty, justice, and responsibility and measures an individual's moral judgments towards a collection of gamesmanship scenarios in sports. After an internal consistency check and the Cronbach Alpha were run, a remaining 87 participants were analyzed. There was no significant difference by gender concerning social reasoning of secondary school administrators. Similarly, no significant difference was found by gender on moral reasoning. Both genders scored low in moral reasoning comparatively. The mean score for males in moral reasoning was 30 whereas the mean score for females was 27. The scale of the RSBH is on a range from 10-50, therefore, both genders scored low in moral reasoning comparatively to the standard. Previous research on the moral reasoning of coaches and student-athletes has suggested that females score higher than males. The results of this study are noteworthy in that the males scored higher than the females in moral reasoning. The present research will help to encourage further research in the understanding of a specific population of high school administrators related to reasoning in both social values and moral character.

Acknowledgements

First, a very heartfelt thank you to Dr. Sharon Stoll for her patience, commitment, and dedication in my time as her doctoral student. When the journey became rough, she never left my side. Her willingness to share her insight and guidance through this entire process has left a lasting impact on my life and I am forever grateful.

Thank you to my committee members, Dr. Jennifer Beller, Dr. Justin Barnes, and Dr. Anne Kern, for agreeing to give of your time and knowledge as a member of my dissertation committee. You are extremely positive role-models and I greatly appreciate your contributions to this work.

Thank you to my supportive family, you have been my inspiration and strength through this journey. You never ceased to amaze me with your encouraging words and belief that this aspiration could be accomplished. Robert, thank you for believing in me and encouraging me to follow my own path. To my children, Garrett, Parker, and Carson, thank you for your never-ending assurance. Boys, hold onto hope and never stop reaching for your dreams.

Thanks to my brother, David Senecal, who shared with me a wealth of knowledge from years of experience in leadership and provided me with the occasional pep talk when needed. Kevin Brady, thank you for your support and never-ending encouragement.

Thank you to my parents, John and Doris Senecal, who raised me to believe that standing alone for what is right is better than following the crowd. You have been amazing role-models all my life and I am so thankful and blessed to be your daughter.

Dedication

To my children, Garrett, Parker, and Carson. Thank you for a lifetime of love and laughter. I am blessed.

To my former students. You have taught me far more than I could ever express. Thank you.

To David Ruiz, I share this accomplishment with you, from one doctoral student to another. I hope you have found eternal joy, and may you rest in peace.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Sports figures, between televised games, television commercials, and personal branding, have inundated our everyday life for years. The emphasis the United States of America places on sporting events permeates our culture. This heavy emphasis trickles down through our universities and high schools. Our hometown newspapers have large sports' sections highlighting the most exciting games of the week and report statistics for all weekly games played in the region. The last several minutes of our local news recapitulates the same information on a daily basis. Some local television stations even have follow-up programs on the weekends highlighting the big high school games. In fact, high school games are more highly attended than parent-teacher conferences, science fairs, and music recitals. Overman (2019) states, "In short interscholastic school sports have become the tail that wags the dog" (p.3).

An emphasis on games exists because numerous people, including parents, administrators, and even teachers, in the United States have claimed youth, interscholastic, intercollegiate, and Olympic sports teach positive values, however, examples of unethical conduct in all said sports are reported daily by the media. Understandably, the relationship of sports and ethics is often seen as an oxymoron. If sports are to exemplify ethical demeanor, then coaches, administrators, parents, players, and fans need to teach, reinforce, and model positive values and character development (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014).

I, the researcher, am a former secondary high school administrator who experienced firsthand the challenges faced by a head principal overseeing all athletes and sporting events

sponsored by the school and in agreement with the Idaho High School Activities Association (2019). The challenges I faced varied from managing the fans in the bleachers to interviewing the athletic director, coaches, and student athletes after a concern from a parent was reported. These instances and many others brought to my attention how the training in my graduate school program did not prepare me for the administration and management of high school athletics.

Having come from a family of educators, I felt I had insight into the educational world to prepare me for school administration. My mother was a teacher and my father was also a teacher and a school principal. I was in classrooms and around teachers and principals many years before I ever reached school age. As far as experience in sport, I was very active in sports growing up. Even with this experience in my upbringing, I found myself unprepared for the intense sports ethical decisions to be made as a secondary school administrator. This dissertation research is about examining how my story and experience and exploring if it is unique. I explore if other administrators also are educationally unprepared for the task of administrating high school athletics, in an often hyper unethical environment.

Sports Ethics

Sports ethics is a set of norms that guide and evaluate attitudes and actions in the social world of power and performance sports, even at the high school level. However, the reality is outside the expectation of positive ethical expectation. Four general norms are identified when considering unethical sports practice: 1) Athletes are dedicated to “the game” above all other things, 2) Athletes strive for distinction, 3) Athletes accept risk and play through pain, and 4) Athletes accept no obstacles in the pursuit of success in sports (Coakley,

2015, pp. 115-116). This set of norms in sports should be moderated by the rules of the game and the society in which the game is played. The existing rules are implemented to keep order so all competitors can experience a fair game. Athletes, however, who display behavior that falls under the four general norms often alter the rules of the sport to gain personal or team success. This behavior, unfortunately, is today more the norm than the exception.

The present sport and athlete conditions of violating sport ethics is ubiquitous in culture today. Recently a rival high school basketball game was held in a small western United States town. During the game, the fans of one team began chanting the name of a former school administrator from the rival school. This administrator was fired for sexually abusing two students at the school and was convicted and sentenced to jail from 4 to 13 years. While school administrators claim the taunting only took place once for approximately ten seconds, the action was determined to be an ethical violation by the District IV Control Board of the Idaho High School Athletic Association. The school was placed on probation for one year and the original fine of \$1,500.00 was later redacted (Nash, 2016). This incident involving fan behavior directly addresses the responsibilities placed on the school administrators to set an ethical standard of sportsmanship for all the coaches, players, and the fans. “Only” ten seconds of taunting occurred yet, somehow, the rival school administrators either were not educated or prepared for such behavior and made no overtures to correct it.

In another incident, players on a Texas high school team became infuriated after officials nullified two touchdowns and then ejected one key player. One of his teammates tackled an official from behind, knocking him to the ground, when another teammate drilled the referee with his helmeted head. Coaches had apparently encouraged the players to attack. “The defensive backs coach admitted to commenting in reference to the injured game

official, allegedly away from his players, ‘That mother ***** needs to pay the price.’” (Rodriguez, 2015). Coach education is more than X’s and O’s, these coaches were apparently not well supervised or educated about sports ethics, or their ethical duties to their players, the opposing players, or the game itself. Good sport ethical education is needed for all administering sports competitions. Unfortunately, education appears not to be a priority.

Violence in sport is becoming more common place, but rarely does it end in a criminal conviction. “In 2001, a high school soccer player was convicted of felony assault with a deadly weapon for kicking an opponent in the head during a game.” (Lee & Lee, 2009, p. 90). The influence leadership, either positive or negative, has in sports, cannot be underrated. The following occurred when a coach encouraged aggressive play during a high school basketball game. In response one of his players elbowed an opponent breaking his nose and causing a concussion. The player received a five-year prison sentence for the incident. After the assault the coach was quoted as saying, “It’s about time we drew some blood.” (Teitelbaum, 2005, pp. 218-19).

In most cases, as well as the examples above, of failed sport ethics, the adults in charge were the underlying cause through omission or commission. When athletes from major sports misbehave, authorities at times look the other way, exempting the athletes from normal ramifications for behaviors such as tardiness, unexcused absences, rudeness, and school pranks as well as more serious transgressions (Miracle & Reese, 1994, p. 166). These conditions clearly speak to the importance of leadership guided through the education of moral reasoning and application of ethics in practice. In this society, the notion of moral reasoning may seem out of place because of a multi-cultural perspective which often argues against one set of ethics and/or moral action. It is true that many different cultures make up

the large nation, however, there are a few commonalities that every sub-culture must agree to follow including rules and regulations of government.

In social context, sport and athletics is another culture in which those who chose to participate must honor and follow the rules and guidelines. The Idaho High School Activities Association (IHSAA) has a distinct and directive handbook of rules and guidelines. Any school that chooses to be a member of IHSAA thus is required to follow the ethical rules and guidelines, which include sport ethics expectations, just as any student who chooses to participate in high school activities sanctioned by the IHSAA must also follow the ethical rules and guidelines.

Leadership Ethics

Considering sport ethics is the bases of all rules and regulations within the IHSAA (Hansen D. , 1999), then it is obvious an administrator should be educated in the leadership ethics to guide, educate, and lead the school, the coaches, the athletes, and the fans.

Sport ethics should be intentionally presented and taught to administrators because they provide the environment by which athletic directors, coaches, and student athletes reside. In the current study, I argue sport ethics lies in the process of moral education. Moral education is intentional and an educational program that facilitates the development of moral judgment (Schlaefli, Rest, & Thoma, 1985). All sport ethical dilemmas can only be solved if one has the ability to morally reason about all collateral fibers of the event.

Moral, for this study, is defined as how one human being treats another, including the values of justice, honesty, and respect. Sport is rife with the necessity of these moral values.

If fair play is to occur, the participants must value the notion of playing by the rules.

Participants must value the rules, as well as, value the fair play conditions that all participants have the right to expect and experience (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014).

Honesty is imperative to the playing of any game. Participants must honestly respond to the referee when a play is challenged. Participants must be honest in their training and behavior within the team and during competition. Did the participants do the assigned training protocol? Did the participants log honestly their work in training? Players and coaches have a moral obligation to “not cheat”, in other words, not break the trust of honest play (Stoll S. , 2011).

Respect is a cornerstone of sport ethics and the Idaho High School Activities Association. Participants are to respect the opponents, the officials, the fans, as well as, their own team (Idaho High School Activities Association, 2019).

Moral education, according to Kohlberg (1964) and Lickona (2009) lies in these processes: Moral knowing, moral valuing, and moral action. Thus, to do more education, these three processes must be a part of the learning and teaching experience. (More about this in Chapter 2).

Moral education is a life-long pursuit that should not be considered completed after a certain milepost in life (Lickona, 2009). Moral education benefits all of society not just those who appear to need the education. Nevertheless, the school society, as well as, society in general has not been trained in moral education. Indeed, in sports, moral decisions are often bent in an environment that values success at all costs rather than the development of integrity (justice, honesty, and respect) integrity (Coakley, 2015).

The athlete has learned by doing: ‘knee him in the groin, kick him in the head-anything for the win’ is a direct quote from a collegiate football player. It follows logically that athletes and coaches do not have the philosophic value, cognitive knowledge, or psychological empathy to consider the basic tenants associated with sportsmanship, such as responsibility, justice, and respect (Beller & Stoll, 1993).

School administrators take the unique position of acting as role models and curriculum administrators to athletic directors, coaches, and student athletes. They thus are charged with leading and directing through a specific rules document (Idaho High School Activities Association, 2019) that is based in fair play, respect, and honesty, in example, the components of sport ethics. To do this, one must have a sports ethics understanding, a moral education of sport so to speak, to lead.

The Role of School Administrators in High School Athletics

“Socrates long ago stated that the mission of education is to help people become both smart and good” (Ryan & Bohlin, 1999). Ethical leadership defines the ultimate level of success of any establishment, including high school athletics. Ethical leaders set a pattern of how values should guide actions and decisions as well as create a reward system that holds others responsible for ethical conduct (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014).

To acquire a position as a school administrator, candidates must have a master’s degree in educational leadership and be state certified. A typical master’s program in leadership contains classes in finance, multiculturalism, special education law, and policies and politics among others (2019). Ethics is addressed in a general educational law course. Usually, however, there are no courses offered on sports administration, sports supervision,

or even moral education, as applied to sport. Research measuring or evaluating school administrators' knowledge about sports ethics is limited. As far as the researcher knows, only two studies in Idaho and the Northwest (Hansen D. , 1999; Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018) have evaluated school administrators' knowledge of moral reasoning (sport ethics) applicable to sport. Also, in general, research measuring the general area of moral knowing (i.e. moral reasoning) as applied to high school administrators is non-existent.

Nevertheless, research on the non-ethics or ethics of leadership demonstrates either a positive or a negative dramatic influence in the workplace which impacts mission, vision, and behaviors in the workplace (Gini, 2004).

This researcher has attended the Idaho High School Activities Association (IHSAA) annual district wide meetings as a secondary school administrator. That meeting, of which secondary school administrators and athletic directors attended, consisted of an overview of the responsibilities of each school concerning the number of administrators to be present at each event and what type of supervision (primary or secondary) should be provided. The IHSAA Manual was distributed and the principals were told to read the document. The remaining time was spent on addressing new rules and regulations for the upcoming school year. Given the method of distribution, it is not surprising that a previous study in this state reported that very few coaches had seen the manual and fewer had devoted the time to read the information it contained (Hansen, 1999). It is not known if administrators ever read the document or if they even understood the document.

The researcher also experienced extreme moral dilemmas involving student athletes who were related to other administrators within the same district. Many school districts are

small enough to face these types of multifaceted problems. The political situations in conjunction with the alleged unethical offenses were challenging to maneuver through as a new principal. Having a more extensive training in preparation for this position of school administrator would have been helpful in anticipating difficult situations that may arise specifically in interscholastic sports.

Considering that this researcher knows the limitations of education in sport ethics, and the limitations of any moral education in sport in this state, could it be that others also are highly limited in their understanding? What do they know about the application of sport ethics in athletics or sport experience? Can principals use the values that the IHSAA state are the underlying purpose of their programs? Can administrators actually reason through sports ethical scenarios about sport ethics and apply the principles of the IHSAA? The present research, using the Rudd Stoll Beller Hahm Value Choice Judgment Inventory (RSBH), a valid and reliable measure of moral reasoning in sport scenarios, analyzed the understanding of a specific population of high school administrators related to reasoning in both social values and moral character.

Setting the Problem

The role of high school administrators in high school athletics varies from state to state but the opportunity for positive influence is present in all circumstances. As stated earlier, research (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018) is minimal concerning the understanding of leadership in sport among high school administrators as moral education leaders or their ability to mo. Specific, valid, and reliable instruments with a strong theory and pedagogy of moral development and practice must be aligned to measure and assess knowledge before

intervention programs can be implemented to help high school administrators (Serdyukov, 2017).

To evaluate, the research used a valid and reliable instrument that focuses on dilemmas in sports ethics. The instrument's purpose is to capture the reasoning process of how one does in making moral decisions in sport. For example, if a participant in volleyball touches the ball illegally but the referee or umpire does not see the touch, should the participant report the call? The decision lies in the moral spectrum of fair play and honesty.

Beside moral values, researchers have argued that there are other values in sport that lie outside the moral spectrum. There are values, known as social values, that are not directed toward others but lie within the participants' own work ethic. Social values such as hard work, dedication, sacrifice, and loyalty are common social values. The research for the present study chose to use the RSBH Values Choice Instrument to measure both moral and social reasoning. More on the instrument in Chapter 2.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this descriptive study is to examine the social and moral reasoning of high school administrators.

Variables

- 1) Independent Variable 1: Eighty-seven high school administrators from a northwest state.
 - a. Independent Variable: Gender
 - b. Independent Variable: Years of experience

- 2) Dependent Variable 1: High school administrators' response to the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory – social reasoning
- 3) Dependent Variable 2: High school administrators' response to the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory – moral reasoning.

Statistical Sub Problems

- 1) What difference exists by gender on social reasoning of secondary school administrators?
- 2) What difference exists by gender on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators?
- 3) What difference exists by years of experience on social reasoning of secondary school administrators?
- 4) What difference exists by years of experience on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators?
- 5) What difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in social reasoning of secondary school administrators?
- 6) What difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in moral reasoning of secondary school administrators?

Statistical Hypothesis

- 1) No difference exists by gender on social reasoning of secondary school administrators.
- 2) No difference exists by gender on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators

- 3) No difference exists by years of experience on social reasoning of secondary school administrators.
- 4) No difference exists by years of experience on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.
- 5) No difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in social reasoning of secondary school administrators.
- 6) No difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.

Assumptions

- 1) High school administrators involved in this study are representative of high school personnel.
- 2) High school administrators have read and understood the purposes of the IHSAA, including the IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018) and the IHSAA Rules and Regulations Manual (Idaho High School Activities Association, 2019).
- 3) The RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory is a reliable and valid instrument. School administrators who participated in this study are typical of all high school administrators in this state.

Delimitations

- 1) This study is delimited to high school administrators in a northwest state.
- 2) Moral reasoning assessment is limited to responses from the RSBH instrument.
- 3) Social reasoning assessment is limited to responses from the RSBH instrument.

Limitations

The results are limited to responses of high school administrators in the Pacific Northwest. The state is conservative by politics and by religious influence.

Definition of Terms

To clarify, the following definitions are established for use in this study:

Autonomy: Autonomy is man's power, right, or condition of self-determination, self-governance, and freedom from external control.

Code of Ethics- A standard of morals written by a group of professionals by which they determine what is right and wrong.

Character- Character has three interrelated parts- moral knowing, moral feeling, and moral behavior. Good character involves knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good (Lickona, 2009).

Cognitive Dissonance- The cognitive process whereby an individual's values and beliefs are challenged. The challenging process is necessary in moral reasoning to wrestle with moral dilemmas.

Development: Development refers to progressive and continuous changes in the organism from birth to death. These changes can include changes in the shape and integration of bodily parts into functional parts; and intellectual, social, emotional, or moral development that may occur at different periods of an individual's life.

Gamesmanship- The perspective of pushing the rules to the limit, without getting caught, using whatever methods possible to achieve the desired result.

Hahm Beller Values Choice Inventory- Incorporates the moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility and measures an individual's moral judgments towards a collection of gamesmanship scenarios in sports.

High School Athletic Director- Those persons employed and/or hold the title of "Athletic Director" in high schools (grades 9-12) who are in direct control over the school athletic program.

Honesty: Honesty is defined as the condition or capacity of being trustworthy or truthful.

Integrity- A commitment to the values of the community- however the values of the community cannot violate the values of the individual- honest, justice, responsibility, respect, beneficence, and the courage to carry through.

Justice: Justice is defined as an equity or fairness for treating peers or competitors equally.

Morality: Morality is used to designate the generally accepted codes of conduct of individuals or groups. For this study, morality is defined as it fosters or even calls for the use of reason and for a kind autonomy on the part of the individual. It asks the individual, when mature and normal, to make autonomous decisions. As a social institution of life, morality is thought of as aiming at rational self-guidance or self-determination in its members.

Moral Action- The outcome of moral knowing and moral feeling.

Moral Development- Moral development refers to growth of the individual's ability to distinguish right from wrong, to develop a system of ethical values, and to learn to act morally. Moral development theory explains how individuals develop morally.

Moral Feeling- How much one cares about being honest, fair, and decent towards others.

Moral Judgments- The voluntary actions of human beings in so far as those actions are considered right or wrong. Violation of moral codes arouses judgments of disapproval and condemnation. In Freudian terms, morality is the function of the superego which does not think merely in terms of getting what is desired by the individual id or even in terms of salvaging the greatest balance of satisfaction over frustration for it.

Moral Knowing- Understanding how to apply moral values in various situation.

Moral Reasoning- Moral reasoning applies critical analysis to specific events to determine what is right or wrong, and what people ought to do in a particular situation (McCombs School of Business, 2019).

Non-moral- Values with extrinsic or objective qualities such as money, fame, glory, positioning, winning, or prestige. Extrinsic values are highly valued because of their benefits.

Normative ethics: Normative ethics is the attempt to formulate general ethical principles that can be rationally justified and then used for deciding issues of right and wrong, good and evil in particular situations.

Norms (normative): Norms constitute or relate to a standard or regulative ideal. Thus, a normative judgment is one that expresses a preference or evaluation, in contrast to a cognitive or factual judgment.

Respect- Showing regard for the worth of someone or something (Lickona, 2009).

Responsibility: Responsibility is defined as having to account for one's actions; you are responsible for your acts, if and only if you did the act or caused it to occur.

RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory: The Rudd Stoll Beller Hahm (RSBH) Value Choice Judgment Inventory is a moral and social value choice inventory based on three universal values: Honesty, responsibility, and justice. The inventory analyzes how people judge what ought to be done in moral dilemmas, specifically in sport-oriented situations.

Social Reasoning- Originally offered by Rudd (1998) is the process of value based decisions on the social values of sport.

Sport Ethic- A set of norms to guide and evaluate attitudes and actions in the social world of power and performance sports (Coakley, 2015, p. 115). Coakley uses this terminology out of context, and mixes sport ethics with sport ethos.

Sportsmanship- The quality inherent in playing a game in which one is honor bound to follow the spirit and letter of the rules. Sportsmanship rules are rules of conduct, explicitly written or implicitly believed, that adhere to this principle.

Significance of the Study

High school administrators hold a very important role. The behind the scenes role they play is crucial to the school, as well as, the athletic climate of the school. Because of this critical leadership role, the focus of ethics in leadership becomes vital. Ethical leadership embodies being a moral person and moral manager both characterized by honesty and integrity (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014). The immediate goal of the present research is to collect responses concerning social and moral reasoning about sport from a large sample of high school principals. The ultimate future goal of the study, if the results support the hypotheses, is to design an online course to increase secondary administrator's moral reasoning and provide practical solutions to improve school athletic environment and administrator role modeling in athletics.

Need for Leaders.

Why is there a need for ethical leaders? The impact of athletics on an individual athlete can be life changing. Ortega and Gasset, as stated in Comez-Marmol et al., reflect about the importance of sport in human life and “consider sports a “vital luxury” that human beings can freely and voluntarily dedicate to when he [sic] has already satisfied the rest of his “compulsory occupations” and that sport is able to provide a complete meaning to one’s own life” (Comez-Marmol, Sanchez-Alcaraz Martinez, De La Cruz Sanchez, Valero, & Gonzalez-Villora, 2017). If sport provides a significant meaning to one’s life, the natural progression would be to consider the level of the significance athletics brings to one’s life. While sport is the actual physical activity in which an individual or team compete against each other,

athletics is the practice or principles of the activity. In considering the importance of leadership in athletics, it is important to ask the question, “How do athletics effect athletes?”

Varying opinions exist on the effectiveness of athletics on an individual. Negative effects of athletics are visible in news articles across the United States daily from hazing, cheating, lying, and the overall attitude of these behaviors being acceptable (Bredemeier & Shields, 1995; Doty, 2006). In contrast, some positive effects of athletics have been supported through research, specifically scoring notably higher on the social reasoning index of the RSBH Values Choice Inventory (Rudd & Stoll, 2004).

The Relationship of Athletics to Leaders.

Sports and athletic ability are highly esteemed in the United States of America. Parents in this country place their children in sports with the hope that along with mastering the complex skills of their sport, they will build character through sport, which is assumed to teach moral values and life lessons. Sports, in fact, can be the vehicle to teach social values like team work and moral values like integrity, respect, and justice under the right conditions (Lumpkin A. , 2009, p. 23). To impart these values, leaders who oversee athletes and coaches need to ensure that these values are being taught. Before they can be taught, leaders need to have a clear understanding for themselves of what these values entail.

The present research, using the RSBH instrument, analyzes the understanding of a specific population of high school administrators related to social values and moral character, specifically evaluating social and moral reasoning. Results of this research should contribute to further development of high school administration training through a concise theoretical understanding of the need for moral reasoning training and leadership among high school

administrators. Additionally, the research will contribute to an understanding of where high school administrators measure in moral reasoning and decision making and if they can apply the guidelines of the IHSAA association to real athletic situations. If they cannot with any degree of expertise, then further steps need to be taken to help them in the administrative roles.

To further emphasize the impact of school administration as leaders in interscholastic athletes, on completeness of this study, a white paper will be submitted to the state leadership at the secondary school level about the results and suggestions will be offered to positively impact secondary administrative leaders in moral reasoning.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Problem Statement

The purpose of this descriptive study is to examine the social and moral reasoning of high school administrators. The role of high school administrators varies from state to state but the opportunity for positive influence in sport is present in all circumstances. Research is minimal concerning the understanding of leadership in sport among secondary school administrators in relation to moral reasoning considering sport ethics. Before we begin, a short discussion of why sport is integral for children.

Metrics of the Review of Literature

The review of literature will be surveyed in the following order:

1. Why interscholastic sport for children?
2. Why sports are for children: The history of sports in America
3. The historical context of sport building character.
4. Theories to understand moral reasoning in high school administration
5. Why U.S. sport leaders have not educated in character education
6. The advancement of moral reasoning
7. Research relevant to leadership and ethical training among administrators
8. The societal current moral climate in high school sports
9. Idaho High School Activities Association

Why Interscholastic Sport for Children?

Interscholastic sports help young athletes develop through sport skills, physical fitness, self-discipline, sportsmanship, teamwork, time-management skills, self-confidence and mental toughness while promoting life skills, life lessons, and enhanced academic performance, as well (Lumpkin & Stokowski, 2011). The hope is that young athletes will acquire these positive attributes and therefore grow to be outstanding adult individuals.

The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) and its member state associations champion interscholastic sports and performing arts activities because they promote citizenship and sportsmanship in the 11 million students who participate nationwide. Activity programs instill a sense of pride in school and community, teach lifelong lessons and skills of teamwork and self-discipline and facilitate the physical and emotional development of the nation's youth. (National Federation of High School Activities, 2018).

Parents believe in the touted character-building attributes of athletics which has been supported by sports sociologists, sports psychologists, and sports historians (Beller & Stoll, 1995). These supposed character-building lessons are to be developed through thoughtful guidance and leadership from coaches and administrators. It is hoped that coaches teach these moral principles by helping athletes determine what is right and wrong thereby guiding their actions based on what is valued (Austin, 2014).

This character building belief lies in direct proportion to why sports are historically valued in the U.S. The United States is the only nation in the world in which sport (the

practice) and school athletics (the administration of sports) is in the school experience. To understand how we got there a brief history of sport and its relationship to the play work continuum will tell the story. Play was put to work and the result is athletics.

Why Sport are for Children: The History of Sports in America

This historical relationship of sports in school has a tortuous curriculum journey to inclusion. For leadership to understand how sport has become a part of the school curriculum one should know the place of sport in society and the role that play, sport, and competition holds within society and the school.

Work v. Play in the History of American Sports.

Sport has not always been thought of as an entertaining pastime. The struggle to accept or reject sports runs deep in the history of our country. The historical debate of how society should spend their time can be traced far before the creation of America. Is work more important than play? Is play more beneficial than work? Even with the qualified opinions of many of those who have since passed-on, the debate continues in determining acceptable definitions of work versus play in American society (Hetherington, 1923; Wood & Cassidy, 1927).

Influence of Europe on Colonial Sports (1492-1763).

Play and the relationship of play to work is buried in our colonial traditions. Play was viewed as a community event in England. The Cotswold Games are a good representation of how play was viewed in 1612.

Begun in 1612, the Cotswold Games have usually been depicted by modern supporters as a series of Olympic-like sporting events held to offer a harmless contrast to the dour spirit of Puritanism that threatened to eliminate all leisure and recreation from England (Daniels, 2008).

The township participated with few to no rules. The injuries were numerous, but the risk was worth the experience. This community focus was important to develop a concept of working together to accomplish a task. When the new world began, many colonists brought forms of play with them from their mother countries. While this was frowned upon by some religious groups, as the country flourished so did the entertainment in play (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 36).

Quakers in the 16th century maintained that work is a form of constructive play. Play should be useful and was preferred to mindless running about.

The Quakers plain dress and unadorned speech, their devotion to labor and worldly asceticism, led them away from worldly frivolity, and they did their utmost to curb the excess they perceived in the colony's non-Quaker population. If a barn was constructed or a quilt was made, then their time was not wasted. Hunting was considered a useful form of play because it contributed to the care of their family. Showing the results of work even though work may increase the religious and social standing of an individual.

This strong work ethic was encouraged in many communities in early America (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 35).

While they may not have always lived up to their own standards, work was inseparably part of Puritan social ideology, a transcendent value, for through work people not only searched for signs of personal salvation but also built a godly commonwealth, an American Israel, a city on a hill.

Interestingly, the concept of putting play to work is not alien to the sport practice of today. Coaches use work related terms in training such as, “no pain, no gain” and “workout”. Training regimens are hard work ethic. It is also true that athletics in present school day schools has a usual mantra: sport develops work ethic. The Pilgrims most certainly affected how we view play in sport.

Influence of England’s Perspective of Sport and Games.

English sports naturally influenced the colonies, especially the English colonies. The English accepted the notion of play and originally most English settlements supported the sports of the day which were ruled by unwritten laws that had been handed down for hundreds of years from English tradition. These sports were brutal in their play and often used to release social tension or settle an old score.

Cockfights, horse racing, and animal baiting; hunting, angling, and fowling; throwing quoits (similar to horseshoes), cudgeling, and rounders (an antecedent to baseball); contest in which we could recognize the outlines of modern wrestling, football, and cricket-indeed, a hundred games of chance and skill, played according to a thousand unwritten local rules, were brought to the colonies (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 6).

Immigrants from other countries also accepted and influenced sport in the colonies. For example, Dutch colonists brought golf and lawn bowling, as well as, ice skating and sleigh riding (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 6). These influences combined to create the modern-day American sports but it has taken hundreds of years to cultivate.

Industrial Revolution (1760-1840).

The benefits of work have continued to be a strong theme throughout American history. In modern times a forty-hour work week is respectable but a 60 to 80-hour work week is commendable. As America developed throughout the centuries this line of thinking has been prevalent throughout. During the Industrial Revolution, religious workers were preferred due to their high work ethics and the value of self-control. These workers continued the idea of virtuous prosperity (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 52). An idea that is indelible in sport training- hard work is expected and hard work will bring reward. The teams who work harder will win.

A sports revolution occurred in the 18th century that moved the benefits of hard work and physical health into an association connecting the mind, moral attitude, and spiritual well-being. This movement paved a path for a new population of game players. Religious views slowly moved toward the benefits of physical fitness. This, in part, was due to the many negative comments made by foreign visitors about the physical fitness of American men. “For a frontier-smashing, progressive worshipping young nation, the charge that Americans lacked manly vigor rankled. The very idea that working too hard gave rise to immoral habits seemed especially ironic, given Victorian faith in the virtues of work” (Gorn

& Goldstein, 1993, p. 82). Not only did this influence the religious population but it changed the way social circles worked as well.

Social clubs began specializing in specific sports and men of respectable status began competing with those of other social backgrounds under the guise of competition. In the past, this may have occurred, but the clubs of this era added a respectable aspect to play and competition.

Dancing, racing, and blood sports were most common during the initial stages of newly acquired wealth. Some holding religious position did participate in the viewing of sporting activities which eventually led to the popular notion of “Muscular Christians.” This term was given by Reverend Charles Kingsley’s writing entitled, *Alton Locke (1850)* (Kingsley, 2014), which describes educated English gentlemen who played sports and were dedicated to the Church and country (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 88). They explain that after some criticism from England, men started to look around and agreed that Americans were too frail and needed to bulk up. Oliver Wendell Holmes addressed this subject in the *Atlantic Monthly (1858)* by stating, “I am satisfied that such a set of black-coated, stiff-jointed, soft-muscled, paste-complexioned youth as we can boast in our Atlantic cities never sprang from the loins of Anglo-Saxon lineage...” (Holmes, 1858, p. 881).

It is during this period that sport and physical education became a part of the curriculum offerings at school. Dudley Allan Sargent at Harvard began a program to develop fit young men. Sargent, as a physician, knew the importance of measurement and assessment. The first measurement and assessment researcher, his data on what it takes to train to fitness still affects how we view training, i.e. the Sargent Jump Test, and the Sargent Step Test. At

this time, the leading physical educators, (Wood & Cassidy, 1927) Thomas Wood, Luther Gulick, and Clark Heatherington, argued over the importance of sport or curriculum in schools. The basic disagreement was whether schools should follow a European design of calisthenics and marching or something more eclectic. Heatherington, Woods, and others argued for sport as a means to fitness and health. The new physical education focused on the melding of physical education and sport in the athletic school experience. Athletics should be a “laboratory” of what is taught in physical education and so it was that sport was put to work to develop fit, healthy American youth and all would culminate on the playing field (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993).

It was also by this point in history that America was ready to embrace sports as a national treasure. Magazines devoted to sports sprang up which led to the popularity of certain athletes thus fast tracking the establishment of professional sports and the professional athlete. A natural progression to include sports in training for war soon progressed in our nation’s military.

World War I (1914-1918).

Militia and sport games have worked together at different times throughout world history to support work as play. Embracing physical fitness and sports with the intent of strength and conditioning in service to America became a supported training technique in the military during WWI.

For the first time in American history, sports were formally linked to military preparedness; athletics now would be sanctioned and even financed by the federal government. Recreational experts assured the

nation that by playing baseball and football, by boxing and exercising, young American men would be fit enough for war.

This bled directly into school sports and physical education. The school as a social force was also designated as a source to physically train students. Sport had a duty to be part of the training. Again, sport was put to work (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 178).

Even the President of the United States was publicly endorsing sports in America. “President Woodrow Wilson declared, “I hope that sports will be continued...as a real contribution to the national defense” (Gorn & Goldstein, 1993, p. 178).

A Changing Philosophy: Early 20th Century Sport.

The concept of sport as work, within the school, as well as, the director of athletics was the focus of all school sport throughout the 1920's, 30's, 40's, and onward. It was through this period that high school sport imitated the growth of collegiate sport (Zeigler, 1984). As noted earlier, collegiate sport existed and prospered because sports build character. No one doubted it. It was gospel that “true men” were built through sport in athletes (Kidd, 2006).

Schools are a place where students have an opportunity to plays sports in physical education and on intramural and school sponsored teams, however, current offerings in the school day are now fitness and lifetime sports. School still serves an important role in educating students on the importance of play or movement and making healthy lifestyle choices. “Schools are a logical setting for promoting physical activity among youth: schools

exist in all communities, attendance is mandatory, and they have the requisite staff, equipment, and facilities (at least when adequate funding is provided).” (Overman, 2019, p. 135). Currently the demand in public schools for physical education teachers is on an incline of 8%. This percentage is an average in the demand of all high school teachers (Occupational outlook handbook, High school teachers, 2018). Universities are focusing more on overall health and wellness than physical education. While the benefits of play are strongly noted throughout history, the demand for more academic classes has won out in the current era.

Play is an important component of the American way of life. More importantly it is vital to a healthy well-being. Modern American once belittled the importance of play in schools and has decreased the number of opportunities available to children at the school level decreased. Our country’s health was and today is in a downward spiral. The need for more physical activity is crucial in regaining ground, as a nation, against obesity and other negative health conditions. What once frivolous or salacious is now understood as an important aspect of a healthy life. The modern knowledge about the benefits of play should not be ignored but should be embraced and placed at a level of high importance in each American’s life.

Athletics in the school have not waivered since they were introduced in the twentieth century. Today over 7,963,535 high school children participate in over sixty different sports (2017). The argument for high school athletics, plus the importance of play, is that the teamwork demanded in athletics built character and it has been a historical tradition.

The Historical Context of Sport Building Character

Worldwide, sports play a major role in society and cultures. People of all ages and backgrounds participate in sports daily. Sports can benefit people in many ways, such as, stress management, health benefits of exercise, social aspects of working with and playing against others and character education. The negative side of sports may also influence participants. Poor character is a key concern in modern sports. Thus, the athletic world is known for good and bad character representation. The wide range of outcomes from sports participants raises the question, “What is character and how does it relate to sport?”

Defining Character in Sport.

A person’s character is an important part of who that person is and how they interact with the people around them. Aristotle defined character as the life of right conduct- right conduct in relation to other persons and in relation to oneself. Aristotle expands the thought by identifying two components of a virtuous life which includes being self-oriented (such as self-control) and other oriented (such as generosity and compassion) (Palmour, 1986). In support of the components of a virtuous life, philosophers, like Aristotle, define character with consideration to a bigger picture of life in addition to a personal interaction with others. Ralph Waldo Emerson said, “Don’t say anything. What you are stands over you the while, and thunders so that I cannot hear what you say to the contrary” (Emerson, 1875, p. 80) . Many who study character development grapple with the definition of character (Rudd, 1998). Culturally there may be many different definitions for character, though for the present study its existence is accepted since the IHSAA does, as well. If researchers and

scholars have had difficulty defining character, how can one clearly evaluate how sports builds character?

In recent times, researchers have been more overt about what kind of character they are interested in studying. For the purposes of this study, the focus will reside with both social character and moral character. Moral character is often an area of media focus in sport, in part, due to the increase in scandalous behavior, such as cheating and excessive violence. Many view character in sport as a mechanism for social interaction. In contrast, social character can be linked to an early desire for individuals who can be successful in a corporate capitalistic society. Thus, the emphasis is often placed on social qualities as demonstrated by General George Wingate: “It is recognized that there is no way in which the robust manly qualities of courage, nerve, and hardihood are developed as much as in competitive athletics, our games [sic] are having this result upon the class of to which I refer.” (O'Hanlon, 1980, pp. 89-103).

In accordance with O'Hoolen's research and the present study, social character refers to a set of social values or cultural values such as loyalty, discipline, cooperation, and perseverance (Rudd, 1998). Moral Character in contrast, is defined as the ability to consider one's actions in relationship to moral values such as honesty, justice and responsibility (Beller & Stoll, 2000). These character traits are derived from both Social Learning Theory and Cognitive Development Theory.

Theories to Understand Moral Reasoning in High School Administrators

The Social Learning Theory and the Cognitive Development Theory contribute to a person's moral reasoning and moral actions. As these theories assert, internal and external

factors influence moral reasoning. Leaders in sport, including athletic directors, coaches, and school administrators have a responsibility to lead with purpose to positively affect youth athletes. It is expected and stated succinctly in the IHSAA guidelines (2018).

Social Learning Theory.

Social learning occurs on a grander scale than individual or group learning. On a webpage entitled, “What Does Social Learning Mean?” for social learning to take place there must be a demonstration that a change in understanding has taken place in the individual, demonstrate that this change goes beyond the individual to the community and occurs through social interactions and processes within a social network (2019). Davis and Luthans suggested, “The person and the environment do not function as independent units but instead determine each other in a reciprocal manner” (Luthans & Davis, 1979, pp. 42-60).

Pratt et al. (2010) propose Social Learning Theory (SLT) as a theoretical foundation for understanding influences on the ethical standards of future business leaders across various cultures and to pursue explanatory constructs for unethical standards worldwide.

Bandura (1977) asserts that SLT represents the interaction of an individual’s knowledge and experiences, the environment (i.e., those stimuli that the person is aware of), and the individual’s behavior. The primary premise of SLT is that behavior is a result of both person and situation and is not derived from either factor alone. There is both a cognitive and operant view of learning in SLT. Bandura designates a four-step pattern, in which an individual may notice something in the environment, the individual remembers what was noticed, the individual produces a behavior, and then the environment delivers a consequence (e.g., reward or punishment) that changes the likelihood of the behavior appearing again.

While Bandura does state that moral competency is a component of the theory of social learning, the cognitive development theory asserts that children learn moral norms by social constructing them. Sport and the practice of athletics is rife with social construct of the importance of social values and the process of social reasoning.

Cognitive Development Theory.

Hoffman describes cognitive development theorists, specifically Piaget (1932) and Kohlberg (1969, 1984), as having studied the development of people's ability to determine competing moral claims and the way people entreat concepts of rights, duty, and justice to deal with these claims. Unlike, social learning theorists, cognitive development theorists suggest, as stated earlier, that children learn moral norms by socially constructing them. While, social learning theorists assert that something outside the child becomes part of his/her internal moral structure so the child passively procures moral understanding (Hoffman, 2001; Kohlberg, 1969; Kohlberg, 1984; Piaget, 1932).

Understanding foundational theories regarding high school and college students, and even high school principals' cognitive development begins with recognizing how scholars define the concept of cognition. Within higher education, definitions of cognition stem primarily from developmental psychology and focus on mental schemas that underlie and guide how individuals make meaning of experiences (King, 2009; Taylor, 2016),

Understanding how individuals make meaning of experiences through the Social Learning Theory and the Cognitive Development Theory is vital to individuals in leadership positions of high school sports. Developing meaningful experiences through the guidance of character development is an essential component of the high school sports experience.

Ethics in Relation to Social Learning Theory.

As stated earlier, in the four step pattern of the Social Learning Theory, one notices something in the environment, one remembers what was noticed, one produces a behavior, and then the environment delivers a consequence (e.g. reward or punishment) that changes the probability the behavior will appear again (Bandura, 1977). Hanna, Crittenden, and Crittenden (2013) state that within the context of ethics, the Social Learning Theory framework offers substantial guidance with respect to how future leaders learn to make ethical decisions and how they would view ethics in sport.

How people view ethics may differ from culture to culture and situation to situation. However, common practice, though powerful, may not offer a strong basis in theoretical understanding of what ethics is. Ethics is the study of character, morals, and moral values. Morals are those motives, intentions, and actions that are right and good, as opposed to wrong and bad. Moral values describe the relative worth one places on virtuous behaviors like honest, respect, and responsibility (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 2003).

Understanding how others view the world helps understand ethics. The following five ethical theories (Lumpkin A. , 2009) may help in understanding how a scenario can be viewed differently. However, even though different theories exist one must understand that the purpose of ethics is about our decisions in relation to the rules, the opponents, the referees, and the fans. In each of the following, I, the researcher, offer a usual interpretation and then offer the error in thinking of the theory.¹

¹ The present study and the instruments used in the study are based on principled reasoning in other words Deontological Theory. However, Deontological Theory is often criticized as being “too principled”. John Stuart Mill (2002) and Jeremy Bentham (1983) argued against a strict deontological interpretation of doing

1) In contrast to Deontological Theory, Utilitarian Theory states what is right is dependent on what is good for the greatest number of people. Thus, one could follow a rule to the detriment of others, more on this later. It depends on the circumstances and the consequences therefore, there is no specific principle stated of what is right. Individuals utilizing utilitarianism make decisions based on their prediction of what the short and long term consequences will be for most people. The objective is to amplify the amount of satisfaction, benefit, or enjoyment of most people. Clearly the challenge is to determine what the maximum for the collective human welfare is. To illustrate this theory, imagine a college athlete who to maintain his eligibility status, accepts an unearned grade from a professor which then allows him to stay eligible. This, in turn, helps his team win a championship. Except that ethics is not only for self. A utilitarian would ask, "Should this become a universal norm?" If the answer is yes, ultimately this would help the athlete, his team, the university, and the fans. This scenario is an argument for the utilitarian approach and benefiting the most people. The argument, however, is flawed. The rest of the students in the class did not benefit from the preferential treatment in the grades they received, like the athlete. However, one could argue, they are a small number compared to the population of those who benefited. However, the flaw in this argument is based on one set of norms: The athlete, the athlete's team, the athlete's school, and the athlete's fans. What about opponents and all the other athletes? If we argue that utilitarian good is only for one person, or one team, we are not doing ethics. Frankena (1973) would argue that the scenario described may have 10% good but what about the 90% bad of such decisions?

ethics. They argued that the consequences of any moral action must consider the effect of all those who are affected.

2) In contrast, the Theory of Ethical Relativism basically states (1) that all points of view are valid because each determines what is true or (2) relativists claim that moral norms evolve as social norms and cultures differ. In the multicultural global view, relativism has a foothold. Who is to say what is right or wrong? Who is to say how others should be treated? An example of moral relativism in practice would be to exclude women from participating in sport because women cannot either participate at the same level as men, or women would be excluded from participation because of cultural bias. However, in the world of sport, equality is legislated, and women are equal. Relativism, also does not apply to the present study since the IHSAA has clear ethical standards of right and wrong as applied to participation, play, inclusion, and competition (2019).

3) Situational Ethics, unlike Utilitarian Ethics, is the belief that in the absence of a universal standard or law, what matters is the present outcome or consequences for each individual; so, the end can justify the means. Lumpkin (2009) gives an example of contrasting realities to demonstrate this theory:

In a pickup game of basketball played among friends, everyone is expected to call his or her own fouls or acknowledge knocking the ball out of bounds. Caring about one's friends and maybe getting to keep playing with the group leads to these actions. But, once an organized game is played with officials, most athletes will not admit to the same fouls or violations as the end goal of winning is more important than expressing concern for opponents (Lumpkin, 2009, p. 5).

Situational ethics in application is trying to get away with as much as possible (unseen or not penalized by officials) to increase the possibility of winning which has been a common approach used by many athletes and coaches.

4) Deontological Theory or Non-Consequential Theory, in contrast, states that a moral principle should be followed regardless of the consequences. The challenge is to write principles based on moral values which articulates the need to practice the principles. Hence if one believes in the principle one has a moral duty to do what is right, i.e. follow the principle, regardless of the consequences. For example, in high school tennis competitions, a tennis player is expected to call the opponents serve out or in the bounds of the court. The player is morally obligated to make the correct call. “The emphasis in doing one’s duty builds moral courage because of the universal standard that applies without exception (Lumpkin, 2009, p. 6).” The belief in a fundamental rightness, while making it easier to resist compromise to ethical standards, can be challenging thus good ethical leadership is necessary to educate athletes about the moral experience of following the principle.

In the present study, deontological theory guides the study because the IHSAA guidelines and regulations are all based on deontological norms (Hansen D. , 1999). Also, the instrument to measure moral reasoning (the RSBH Values Choice Inventory) is also based on the same deontological moral values of honesty, justice, and respect (Beller & Stoll, 2000).

In addition to deontic theory, sport organizations today use a corollary ethical theory when related to sport governance. Such a theory is the present justice and fairness approach.

5) Justice and fairness is another ethical theory that advocates equality of rights and opportunity while ensuring the greatest benefit for the least advantaged. “The justice part of this theory states that not everything has to be equal, as long as, each person has an equal opportunity to succeed or reach a desired outcome.” (Lumpkin, 2009, p. 6). Justice requires an end to discriminatory treatment. Fairness calls for the equal opportunity but not the equal funding. For example, Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments requires that all students

in educational institutions have equal opportunities to participate in federally funded education programs and activities, including sports, and are provided with equivalent treatment, benefits, and opportunities (United States Department of Justice, 2015). The emphasis is placed on everyone having an equal opportunity to succeed.

Why U.S. Sport Leaders Have Not Been Educated in Character Education

Due to the political climate in the United States during the 1960's and 1970's, many teachers lost their authority in the classrooms. While it still affects schools today, the 1960's was a period of dissent and unrest, and unfortunately dissent is often destructive, the dissent affected all facets of the educational environment- including teachers. "The 1960s had clearly marked a turning point with progressive theories in education increasingly placing greater emphasis on individual rights and child-centered learning" (Battistich, 2003, p. 50). Without the proper training or background, teachers had little recourse when an ethical question arose in the classroom. This cultural change was demonstrated inside and outside of the classroom through individualism and, as a group, through demonstrations and protest which left more questions than answers. The historical documentation of these group events is well documented and not limited to classrooms and school buildings (Lickona, 2009).

Personalism, as a philosophy, developed in the 1960s and is alive and well today. Emphasizing personal rights was a very popular stance and continues to be with most students today which is highlighted in Personalism, unfortunately, it is a perspective that does not support responsibility (Lickona, 2009). The word "responsibility" almost had a negative connotation because of an error in understanding of the meaning of freedom, "It's a free country", is and was a popular cry rather than committing to the idea of education or

what is fair to everyone. This perspective is directly related to the demise of character education in education (Lickona, 2009).

It [Personalism] gave birth to “values clarification.” This new approach to values in school made its debut in 1966 with the publication of *Values and Teaching* by Columbia University Professor Louis Raths. What did values clarification tell teachers to do? Not to try to teach values at all. Instead, the teacher’s job was to help students learn how to “clarify” their own values. The idea that adults should directly instruct children in right and wrong, or even try to influence students’ “value positions,” was explicitly rejected (Lickona, 2009, p. 10).

At the same time in the 1970-1990’s, corruption abounded within American politics and corporations but the offenders said they were justified because everyone was doing it (Lickona, 2009, p. 12). It was a time in our country’s history when Americans had little faith in the integrity of the U.S. government to supply truthful information to the public - not so very different than what we have today in the political arena which also can be found in sport in athletics. Information concerning the Vietnam War and Watergate had reinforced the distrust Americans already harbored. The moral “voice” of the school became smaller as distrust became greater.

Thus, the non-moral voice of the school negatively affected the school in general and its moral climate. In *Effects of Social Disorder on School Climate*, Welsh (2000, pp. 92-93) stated:

One of the benchmark studies relating school violence to dimensions of school climate was the Safe School Study by the National Institute of Education (1978). Using questionnaires, data was collected from students, teachers, and principals from 642 U.S. public schools. Community data from each school were prepared from the 1970 census. The institute's report clearly suggests that school administration and policies make a significant difference in victimization rates. Certain policies ... reduced disorder in schools: Reduce the size and impersonality of the school; make school discipline more systematic; decrease arbitrariness and student frustration; improve school reward structures; increase the relevance of schooling; and decrease students' sense of powerlessness and alienation" (2000, pp. 92-93).

Conflict: No Training to Address the Hidden Curriculum of Moral Education.

The researcher, as a former secondary school administrator, has experienced first-hand the preparation (coursework) and application (on the job training) for a secondary school administrator position. Once in the position, I spent up to 24 hours a week, outside of the traditional workday, supervising student athletics. Athletic supervision was not addressed in my preparation, either in training or on the job, therefore, it is considered a hidden curriculum or agenda. A hidden curriculum lies in the amount of attention that is needed in athletic supervision but is not addressed in preparation for the position. ²

² The "Values Clarification" movement, identified by Lickona (2009, p. 10) helped students "clarify" their own values but gave no definite answers to moral questions. This lack of definitive thought as a philosophy for students displayed a passive environment by the school leaders in which the students became more individualized in their beliefs and understandings. This type of skepticism of a community belief in common

A “hidden curriculum” (Glatthorn & Jailaill, 2009, p. 110) is curriculum taught through the physical environment, policies, and procedures of the school. For example, the school schedules 250 minutes to read and 50 minutes for P.E. each week. The student can conclude that reading is more important than P.E. based on the time dedicated to it in school. In contrast, how much time is spent teaching a moral standard to students? The opportunity for moral lessons is daily and yet teachers are not directly taught to embrace this type of hidden curriculum. When discussing moral issues, if a teacher states that there is no right or wrong answer the teacher then is contributing to a hidden curriculum of ambivalence and ultimate individuality. By not teaching or modeling a moral standard to student athletes, the school leadership is supporting a standard of relativism that no standard of right and wrong exist concerning moral action. In other words, cheating in sports is acceptable. Lying to referees is expected. Violating an opponent is tolerated and, in many cases, supported. Athletics is practiced through a different moral lens. The lens becomes winning at all costs (Kretchmar, 1994). No rights and wrongs exist concerning moral action. If properly trained and with a leadership committed to imbedding moral reasoning into the school culture, this “hidden curriculum” could become a positive. This then would inspire students that there is value in caring for others and striving to be impartial when decisions are being made. It is an

moral standards gave way to Logical Positivism, meaning an idea is only real if scientifically proven (Lickona, 2009, p. 68). In modern day, high schools, it is not uncommon to hear “That’s a value judgment” or “That’s your personal opinion” In the author’s experience, after 14 years in education, it is not popular among students to believe in truth or absolutes concerning moral beliefs. An unfortunate condition since moral education is about role models, environment, and education. All three facets of moral education are currently affected by the last 40 years of political influence on education. In recent years, a corner has been turned in which administrators and teachers are being encouraged to teach some type of character education. Surprisingly, Lickona (2009, p. 8) reveals a time when teachers were encouraged to do the opposite. In the 1950’s teachers were told to stick to academics and no longer teach values, including values of kindness, honesty and responsibility because of the risk of imposing on the values of the children. In actuality, this is more harmful because it was unregulated and unmonitored. This behavior by administrators, teachers, and coaches taught another lesson to students. It became a “hidden curriculum”.

indirect “voice” which could grow in strength and projection. The hidden curriculum is only as strong as its clear application in the athletic environment, as well as, the school culture.

Need for Character Education in Athletics (i.e. Moral Education).

In addition to a hidden curriculum, an overt curriculum directed toward moral education or education for character is attainable and should be part of the process of training for future secondary school administrators to supervise student athletics.

Even when there is not a supportive moral culture outside the school, it is still possible to create one within the school. If teachers at every grade level are simultaneously teaching the same moral value, doing so in different and creative ways, and doing so all school year long, year after year, the school has a cumulative effect with the power to change students’ moral behavior (Lickona, 2009, p. 327).

Being impartial means attempting to be free from bias, fraud, or injustice... “not taking advantage of others” (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 2003, p. 8). Administrators and teachers, and coaches can model this in the school and classroom. They also would hold students accountable to being impartial to their classmates and teachers. Teaching student athletes to care for those around them would build a solid foundation for moral understanding. Students must be aware of their thoughts and actions and reflect on their past behaviors to make changes towards a moral understanding. Lickona (2009, p. 53) speaks of moral values and moral understanding as a starting place in developing character. Moral values include: Internal, subjective and immeasurable values, as he explains in the components of good character: Moral Knowing, Moral Feeling, and Moral Action.

Interestingly, even today after all the school violence that has occurred, in my opinion, teachers and coaches still believe that they are not to impose their moral code on their students. While they can give an opinion on a moral topic if asked by students and usually after instruction time or after the school day, teachers and coaches are the main source of character education in school. Coaches should be directed toward an attainable plan to create an environment of respect and responsibility. This is a long process in which all levels of leadership need to support and be educated in moral and character education to further the success of the effort. Knowing how moral education was developed is essential and knowing where it is headed is imperative if we are to increase moral reasoning.

The term character education is often interchangeable with moral education. Character education is the definitive process of teaching moral values, much like the process of moral education. Incorporating character education in a youth sports environment through the sports leadership is a desired outcome.

The Advancement of Moral Reasoning

As stated above, character development emphasizing moral values has been a longstanding objective in school sponsored physical activity. Unfortunately, there is little evidence to support this notion that, in fact, sports does build moral character. Additionally, researchers have found that the level of sportsmanship declines the longer an athlete is involved in sports activities (Coakley, 2015). For example, Allison (1981) maintains that with the level of increased sport participation, sportsmanship decreases. The researcher concluded that competitive sports places participants in a situation where they may have to

choose between winning or adhering to the guidelines of sportsmanship like behavior. When winning is heavily emphasized, sportsmanship falls to the wayside.

Sportsmanship, the term, is often synonymously related to the term moral value or moral behavior. Hahm, Beller, and Stoll (1989) break the term, sportsmanship, down into several moral values: honesty, responsibility, and justice. To understand how moral values became a part of sportsmanship one must review the origins of cognitive development moral theory and how it affects learning.

Cognitive Development.

Piaget was the first to suggest a cognitive developmental moral theory. He was primarily concerned with formulating a theory of moral development which emphasized cognitive functions in children. Piaget analyzed children's interactions in a game situation. (Piaget, 1932). Piaget suggested that cognitive development is (Battistich, 2003; Glatthorn & Jailail, 2009; Welsh, 2000; Piaget, 1932) a process that closely parallels biological growth and development. Furthermore, Piaget's cognitive structural approach attempted to show how individuals develop their moral process from a background of authority and constraint and then move into a direction of autonomy, cooperation, and equality. Piaget introduced two major stages of moral development along with biological growth:

1. Heteronomous morality (or moral realism), in which the very young child bases his moral judgment on unilateral respect for authority figures, i.e. "objective" rules of parents and other adults. This stage primarily reflects a morality of constraint, absolutistic, thought patterns, and only "imminent" concepts of "fairness" and "justice".

2. Autonomous morality (or a morality of equality and cooperation), in which the young person by middle childhood to early adolescence, begins to develop a more “subjective” sense of autonomy and reciprocity. In this stage, social experience, principally peer interaction, becomes the main vehicle for increasingly cooperative, egalitarian growth (Piaget, 1932, pp. 355-356).

Piaget’s fundamental framework in his investigation of children’s moral development was:

- A. The individual grows and adapts to the environment. Through interaction with the environment, the individual develops a system which facilitates gradual development from this interaction.
- B. Adaption of intelligence depends on experience and the internal coordination of the information gained through experience.
- C. The individual establishes cognitive structures which are formed by continuous interaction between the subject and he external environment (Piaget, 1932, pp. 41-56).

Piaget’s moral judgment theory asserted that cognitive and moral development processes are interrelated. He insisted that the cognitive schema and structures are a) innate, b) invariant, c) hierarchical, and d) culturally universal. All these claims are carried over into Lawrence Kohlberg’s research (1969). Therefore, Piaget’s basic ideas about moral development and the theme of stage concepts described above form the basis to understand Kohlberg’s cognitive development moral theory. Little research occurred between the time of Piaget’s (1932) ideas on moral development until Kohlberg developed his expanded theory in the 1960’s.

Lawrence Kohlberg.

Kohlberg argued that Piaget was correct but not complete enough in his claims concerning moral development (Kohlberg, 1981, p. 16). Kohlberg asserted that as a person progresses through life and experiences new things personal moral development expands as the cognitive development allows. In Kohlberg's format, an individual progresses from a pre-convention level focused on the consequences of actions for oneself, to a conventional moral level based on group welfare and rules, to an autonomous, principled post-conventional level (Hoffman, 2001; Kohlberg, 1969).

The underlying process, ..., is "decentralization", which pertains to the developmental shift from (a) judgment based on the child's attention to the most salient features of a situation, which usually fit the child's own perspective; (b) judgment based on a more extensive, equally distributed attention to features of a situation that fit the perspective of others; to (c) a progressive coordination of all perspectives. In this way, children advance from a superficial (externally bound) to a more profound, internal understanding of a moral norm's underlying meaning (Kohlberg, 1964, p. 354) .

Table 2.1 Lawrence Kohlberg's Moral Stages

Level and Age	Stage	What determines right and wrong?
Pre-conventional: Up to age of 9	Punishment & Obedience	Right and wrong defined by what they get punished for. If you get told off for stealing then obviously stealing is wrong.
	Instrumental- Relativist	Similar, but right and wrong is now determined by what we are rewarded for, and by doing what others want. Any concern for others is motivated by selfishness.
Conventional: Most adolescents and adults	Interpersonal concordance	Being good is whatever pleases others. The child adopts a conformist view to morality. Right and wrong are determined by the majority.
	Law and order	Being good now means doing your duty to society. To this end we obey laws without question and show a respect for authority. Most adults do not progress past this stage.
Post conventional: 0 to 15% of the over 20s	Social contract	Right and wrong now determined by personal values, although these can be over-ridden by democratically agreed laws. When laws infringe our own sense of justice, we can choose to ignore them.
	Universal ethical principle	We now live in accordance with deeply held moral principles which are seen as more important than the laws of the land.

(Kohlberg, Essays on moral development: The philosophy of moral development, 1981, pp. 17-20)

Level 1 (pre-conventional) identifies the basis of moral judgment as external, quasi-physical acts of needs rather than acts based on an awareness of norms or individuals. Level I is pre-conventional and includes stages 1 and 2 of the developmental process. Stage 1 Level I reflects an obedience and punishment orientation. Individuals functioning at this developmental stage defer to prestige and/or power to avoid punishment. Stage 2 Level I, the instrumental relativist orientation, describes an individual when functioning as naively egotistic. This individual's needs are reflected clearly in behaviors which are a means of satisfying self-needs (Kohlberg, 1964).

Level II, (conventional) contains stage 3 and 4 of the developmental sequence. Level II orientation reflects a desire to perform proper and socially acceptable behaviors, all of which are based on the expectations of others. In stage 3, Level II, an individual may be expected to conform to stereotypic models and indulge in very little behavior which is not pleasing to others. Stage 4, level II, brings an increased awareness of the presence of authority and actions that are oriented toward strict maintenance of prescribed social order.

Level III (post-conventional) is when an individual who reaches this level may be autonomous based on one's internalized standards. Level III contains stages 5 and 6. Stage 5, Level III includes the social-contract legalistic orientation which may be expected to display a great deal of concern for the rights of others. Stage 6, Level III, emphasizes the importance of conscience and principle. The conscience directs behavior with emphasis placed on mutual respect and trust (Kohlberg, 1964).

Kohlberg's six stages are hierarchical. He stated:

An individual's response profile, then typically represents a pattern composed of the dominant stage he is in, a stage he is leaving but still uses somewhat and a stage he is moving into but he has not yet crystallized...all other stages are available or at least comprehensible to the subjects (1969, p. 387).

Each stage of development is not guaranteed. An individual may reach a stage and never progress any farther, but any movement is in accord with the developmental steps. No convention reasoning ever occurs before pre-conventional and post-conventional does not come before conventional reasoning.

Interestingly, researchers found that athlete populations fall within level I and level II (Reall, Bailey, & Stoll, 1998). In competition, athletes or former athletes, who scored in a level III before playing a game dropped to a level I in the actual practice of playing in a game. Thus, they argue that the actual playing of a game under high stakes competition, negatively affects moral growth, and therefore moral development (Reall, Bailey, & Stoll, 1998).

Thomas Lickona.

Lickona, a disciple of Kohlberg, asserts that character consists of operative values or values in action. He further explains his position by stating that as we progress in our character a value develops into a virtue, a reliable inner disposition to respond to situations in a morally good way (Lickona, 2009).

Lickona broadens moral values beyond treating people with respect to also acknowledging an individual's right to life, liberty, and equality. Through this values system, he argues, one is compelled to uphold these basic rights. Lickona argues that moral values tell what the right thing to do is and a person must abide by these rules even if they don't have a desire to do so (Lickona, 2009, p. 38). Lickona divides moral value into two categories: Universal and non-universal.

Universal values consist of traits such as honesty, responsibility, and fairness. These values are characterized by treating all people justly and respecting their life, liberty, and equality or fundamental human worth. Lickona asserts that individuals have a fundamental right to uphold these values and to insist that others do also as in the case of the IHSAA. One can see as to why these values are necessary to play sport. A game cannot exist without rules and guidelines.

Non-moral values do not abide by moral convictions. They express what people want or like to do. Non-moral values are not bound by any desire to do what is right from a societal viewpoint rather non-moral values are as uniquely different as tastes (Stoll, 2019).

What does moral reasoning have to do with good character? Moral reasoning, Lickona (2009), is one of the central features of moral knowing. Moral reasoning encompasses what it means to be moral and why one should be moral. At the higher levels, moral reasoning includes an understanding of classic moral principles such as, "Respect the intrinsic worth of every individual"; "Act to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number"; and "Act as you would have all others act under similar circumstances." In many different situations, these principles guide moral action (Lickona, 2009, p. 55). Character has

to do with the decision-making process of right and wrong, as well as, having the courage to carry it through.

Table 2.2 Lickona's Components of Good Character

Moral Knowing	Moral Feeling	Moral Action
1. Moral Awareness	1. Conscience	1. Competence
2. Knowing	2. Self-Esteem	2. Will
3. Moral Values	3. Empathy	3. Habit
4. Perspective-taking	4. Loving the good	
5. Moral reasoning	5. Self-control	
6. Decision-making	6. Humility	
7. Self-knowledge		

(Lickona, 2009, p. 53)

The General Components of Good Character.

“Good character consists of knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good habits of the mind, habits of the heart, and habits of action” (Lickona, 2009, p. 51). The following will reflect on the work of Thomas Lickona (2009) in respect to his components of good character as well as address John C. Gibbs (2003) work in relation to the good character components of Lickona.

Character in education consists of operative values, Lickona (1991). As a person moves from a value to a virtue, Lickona asserts that a reliable inner temperament will form to respond to circumstances in a morally good way. As stated earlier, Lickona builds on Kohlberg through Lickona's paradigm of the components. He goes on to fragment this good character into three interrelated parts: Moral knowing, moral feeling, and moral behavior. One of Kohlberg's disciples, Carol Gilligan (1977), challenged Kohlberg's work as too

justice directed and male centric. Gilligan argued that women used a different voice – a different way to make moral judgments. Unfortunately, her research has been challenged as non-replicable (Walker, 1984).

The two suppositions of Lickona (2009) and Gibbs (2003) can be identified as complementary and compatible in their approach to understanding not only the stages of development but what is required for good character as the end result. Hoffman (2001) contributes to this discussion with the importance of empathy to society and the vital nature of the empathetic mindset. Moral knowing is the first character component addressed see Table 2.2.

Moral knowing, component one, consists of moral awareness, knowing moral values, perspective-taking, moral reasoning, decision-making, and self-knowledge (Lickona, 2009, p. 53). Lickona identifies moral blindness as a common moral failing among all ages of the population. Individuals often do not recognize the need for moral knowing in a situation or dilemma. At the same time, students when faced with moral predicaments would benefit from moral awareness. An empathetic perspective would also improve a student's moral knowing development. If I, the researcher of the present study, am correct, measurement of moral reasoning of principles could verify my hypothesis that school administrators are neither morally prepared and do not morally know the ethical bias of sport or athlete leadership.

In Lickona's (2009) Components of Good Character (Table 2.2) , item 3 of moral knowing is perspective-taking. "Perspective-taking is a prerequisite for moral judgment" (Lickona, 2009, p. 54). The ability for a person to place one's self into someone else's

position is a key component in moral development. In a classroom environment, the development of perspective-taking can improve relationships among peers and develop trust as a result of the empathy demonstrated through this characteristic of moral knowing. Additionally, this can build relatedness with students from different socio-economical and ethnic backgrounds. “The third-person perspective affords a truly ideal normative reciprocity, recognizable as Golden Rule, do-as-you-would- be-done-by morality” (Gibbs, 2003, p. 64).

“Moral reasoning, item four of moral knowing (Table 2.2) , involves understanding what it means to be moral and why we should be moral.” (Lickona, 2009, p. 55). The development of moral reasoning is a gradual approach as noted by many psychological studies (Gibbs, 2003).

In one of Piaget’s distributive justice stories, concerning whether a family’s youngest child who had accidentally dropped his allotment of bread should be given another piece, 95% of 13 to 14- year-olds but only 17% of six-to-nine-year-olds made allowance for the young child’s ineptness. Older children and adolescents, then, are much more likely to “attempt to understand the psychological context” in their moral judgments (As cited in Gibbs, p. 64).

Decision making is the ability to think through a moral problem. The understanding to question “what are my choices, what are my consequences” (Lickona, 2009, p. 56).

In component two, moral feeling (Table 2.2) is “How much we care about being honest, fair, and decent toward others clearly influences whether our moral knowledge leads to moral behavior” (Lickona, 2009, p. 57). Conscience, self-esteem, empathy, loving the good, self-control, and humility are all aspects of moral feeling (Lickona, 2009). Moral

feeling is an awareness of the effects of directed thoughts and emotions. All of which applies to athletes in competition and the awareness of their actions in relation to themselves, their team, and the opposing team. In the present study, principals also must have the moral feeling of loving the good. R. Scott Kretchmar, one of our pre-eminent U.S. sport philosophers argued in his seminal text, *Practical Philosophy of Sport*, (1994), written for pre-professionals of sport, stated that without loving the good, it is a short trip to becoming morally calloused. He cites the example of “Everyone does this”. In my experience as a principal at an athletic event, a parent sitting near was berating a referee to which I warned the parent that he has a responsibility as a fan to uphold a certain level of appropriateness, as well as do the players and coaches. He replied that he had every right to yell at the referees and that treating the referees in such a manner was part of the game. I informed him that the IHSAA did not support that viewpoint. At the time, I did not have the tools or skills to respond to him, I do now. Even though the present study is directed toward learning more about moral reasoning as per the components of the character paradigm. Moral reasoning and perspective taking work together. The parent was wrong.

In component 2 of moral feeling (Table 2.2), “Conscience has two sides: a cognitive side-knowing what’s right-and an emotional side-feeling obligated to do what’s right. Lots of people know what’s right but feel little obligation to act accordingly” (Lickona, 2009). A recent study by Roberts and Wasieleski (2012, pp. 355-376) examined the relationship between cognitive moral development, productivity features of information technology, and unethical behavior or misconduct and found that “technology plays a significant role in enabling negative behavior and the relative inability of subjects’ use of principled moral reasoning to overcome it”. The temptations of modern technology upon the ethical values of

students' overrides the conscience obligation to do what is known to be right. Underlying guilt may be a result of this growing behavioral trend. Principals are also affected by technology negatively and positively through technology, unfortunately, none of it is moral education. For example, principals must rely on the coaches to prepare their athletes to compete with other teams using film from previously played games. The coaches' focus should be on the plays and not on reading the lips of the coaches to learn the name of the plays. This use of technology, to learn the plays executed on the field, is helpful while at the same time trying to gain the names of the plays through lip reading is not modeling sportsmanlike behavior (2019).

Lickona (2009) discusses the aspect of constructive guilt and the educators' influence on conscience. A person may use constructive guilt to feel obligated to behave a certain way or risk feeling a guilt associated with not living up to the person's pre-set standards. Pressure to succeed is great during the latter teens and early twenties. The aspect of moral feeling is needed to counterbalance the high expectations of success during this developmental stage. Valuing one-self and other individuals plays an important role in this development. Furthermore, valuing one-self is an effort to counterbalance the high expectations in competition at this state, is directly related to the state of one's self-esteem. The principal, as ethical leader, plays a role in this development through his/her own moral behavior. The principal plays a role in his/her leadership and supervision of the athletic director, the hiring of coaches, and the development and maintenance of an ethical environment in sport (i.e. see Lumpkin and Doty (2014), as well as, Stoll (2011).

Item 3 of moral feeling, self-esteem (Table 2.2), is healthy in the overall moral feeling of an individual. "When we have a healthy measure of self-esteem, we value

ourselves. When we value ourselves, we respect ourselves. We're less likely to abuse our bodies or minds or allow others to abuse us" (Lickona, 2009, p. 58).

Item 3 of moral feeling, empathy (Table 2.2) is identification with, or vicarious experience of, the state of another person." (Lickona, 2009). Hoffman (2001) defines empathy as an effective response more appropriate to another's situation than one's own (p. 4). In the context of moral feeling, a person who experiences empathetic distress or distress over viewing another person in distress is more likely to identify with the distressed individual and potentially seek to assist the person in distress.

Item 4 of moral feeling, loving the good (Table 2.2) is the highest form of character, Lickona (2009, p. 59). "When people love the good, they take pleasure in doing good [sic]. They have a morality of desire, not just a morality of duty" This training of the heart leads to a deep understanding of morality but it does require self-control as mentioned by Kretchmar (1994).

Item 5 of moral feeling, self-control (Table 2.2) is a necessary moral virtue because it can overrule overwhelming emotion, when needed.

A fourth-grade teacher reprimanded two girls who were insulting each other during ethics class. "Don't you know," one of the girls protested, "that we can't be ethical all the time! We don't want to be ethical all the time- sometimes we're mean to someone because we want to hurt them." (Lickona, 2009, p. 60).

The lack of self-control demonstrated by the girl is apparent in that she identifies her choice to make a decision that will hurt those around her. Ethical choices made during emotional events are due to a person's level of self-control. The girl in the example above demonstrated a level of humility in that she admitted to a desire to "hurt them" but did not recognize the need to correct the behavior. As a principal I have seen this behavior during competition. For example, a football player hits an opponent with excessive force. The action was flagrant and intentional without provocation. When asked about the behavior, the usual defense is, "It felt good." These types of ethical choices during emotional events demonstrates the level of an athlete's self-control for all to see.

Item 6 of moral feeling, humility (Table 2.2) is the affective side of self-knowledge. It is both genuine openness to the truth and a willingness to act to correct our failings." (Lickona, 2009). Humility keeps pride from consuming decisions arrived through the thought process that the mind exercised daily. St. Vincent de Paul (2018) said, "Humility is nothing but truth, and pride is nothing but lying."

In addition to the components of moral knowing and moral feeling, moral action is the result and interactions of the first two components. Acting morally is different than the internal emotions described by moral knowing and moral feeling. Action requires the first two components and then choosing to act on the emotions in a physical way. Competence, will, and habit are the three-character items that comprise the third component of building good character through moral action.

Sport has, since its beginning, been argued to develop character that results in moral action. Lord Wellington³ after the Battle of Waterloo against Napoleon is said to have remarked, “The battle was won on the playing fields of Eaton.” Eaton was the preparatory school of the aristocrats and lords who later were the company and unit commanders under Wellington. Supposedly, playing sport at Eaton taught them the power character building components that resulted in moral action to follow orders, do the right, and win the battle. Wellington’s quote influenced our generals in the United States. Douglas MacArthur (1920’s) argued when establishing required sport and athletics for every cadet at the United States Military Academy (USMA) that, “On the field of friendly strife are sown the seeds that on other days and other fields will bear the fruits of victory” (2019). The USMA model of sport is followed in all the U.S. military academies at USNA, at Annapolis, Maryland, USAF at Colorado Springs, Colorado, and UNCCA at New Haven, Connecticut. The model sets one of the historical bases of why sport and athletics play a large role in high school sport.

Item 1 of moral action, competence (Table 2.2) is having the ability to turn moral judgment and feeling into effective moral action” (Lickona, 2009, p. 61). When a student goes to the school administration with a complaint of bullying directed at another student, it is the administration’s responsibility to address the accusation with competence by listening to both sides: the alleged victim and the alleged bully. Being objective and using moral

³ “The battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton.” A quote that is commonly misattributed to Lord Wellington but was in fact said by George Orwell (7 Reasons Why the Battle of Waterloo is Still Important, 2019).

knowing and moral feeling through their components of decision making and empathy is imperative to arrive at an ethical decision.

Item 2 of moral action, will (Table 2.2) is a mobilizing of moral energy to do what we think we should, Lickona (2009, p. 62). When a person demonstrates a strong will the personal feelings of desire or personal preference are set aside and the responsibility to make the right choice becomes the desired outcome. Students may have will, but it may not be directed toward moral reasoning. Rather it could be directed toward personal gain. Moral courage is the core of good character.

Item 3 of moral action, habit (Table 2.2), is repeated practice with intentional understanding. It is an advantage to moral conduct. William Bennett, former Secretary of Education under Ronald Reagan, said people of good character, “act truthfully, loyally, and bravely, kindly, and fairly without being much tempted by the opposite course” (Bennett, 1980, p. 30). Students with these characteristics are given numerous opportunities throughout the school years to create good moral habits and should be guided by mentors, i.e. sport ethical leaders such as principals, athletic directors, and coaches. These individuals should understand the components of good character and have the will to assist others in attaining conduct that demonstrates good character. Guisinger & Blatt (1994) stated in the social context, like athletics,

Where relationships between members are direct and multifaceted and where individuals can know and be known” may be crucial if perspective-taking experiences are to lead to interpersonally mature moral judgment

and, in general, “a capacity for relatedness characterized by mutuality, reciprocity, and deep intimacy (1994).

Creating this type of environment is vital to moving toward a population of individuals who value moral reasoning and are committed to demonstrating the components of good character in their lives on a consistent basis including but not limited to leadership. As secondary students mature into young adults the nurturing of moral development within an individual will have a wide-spread effect on society. Varshney (2002) stated, “Social institutions that promote inter-ethnic trust and connection, for example, are crucial in preventing or controlling cycles of violence and vengeance.” Moreover, integrated institutions like high schools in communities are particularly crucial in this learning process.

Moral reasoning and character education are desired and needed in schools today. Teaching respect and responsibility through moral knowing and moral feeling, which hopefully would result in moral action, are values that schools can focus on to create an environment of moral success for students.

Ignatieff (1999, pp. 58-62) suggests that empathy (“the human capability of imagining the pain and degradation done to other human beings as if it were our own”), item 3 of moral feeling, provides the basis for a universal “secular ethics”- an ethics that demands basic human rights everywhere. Hoffman (2001, p. 298) would add that laws and institutions that require people to interact in a civil manner and connect empathy to caring and justice philosophies would improve our society. The goal of this effort is to contribute to better our society through moral reasoning and improve our schools through character education.

Thomas Lickona characterized a values movement in schools as an effort to improve society (2019).

Research Relevant to Leadership and Ethical Training among Administrators

Leadership Qualities.

Leaders set the tone for their organization. Their influence is widespread and is at the forerunner of future success of every organization. Traditionally, leadership in education has focused on fulfilling the organization's mission. In contrast, leadership in athletics has traditionally, focused on making championship teams. The Rutgers's Institute of Ethical Leadership asserts that good leadership should transform people.

All leadership is responsible for influencing followers to perform an action, complete a task or behave in a specific manner. Effective leaders influence process, stimulate change in attitudes and values, augment followers' self-efficacy beliefs, and foster the internalization of the leaders' vision by utilizing strategies of empowerment (Plinio, 2009).

School administrators face moral dilemmas daily. Most school policy is written from a utilitarian perspective except for zero-tolerance policies. Zero-tolerance policies can erode interpersonal relationships between administrators and those they lead. Additionally, time constraints facing administrators can impede moral decision making, the inconsistency that exists between administrators and students they do not know, and the change agent mind-set that can harm an ambitious administrator's career (Hightower & Klinker, 2012).

The most favorable model presently for problem solving in schools is the Rational Decision Making Theory (RDM). Sergiovanni (2001, p. 34) explained the steps in the RDM Theory as the following: (1) know clearly what your problem is, know specifically what your problem is and know clearly what your goals are, (2) explore every possible solution to the problem or every possible route to achieve the goals, (3) evaluate the cost and benefits of each alternative (4) systematically compare the alternatives, and (5) apply this course of action throughout the system as the one best way.

RDM is the favored model but research on this model has found that it is not the most effective way to produce acceptable outcomes when leaders are encountered with a problem (Hightower & Klinker, 2012, p. 106). Hightower and Klinker state that most school leaders lack the time to participate in formal decision-making processes essential to the RDM model and frequently engage in more instinctual decision-making processes when problem are encountered. Education specifically directed toward moral reasoning through character education has been shown to improve the decision making of coaches and therefore should have a similar impact on school administrators (Hansen D. , 1999). Moral development is a continuous striving.

We are not necessarily born moral or immoral and morality does not mysteriously occur in childhood and stay rooted in our species for life. Rather, all of us grow, mature, and develop or do not develop morally through our education and environment and we are highly affected by moral and immoral role models (Stoll & Beller, 2003).

Regardless of the stage of moral development, athletes, coaches, athletic directors, and school administrators who administer interscholastic sports in Idaho agree to follow the Idaho High School Activities Association (IHSAA) Handbook. The handbook specifically states what is expected of administrators, athletic directors, coaches, athletes, parents, and spectators. Unfortunately, society and societal values work against the process.

The Societal Current Moral Climate in High School Sports

Sports reflect society. Current cultural trends are present within the society of sport and can be a strong influence on how society preserves or rejects sport. Biases of gender, race, and age are very apparent in the world of sports. In *Sports in Society*, Coakley (2015) concentrates on the society of sports and the impact it has on society.

Unfortunately, Coakley's (2015) work misnames the character of sport or how sport is practiced as ethic, when the correct term would be ethos (Stoll & Beller, 2003). How sport is viewed, and the practice accepted influence how a game or sport is played. For example, a specific ethos change over time is the no-contact rule of basketball. What does no-contact really mean? In the world of basketball and its ethos practice, no-contact is only a foul if the referee calls it. Common practice in basketball accepts a great deal of body checking, in other words, hands on the opposing player. Examples are replete in all sports. Coakley argues the current societal acceptance of a certain ethos affects greatly certain moral questions as to who can play and who can't. Society limits participation by how it views a sport's ethos.

For example, certain sports are known for a specific type of athlete. Athletes who are in the sport of boxing are generally from low-income families. Often these athletes joined the sport to stay away from trouble and off crime ridden streets. Women softball players are

generally white girls from middle class families to play softball takes money and time to play, and rich parents are needed. Swimmers are from middle to upper class backgrounds. Usually the pools needed for athletes to train and compete are available only for more well-off communities where the surrounding area can support the facility and those involved in the sport. However, sport also has the potential to affect positively the ethos of sport.

Sports are more than a reflection on society. “Sports are also sites, that is, identifiable social contexts, where people can challenge and even change ideas and beliefs about race and skin color...” (Coakley, 2015, p. 43). Therefore, an individual involved in sports has an opportunity to change and shape the way society accepts or rejects a multitude of topics such as gender (Serena Williams), race (Jackie Robinson), age (LeBron James, and disability (Aimee Mullins), to name a few.

The Present and Future of Organized Youth Sports

Child play and parenting have shifted significantly in the past sixty years. Children have less free time to find and create their own type of games due to the heavy involvement in organized sports. A phenomenon has occurred in the last few years in sport participation and play. It is the phenomenon of youth sports. Youth sports are pay for play competition outside the school experience. Parents may invest up to \$60,000 a year or to give their child the sport experience. Sport camps at luxury facilities, paid youth coaches, elite competition venues, and professional competitive marketing are all examples. This environment affects the school because children in youth sports often do not play or compete for their school, therefore, less school children are participating in school sport. However, the participation is still occurring outside the school and affects values within the school athletic experience.

Coakley attributes six changes that heavily contributed to the growth of organized sports (Coakley, 2015, p. 83).

First, families with both parents working outside of the home. Teachers see this first attribute as an enormous impact on children in general. Youth have very little unstructured time due to their parent's work schedules. When they are not with their parents, they are either at school or in an afterschool program. When parents arrive home from a nine to five job, it is too late for children to play outside after dinner and homework is to be done.

Second, the idea that parents need to know where their child is all day. The label "helicopter parent" worked its way into society in the 1990's and the overprotective parent was then considered a normal occurrence in parenting. In fact, if parents were not fully aware of where and what their child was, it was considered neglectful. This attitude toward parenting has continued in our society and has led to a lack of spontaneity and imagination by children due to parents always being around to monitor the actions and reactions of their children (Coakley, 2015). Consider also that most children have their own cell phones. In my experience, as an educator, 99% of all students have cell phones. Parents are available instantly on speed dial.

Third, informal play leads to trouble. Formal play is considered a way to keep youth on the right path in life. Informal play may lead to negative or destructive behavior as is depicted in movies and highlighted on national news programs. Many movies show youth with free time venturing into unfamiliar areas of life, some of which can lead to negative consequences. Movies that highlight and glamorize youth with too much free time give the impression that kids will only get into trouble when left alone or with each other (Coakley,

2015). Youth with good behavior are not news or movie worthy. Aside from the movie *Sandlot* (Evans, 1993), stories about boys who successfully played a game of basketball without anyone losing an eye or worse are not interesting to Hollywood or the nightly news.

Fourth, fear induced protective parents' due to negative news stories. There are numerous news headlines that feature tragic stories concerning children. Now, more than ever, visuals of the predators of such children exist and they look like an average member of the population. Parents are more comfortable placing their children in organized sports programs because the impression given is that will be a safer environment than letting them play at the park with their friends unchaperoned. Elite gymnasts competing at a national level had the support of their parents in the safe environment of a gymnastics gym under close supervision of their coaches. Unfortunately, even in those types of environments safety is not guaranteed. Several gymnasts have recently come forward and testified to abuse of a sexual nature by the team doctor (Maese & Hobsen, 2017), who is presently serving a life sentence for sexual abuse.

Fifth, sports are a highly valued part of society. Many boys and girls grow up watching sports on television with their parents. They see the value of sports at a young age. Adults discuss professional sports around and with their children and children gain an understanding of the importance of the position of professional athlete. Millions of people watch the Super Bowl each year. The children who watch see the athletes in the game but also in the commercials thus aiding in the understanding of the wealth that comes with a professional career in certain sports (Coakley, 2015).

Sixth, childhood free play has almost disappeared completely in our society. Children today have electronics and the internet to keep them company after school. They might play with friends, but it will be online or in the same room on a video game. Many children do not have the experience of playing a pickup game of baseball or basketball (Coakley, 2015). There is something about choosing the teams and running to the house next door to round up one more player to make the teams even that no longer exist. Making up the rules as the game progresses while being players and the referee, also does not exist. The one instance today where this type of play still exists is at recess time at elementary schools. Even though there are recess monitors outside it is still a time to gather together and start a game with no adult to guide the process.

As children mature into teens their moral reasoning typically transitions into the Kohlberg's conventional stage beginning with the interpersonal concordance (Kohlberg, 1969). In this stage teens are concerned with pleasing others where right and wrong are determined by the majority. Until these student athletes move into the stage of law and order they are not as concerned with the rules of the game and more concerned with the acceptance of their peers. Sports reveals a "fight" mentality where rules are suggestions but what a participant can get away with is acceptable in the effort to win. The level of fair play on the field is more closely regulated than any other time in history. Cameras are everywhere and participants and spectators can view the replay of an incident in question from many different angles in the pursuit of fair play.

Coakley suggests that the current mentality in the field of play is whatever is acceptable to the referees will determine the "play level". Thus, the players will adjust their play the ethos, to the determined acceptable level. This is strongly supported in school age

athletics where the referees may have little experience. Each game or match in a sport may vary greatly depending on the permitted level of play. As Coakley states, this type of leveled play is labeled a strategy, not cheating, and is justified by players and fans (Coakley, 2015, p. 120).

Deviance in sports has always been present but should not be accepted as normal. Training coaches, athletic directors, school administrators and other stakeholders on the need for a focus on moral development training through character education should be valued. Moreover, the impact leaders have on athletes warrants a better understanding among leaders of moral reasoning. Their actions in word and deed have a direct impact on student athletes.

The culture of athletics contains embedded values within an organization. The daily functions within that culture establish the climate. Lumpkin and Doty (2014) state, “Both culture and character directly influence ethical (or unethical) behaviors in organizations.” Furthermore, Lumpkin and Doty state that within intercollegiate athletic programs there is a unique culture in which the culture is...“dependent on core values communicated, modeled, and rewarded by the athletic director and other athletic administrators” (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014, p. 7). The same could be said for high school athletics and high school administrators. These administrators are working directly with the athletes and the student body in an athletic setting. “Through ethical actions, statements, decisions, norms, and expectations of leaders, a values-based culture can inspire others to conduct themselves ethically” (Lumpkin & Doty, 2014, p. 7).

Even though youth sports and societal values *may not* be morally sound, school administrators must follow the guidelines of the high school governing body. The IHSAA clearly states and supports play and competition.

Idaho High School Activities Association

The charge to “Protect the activity and athletic interests of high schools and the student participants” in the Articles of Incorporation from the IHSAA is a commitment to hold strong moral values, regardless of consequences (Articles of Incorporation of Idaho High School Activities Association, Inc., 1983). The articles state:

The purposes for which this corporation is organized are as an educational activities and athletic association to:

- (1) Continue the activities of its unincorporated predecessor, "the Idaho High School Activities Association", and receive all of its assets and assume all of its liabilities;
- (2) Select, foster and govern interschool competitions and activities in athletics, music, speech arts, drill teams and other similarly related school activities for secondary schools within the State of Idaho;
- (3) Encourage, regulate and give direction to wholesome amateur interschool activity and athletic competition between the schools who are members of the corporation;
- (4) Assure that all interschool activity and athletic competitions governed by the corporation shall be subservient to and complementary with the academic and curricular functions of the member schools which are their primary purposes;

- (5) Determine qualifications of individual students, coaches and officials and provide and establish standards of eligibility, competition and sportsmanship;
- (6) Develop, promulgate and make appropriate uniform rules and interpretations governing high school athletic and activities contests and meets and to provide programs and training for the administration thereof;
- (7) Protect the activity and athletic interests of high schools and the student participants;
- (8) Prevent the exploitation of school pupils in the school activities and athletic programs;
- (9) Transact any and all lawful business that corporations may conduct under the Idaho Nonprofit Corporation Act which are consistent with and in furtherance of the educational purposes for which this corporation is organized.

No substantial part of the activities of the corporation shall be the carrying on of propaganda, attempting to influence legislation or participating in political campaigns (Articles of Incorporation of Idaho High School Activities Association, Inc., 1983).

Not only are administrators to “Protect the activity and athletic interests of high schools and the student participants” but they are to extend themselves further in an assurance to “Prevent the exploitation of school pupils in the school activities and athletic programs” (Articles of Incorporation of Idaho High School Activities Association, Inc., 1983).

This is an integral part of the high school sport experience and the sportsmanship philosophy of the IHSAA. “The ideals of sportsmanship permeate virtually every aspect of our culture, and the ethics of fair play may be witnessed in all facets of life. However, the origins of sportsmanship have been firmly established in sports as a training ground for good citizenship and high behavioral standards” (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018). While sportsmanship may be the ideal, multiple studies have shown that athletes have a lower understanding of moral reasoning in comparison to other participant populations. (Hahm, 1989; Beller & Stoll, 1995; Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004) Additionally, a negative correlation has been found with decreasing moral reasoning and the length of involvement in sport (Beller & Stoll, 1995; Hansen, Beller, & Stoll, 1998). If sportsmanship is the objective for sports in Idaho, proper training of school administrators, athletic directors, coaches, and athletes must be implemented in the preparation of these roles. The desired outcome of a character-building program in which sportsmanship is evident must be accompanied with action, in this case a designed program in character education and moral reasoning, to reach the goal of sportsmanship. The first place to start would be for leaders and athletes to be familiar with the IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual and the Coaches Code of Ethics.

The Idaho High School Activities Coaches Code of Ethics should be followed by all school administrators who oversee sports programs. Secondary school administrators need to know and apply these principles. The IHSAA Coaches Code of Ethics states:

The function of a coach is to educate students through participation in interscholastic competition. Interscholastic programs should be designed to promote citizenship and enhance the academic mission of the school. The coach will

- Be aware that he or she has a tremendous influence, for either good or ill, on the education of the student and, thus, shall never place the value of winning above the value of instilling the highest ideals of character.
- Uphold the honor and dignity of the profession. The coach shall strive to set an example of the highest ethical and moral conduct. The coach/school will honor contracts regardless of possible inconvenience or financial loss.
- Master the contest rules and shall teach them to his or her team. The coach shall not seek an advantage by circumvention of the spirit or letter of the rules.
- Demonstrate respect and support for officials. The coach shall not indulge in conduct, which would incite players or spectators against the officials. The coach will not make statements concerning officials' decisions after a game.
- Work with school faculty to promote overall educational growth of the student. The coach shall not exert pressure on faculty members to give student-athletes special consideration.
- Honor the commitment to student based programs that supplement the educational growth of each student-athlete.
- Be professional in association with other coaches. The coach should meet and exchange cordial greetings with the opposing coach to set the correct tone for the event before and after the contest.
- Exert his or her influence to enhance sportsmanship of all extracurricular activities.

- Cooperate with different media sources in an appropriate manner that promotes all aspects of the sport, school and community. Public criticism of officials, opponents or players is unethical.
- Uphold all policies and procedures of the school, district, IHSAA and the National (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018).

This is not a task that should be left to on the job training. Administrators should have a formal decision-making process rather than an instinctual decision-making process (Hightower & Klinker, 2012). To continue to understand the needs and develop training of this population, further research is needed in moral reasoning among high school administrators. The results derived from the research addressed in this document contributes to the needed research in the focus area of moral reasoning among high school administrators.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Problem Statement

The purpose of this descriptive study is to examine the social and moral reasoning of high school administrators in Idaho as related to sport and athletics.

Description of the Sample

Secondary school administrators from a state in the northwestern United States were contacted via personal contact and email to participate in an online inventory. The participants represent a sample of the state's 157 high school activities association members. The administrators specifically consist of principals and assistant principals employed with the 157 IHSAA participating high schools. Of the possible administrators, 102 subjects volunteered to take the Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm Values Choice Inventory – a valid and reliable measurement of both social and moral reasoning.

Selection of the Subjects

Participants self-selected based on interest. All 102 subjects are secondary school administrators in a public-school setting. After the consistency check was run and one participant's answers were removed for overly high responses, the final number of subjects was 87. The participants ranged from one to thirty-five years of experience as a school administrator of which 59 were males and 28 were females. Participants represented all of the general classification of Idaho schools by population. See Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 General Classification of Idaho Schools by Population

District Classification	School Student Population
5A	1,280 +
4A	640-1,279
3A	320-639
2A	160-319
1A (Division I and II)	0-159

(Idaho High School Activities Association, 2019)

Protection of Subjects

In accordance with the requirements to conduct a study with human subjects, permission was requested from the Institutional Review Board. The IRB submission was completed and approved on December 14, 2016 (and approved for extension until December, 2018) and assigned the IRB project number of 16-140. The approval letter can be found within Appendix A.

Instrument

The Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm Value Judgment Inventory (RSBH) measures both social and moral reasoning in the context of sport. The social character index consists of ten sports scenarios outside of competition and focuses on the social values of teamwork, loyalty, and self-sacrifice. The selection of the social values is consistent with the literature concerning the building of character in the social environment of sports. Specifically, the social values of teamwork, loyalty, and self-sacrifice were chosen due to the long-standing reputation sports participation has on building these characteristics (O'Hanlon, 1980; Sage, 1996; Rudd, 1998; Armstrong, 1984). To accompany the selected social values, social scenarios were constructed involving common athletic activities outside of competition. The answers are measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” resulting in a total score (Rudd & Stoll, 2004).

The more frequent subjects agree with the social character scenarios, the higher one scores on the social character index. The higher the score, the more it is suggested that individuals are believed to support social values and more generally social character in the sport milieu. Concurrently, for the moral character index, the more frequently subjects “disagree” with the various gamesmanship practices, the higher one’s score and the more one is believed to support moral character in sport (Rudd & Stoll, 2004).

In the original studies developing this instrument, the second ten scenarios found in the moral character index, all lie within the domain of competition. These scenarios were selected from an instrument called the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory (HBVCI) (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989). This index incorporates the moral values of honesty, justice,

and responsibility and measures an individual's moral judgments towards a collection of gamesmanship scenarios in sports (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989). The moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility is correlated to deontological ethics which supposes that there is an inherent rightness apart from all consequences. Therefore, a person will choose to be honest, fair, and responsible irrespective of the consequences (Armstrong, 1984; Frankena, 1973; Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989). Similar to the social character index, the moral character index uses a Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" resulting in a total score. The higher the score, the more one uses principled reasoning to guide one's moral decision making.

The instrument's moral scenarios are based on the values expressed in the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) and the IHSAA (Stoll S. , 2019). In the Statement of Philosophy, the NFHS clearly states the goal of sportsmanship and fair play.

Participation in activities reinforces responsible social processes. Educational experiences gained through activities programs are opportunities to learn, promote and reinforce the elements that influence students to become productive citizens. *The vow students make to their schools and their teammates help them accept responsibility, recognize self-worth, learn about sportsmanship, gain integrity, promote fairness, enhance optimism and condition themselves to self-sacrifice.* As participants, they place the welfare of others ahead of self, accept others regardless of abilities or background, develop self-respect/discipline, and think independently while having a commitment to group or collective goals which go beyond winning. Learning to compete, and learning to prepare to compete, are crucial to the maturation process...The overriding commitment of the NFHS membership is the health, welfare

and ethical growth of students who participate directly in high school activities programs. This commitment is being achieved through a continuing, unified effort of the NFHS membership to maintain the **highest ideals of fair play** and responsible citizenship (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2018).

The RSBH instrument is valid, and the data gleaned from the instrument is reliable. Cronbach alphas range from 0.82 – 0.88 for the moral reasoning side and 0.65 – 0.73 for the social reasoning side. All within the acceptable levels of reliability.

Variables

Independent variables consist of the group, gender, and years of experience. The dependent variable is the high school administrators' response to the RSBH including the social and moral side of the instrument.

Historical Reliability of the RSBH and its Development

In early studies of the RSBH - The rationale equivalence reliability (internal reliability) was determined for each of four pilot studies. The ten moral questions from the HBVCI had been established earlier for internal reliability. Only the first 11 newly created social scenarios were used with the first three pilot studies tested subjects. Before the social and moral questions were combined, reliability and validity needed to be established. The fourth pilot study conjoined the social scenarios with the moral scenarios. Ten newly created social scenarios in the sport context were melded with ten selected moral scenarios from the HBVCI to form the RSBH. The final pilot study produced a Cronbach alpha of .73 for the social index and a Cronbach alpha of .88 for the moral index (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989).

Data Collection Procedures for the Current Study

Test subjects are secondary school administrators employed in a northwestern state. Requests in person and emails were sent to the participants requesting their participation with a link to the RSBH which was located on a secure survey website. The participant names were retrieved from the IHSAA website (Idaho High School Activities Association, 2019). In the website, the names of each participating school are listed along with the high school principal contact information.

Secondary contact with participants was made via an email explaining the purpose of the research with a link to the online inventory. The online instrument was administered through Qualtrics.

Data Analysis

Participants took the RSBH Values Choice Inventory. Possible range of scores on the RSBH is between 10–50 on each side (social and moral). The higher the score in the moral side, the more principled reasoning is used in making decisions.

The data was analyzed using ANOVA procedures in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 24.0 (SPSS 24). Alpha was set at $P < .05$ and where appropriate, Tukey's post hoc procedures were run. Effect size was calculated using partial η^2 . The instrument consists of 20 questions on a five-point Likert scale, and five demographic questions, and four consistency check questions. (See Appendix B.).

Consistency Check of the RSBH

The consistency questions are built into the RSBH design to exclude participants who are not being diligent in their reading. A consistency check was run first, before any calculations, using questions 6, 11, 17, and 23. If a participant scored above a 12 on the 4 questions, he/she was excluded. Fourteen participants were excluded due to a cumulative score above twelve. The consistency check informs that these 14 individuals probably scored a pattern of assigning threes (1-5 is possible choice). If a participant scores a 12 or above on these consistency questions, it is probable that the rest of the answers on the social and moral index of the RSBH are suspect. Generally, such a score implies that a participant was rushing through the inventory and marking scores of three for all the answers.

Another participant was removed due to an excessively high score (49) in both moral reasoning and social reasoning. A perfect score would be 50 on all questions- if one were guessing. Except, the RSBH is not constructed on a “perfect” score in both the social and moral sides. The ideal score would be a “50” on the moral side and a “10” on the social side. Thus, if a participant marked a 5 for all questions the answers would be invalid. One participant scored a 50 on the moral and a 49 on the social – he/she was trying to outwit the instrument and in essence was gaming or cheating the process. The RSBH instrument is built for ideal scores where if moral reasoning is high, social reasoning should be low. Thus, a total of 15 participants were removed from the study.

Chapter Four: Results

Purpose

The purpose of this chapter is to report the results. Results are based on a convenience sample of 87 subjects who were administered the complete RSBH via Qualtrics. The results were analyzed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24).

Problem Statement

The purpose of this descriptive study was to examine the social and moral reasoning of secondary school administrators. The role of high school administrators varies from state to state but the opportunity for positive influence in sport is present in all circumstances. Research is minimal concerning the understanding of leadership in sport among secondary school administrators as moral development leaders, or in this case their moral and social reasoning scores on a valid and reliable instrument.

Cronbach Alpha

A Cronbach Alpha was run to measure the internal consistency of the participant group.

Table 4.1 Cronbach Alpha on Moral and Social Reasoning

	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Moral Reasoning	.71	87
Social Reasoning	.79	87

The Cronbach Alpha is used to measure the rationale equivalence reliability or internal reliability. The internal consistency was established within the social and moral reasoning index within the RSBH which has a previously established internal reliability of a Cronbach Alpha of .73 for the social index and a Cronbach Alpha of .88 for the moral index (Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004). The current study measured a Cronbach Alpha of .79 in the social index and .71 in the moral index resulting in an acceptable internal reliability.

Statistical Hypotheses Results

- 1) No significant difference was found by gender on **social reasoning** of secondary school administrators $F(1,77) = 2.52, p = .116$. Males scored 40.74 ± 7.1 and females scored 43.5 ± 3.3 .
- 2) No significant difference was found by gender **moral reasoning** of secondary school administrators $F(1,77) = 3.11, p = .08$. Males scored 30.05 ± 5.5 and females scored 27.0 ± 6.0 .
- 3) No difference by years of experience on social reasoning of secondary school administrators. The hypothesis was not analyzed due to the small sample size.
- 4) No difference by years of experience on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators was not analyzed due to the small sample size.
- 5) No significant difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in social reasoning of secondary school administrators was not analyzed due to the small sample size.

6) The hypothesis of “No significant difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in moral reasoning of secondary school administrators” was not analyzed due to the small sample size.

The following hypothesis was used as exploratory only. It was used after the fact, after interpreting the preset hypotheses as a means of providing potentially more direction in possible explanations relative to the lack of training in administrators relative to athletics.

Hypothesis seven was introduced to examine district size.

7) No difference was found by district classification and gender on social reasoning of secondary school administrators as evidenced by the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory $F(4, 77) = .661, p = .621$. (see Tables 4.2 & 4.3 for Means and Standard Deviations).

Table 4.2 Social Reasoning of Male and District Size

Male and District Size	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
1	39.2000	9.91862	20
2	41.2500	2.41680	12
3	43.5455	2.84125	11
4	39.2000	9.24722	10
5	42.3333	7.18858	6

Table 4.2 is the means for social reasoning of males in relation to district size.

Table 4.3 Social Reasoning of Female and District Size

Female and District Size	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
1	43.1000	3.17805	10
2	44.2000	4.02492	5
3	41.0000	1.41421	4
4	44.000	3.46410	5
5	45.5000	3.87298	4

Table 4.4 gives the statistics of between subject effects which shows no significance in social reasoning.

Table 4.4 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects: Dependent Variable Social Reasoning Total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	366.419 ^a	9	40.713	1.019	.432	.106
Intercept	120199.993	1	120199.993	3009.093	.000	.975
Gender	101.001	1	101.001	2.528	.116	.032
Dist Size	64.765	4	16.191	.405	.804	.021
Gender* Dist Size	105.615	4	26.404	.661	.621	.033
Error	3075.811	77	39.946			
Total	154234.000	87				
Corrected Total	3442.230	86				

a. R Squared = .106 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)

Hypothesis eight was introduced to measure dependent classification and gender.

8) No difference was found by district classification and gender on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators as evidenced by the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory $F(4, 77) = .860, p = .492$. (See Tables 4.5 & 4.6 for means and Standard deviations).

Table 4.5 Moral Reasoning of Male and District Size

Male and District Size	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
1	31.1500	4.61434	20
2	21.2500	3.57071	12
3	28.1818	7.04014	11
4	31.1000	8.07534	10
5	29.6667	3.386.25	6

Table 4.5 shows the mean and standard deviation of males by district size.

Table 4.6 Moral Reasoning of Female and District Size

Female and District Size	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
1	25.7000	7.28850	10
2	28.8000	8.58487	5
3	27.0000	2.16025	4
4	25.6000	5.31977	5
5	29.7500	1.70783	4

Table 4.6 shows the mean and standard deviation of females by district size.

Table 4.7 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects: Dependent Variable: Moral Reasoning Total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	332.067 ^a	9	36.896	1.095	.376	.114
Intercept	54939.348	1	54939.348	1631.115	.000	.955
Gender	104.776	1	104.776	3.111	.082	.039
Dist Size	27.805	4	6.951	.206	.934	.011
Gender * Dist Size	115.857	4	28.964	.860	.492	.043
Error	2593.520	77	33.682			
Total	76441.000	87				
Corrected Total	2925.586	86				

a. R Squared = .114 (Adjusted R Squared = .010)

Table 4.7 shows the tests between subjects of no significance of moral reasoning.

Chapter Five: Discussion

Results

The purpose of this chapter is to report the results. The results are examined in relation to the statistical hypothesis, the problem statement, and the review of literature.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this descriptive study is to examine the social and moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.

Statistical Hypothesis 1

No difference exists by gender on social reasoning of secondary school administrators. This hypothesis was not supported.

The mean for males in social reasoning was 40.74 ± 7.1 whereas the mean for females was 43.5 ± 3.3 , the range of scores is 10 to 50. There is no significant difference by gender concerning social reasoning of secondary school administrators as evidenced by the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory. The females scored 43.5 in social reasoning which is uncharacteristic of past female participants in the social values. The answers are measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” resulting in a total (Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004; Rudd & Stoll, 2004). In past studies, women have scored lower than men in measurements of social character. A high score on the social index, suggests that a participant supports certain social values over moral values (Rudd, 1998; Beller & Stoll, 1995).

Historically, a score of 10-30 in social reasoning and a score of 30-40 in moral reasoning would indicate a balance in the participant's decision making, leaning more towards moral reasoning. In this study the opposite has occurred. The administrators, specifically the females, scored higher in social reasoning and much lower in moral reasoning. This indicated a heavy leaning on the social scale. Therefore, the women appear to make their decisions based on social values in sport. In the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory the social values of teamwork, loyalty, and self-sacrifice are the focus. Social scenarios of athletics outside of competition accompany the selected social values (Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004).

Social values appear appropriate on the surface but when applied to sport and its moral dimensions, as stated by the National Federation of State High School Association, they do not have the same effect (Coaches Code of Ethics, 2019). A person can be a hardworking, dedicated, and intense criminal but that does not make their actions good in a moral sense. Social values by themselves are dangerous. Social values must be informed by moral values in sport. Moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility indicate there is an inherent rightness regardless of the consequences, which is the basis of the rule books and the sportsmanship code of the Idaho High School Activities Association (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018). The RSBH Value Choice Judgment instrument measures moral and social reasoning among athletes and non-athletes. This study is limited to the secondary school administrator's experience and understanding of sport and their responses, regardless of their understanding or experience.

The male scores in social reasoning are not quite as troubling. The social scores and moral scores appear to match other studies. In a comparable study by Bryant (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018), the RSHB Values Choice Inventory was administered to secondary athletic

directors. The secondary school male administrators in the present study scored similarly to the 2018 male athletic directors in moral reasoning but in social reasoning the secondary school male administrators scored slightly lower than the athletic directors. The secondary school male administrators lower score is based on dilemmas presented away from the playing field. The higher lower score would indicate that secondary school male administrators place a higher value on specific personality and work ethic traits that society view as important for success than do male athletic directors (Van Mullem, 2009). Male athletic directors typically have experience in sport and have an athletic experience background. It is unknown what male administrators know or do not know about the athletic experience as an athlete.

Statistical Hypothesis 2

No difference exists by gender on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators. This hypothesis was not supported.

No significant difference was found by gender on moral reasoning. The non-significance found may be due to the small number of participants. The results of this study are noteworthy in that they are not what has previously been found using the RSBH when comparing females to males (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989).

The mean for males in moral reasoning was 30.05 ± 5.5 whereas the mean for females was 27.0 ± 6.0 . The scale of the RSBH is on a range from 10-50, therefore, both genders scored low in moral reasoning comparatively. Previous research on the moral reasoning of coaches and student-athletes has suggested that females score significantly higher than males (Hansen, Beller, & Stoll, 1998). The results of this study are noteworthy in

that the males scored higher than the females in moral reasoning. Not only did the males score higher than the females in moral reasoning, though not significant, the scores were approaching significance at .081. This raises more questions about the participants and their previous experience in sport, their education in sport, their view of the moral mission of athletics, and/or their understanding of the purpose of athletics in the high school arena. Again, the goal of the IHSAA is to provide a positive environment in which to play sports.

The purposes for which this corporation is organized are as an educational activities and athletic association to:

- (1) Continue the activities of its unincorporated predecessor, "the Idaho High School Activities Association", and receive all of its assets and assume all of its liabilities
- (2) Select, foster and govern interschool competitions and activities in athletics, music, speech arts, drill teams and other similarly related school activities for secondary schools within the State of Idaho
- (3) **Encourage, regulate and give direction to wholesome amateur interschool activity and athletic competition between the schools who are members of the corporation**
- (4) **Assure that all interschool activity and athletic competitions governed by the corporation shall be subservient to and complementary with the academic and curricular functions of the member schools which are their primary purposes**
- (5) Determine qualifications of individual students, coaches and officials and provide and establish standards of eligibility, competition and sportsmanship

(6) Develop, promulgate and make appropriate uniform rules and interpretations governing high school athletic and activities contests and meets and to provide programs and training for the administration thereof

(7) Protect the activity and athletic interests of high schools and the student participants

(8) Prevent the exploitation of school pupils in the school activities and athletic programs

(9) Transact any and all lawful business that corporations may conduct under the Idaho Nonprofit Corporation Act which are consistent with and in furtherance of the educational purposes for which this corporation is organized. No substantial part of the activities of the corporation shall be the carrying on of propaganda, attempting to influence legislation or participating in political campaigns (Articles of Incorporation of Idaho High School Activities Association, Inc., 1983).

The moral side of the HBVCI questions which comprise the moral index of the RSBH are based on the values presented in the Articles of Incorporation from the Idaho High School Activities Association as well as the Sportsmanship Manual. The scenarios selected from an instrument incorporate the moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility and measures an individual's moral judgments towards a collection of gamesmanship scenarios in sports (Hansen, Beller, & Stoll, 1998). The moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility is correlated to deontological ethics which supposes that there is an inherent rightness apart from all consequences. Therefore, a person who understands the role, purpose

and mission of the IHSAA would choose to be honest, fair, and responsible irrespective of the consequences (Frankena, 1973; Armstrong, 1984; Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989).

Additionally, the moral index, based on deontological ethics, is an ideal perspective, which maintains that one follows a given set of moral values regardless of the consequences. Because the moral index involves scenarios taking place during competition, the deontological ethics with the ideal perspective, would argue that they would respond “strongly agree” if they truly had a set of values regardless of social trends on social value decisions would be likely to “strongly disagree” (Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004, p. 102). The charge to “Protect the activity and athletic interests of high schools and the student participants” in the Articles of Incorporation from the Idaho High School Activities Association is a commitment to hold strong moral values, regardless of consequences (Articles of Incorporation of Idaho High School Activities Association, Inc., 1983).

As previously stated, the males scored higher than the females in moral reasoning which is historically not been the case. In no previous study using RSBH, have men scored higher than females. However, Stoll (2019) did predict this would happen from the change in scores over time and specifically from the Van Mullem study (2009). In Van Mullem’s (2009) study on collegiate coaches, it was predicted that women’s scores would reduce over time due to the loss of women coaches (2009). Numerous studies have found that current women coaches do not stay in the field even though they love their sport, instead they exit. Sabo et al. (2016) found that Van Mullem’s prediction is supported by all current literature on women in coaching. Women are not in the coaching profession even though more girls and women are participating in sport today than at any other time in U. S. History. If sport builds all the positive character traits it is rumored to do, the common question continues to be why

are women not choosing to coach after their years of participation. This study did not ask the participants their coaching or playing experience. But the data from the RSBH clearly describes both men and women's lack of education about the mission, purpose, and role of athletes as described by the IHSAA.

Comparatively, a study from the U.S. Department of Education indicates that secondary school administrators leave the profession at a yearly rate of 9.8 percent. The rate increases to 14.7 percent if the administrator has over 9 years of experience in the field (Goldring & Taie, 2018). These studies indicate that due to the attrition in leadership in sport, the expertise of leadership is hampered by their limited years of experience.

In the Bryant study (Bryant K. , 2018) in which the RSHB Values Choice Inventory was administered to secondary athletic directors. The secondary school female administrators scored lower in comparison to the athletic directors in moral reasoning but in social reasoning the secondary school female administrators scored similarly to the athletic directors. In both recent studies, this indicates a high need for moral reasoning in sport education among secondary school female administrators. Secondary school administrators either as principals or athletic administrators, hold a very important role in school sport. The behind the scenes role they play is crucial to the school and athletic climate of the school. Because of this critical leadership role, the focus of ethics in leadership becomes vital to create and maintain an athletic program with a strong emphasis on character education, as directed by the administrator's agreement in the IHSAA.

Statistical Hypothesis 3

No difference exists by years of experience on social reasoning of secondary school administrators.

The hypothesis was not analyzed due to the small sample size.

Statistical Hypothesis 4

No difference exists by years of experience on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.

The hypothesis was not analyzed due to the small sample size. It was decided not to run this because the end size would jeopardize the meaningfulness

Statistical Hypothesis 5

No difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in social reasoning of secondary school administrators.

This hypothesis was not analyzed due to the small sample size.

Statistical Hypothesis 6

No difference exists with the interaction of gender and years of experience in moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.

This hypothesis was not analyzed due to the small sample size.

Statistical Hypothesis 7 (Potential)

No difference exists by district classification and gender on social reasoning of secondary school administrators.

This hypothesis was supported.

Statistical Hypothesis 8 (Potential)

No difference exists by district classification and gender on moral reasoning of secondary school administrators.

This hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 7 and 8 informs us that it does not matter the district size or classification. Moral reasoning is low across the board in all classifications, and social reasoning is stronger in most cases. It is often assumed that schools with larger student populations would have more resources and that the quality of the teachers and administrators would be better; however, the present study argues that in the case of moral reasoning it is not true. The results argue that all administrators need better skills and tools to lead in relation to athletics in high schools. If it is true that larger school have more resources, those resources obviously are not being offered to principals in relation to the mission and goals of high school athletics or as stated by IHSAA (2019).

The results of this study are directly related to the responsibilities of the primary school administrator at stated by the IHSAA (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018). The manual states: The primary school administrator (Principal) is responsible for the behavior and conduct of coaches, players, cheerleaders, students, and adult fans.

Responsibilities:

1. Prepare a statement of philosophy that includes the objectives and rules with which each group involved is expected to comply.
2. Outline standards of sportsmanship reflecting the Board's policies and objectives, and IHSAA directives. Include behavioral criteria for all school personnel, student groups, and spectators.
3. Educate parents, players, students, and fans as to the appropriate and expected behavior.
4. Provide adequate game supervision. Make faculty aware that problems and potential problems must be reported and dealt with immediately.
5. Ensure that adult supervisors know what their responsibilities are and what is expected of them. Review school and IHSAA policy with them. At state events, review contents of the tournament manual.
6. Establish and maintain a working relationship with the media and encourage their support of your efforts towards good sportsmanship.
(IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018).

These responsibilities are specific to high school sports and require an obvious understanding of sport to carry out the expected responsibilities of the school administrator. The research results of the study argue that the participants have a low understanding of moral and social reasoning in sport. The low scores, as stated in Chapter Three, in moral reasoning argues that fair play is at jeopardy.

The social scenarios on the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory involve athletes in scenarios outside of competition. The values of teamwork, loyalty, and self-sacrifice were

chosen in agreement with the building of social character in the sport culture. The social scenarios were designed to coincide with selected social values (Rudd, 1998). The moral scenarios were selected from the Hahm-Beller Values Choice Inventory. These scenarios involve the moral values of honesty, justice, and responsibility and were chosen in association to deontological ethics which surmises that there is an inherent rightness apart from all consequences (Hahm, 1989). Therefore, the higher a participant scores on the moral character index, the more moral character he/she may possess.

Sportsmanship is an integral part of the high school sport experience and is the philosophy of the IHSAA. “The ideals of sportsmanship permeate virtually every aspect of our culture, and the ethics of fair play may be witnessed in all facets of life. However, the origins of sportsmanship have been firmly established in sports as a training ground for good citizenship and high behavioral standards” (IHSAA Sportsmanship Manual, 2018). While sportsmanship may be the ideal, multiple studies have shown that athletes have a lower understanding of moral reasoning in comparison to other participant populations (Beller & Stoll, 1995; Hahm, 1989; Rudd, Stoll, & Beller, 2004). Additionally, a negative correlation has been found with decreasing moral reasoning and the length of involvement in sport (Hansen, Beller, & Stoll, 1998; Beller & Stoll, 1995). If all the research about students and athletes is correct, and it appears to be so, administrative leaders including coaches, athletic directors, and especially principals must have a grounding in sport ethics, as well as, knowledge of moral development (Gibbs, 2003) and the practice of moral reasoning (Lickona, 2009). Research of moral development in sport (Bredemeier & Shields, 1995; Beller & Stoll, 2000) has consistently argued that if sportsmanship is the goal, then it should

be intentionally taught (Austin, 2014). One cannot teach what one does not know – the present research argues that it is probable that the principals do not know.

In conclusion, our nation emphasizes social values such as loyalty, teamwork, self-sacrifice, and perseverance, whereas moral values such as honesty, justice, and responsibility have played a subservient role at best (Rudd, 1998). Moral principles are important to moral development within school administrators as they supervise athletics. Interscholastic athletes can learn how to reason morally when they evaluate their personal moral values and develop a consistent and impartial set of moral principles (Lumpkin & Stokowski, 2011). How do athletes develop a consistent and impartial set of moral principles? With appropriate guidance and leadership, those in leadership positions in interschool athletics can positively impact athletes' lives through modeling moral judgment and growth through character education (Rudd & Stoll, 2004). Character education should be intentional. Stoll (2000) defines moral education as,

“The deliberate and intentional activity of cultivating, modeling, and teaching moral growth and moral judgment. The resultant purpose of this deliberate and intentional activity is to build habitual patterns in which students have a willing disposition to act upon moral judgment” Research in administrative leadership and the impact it has on coaches and athletes is limited (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018).

There are several character-building programs for coaches. If these programs are administered with purpose and are taken seriously by the participating coaches, they do make a difference in understanding and acting upon moral judgments. In Hansen's research, the character education intervention was found to be effective on increasing the participant coaches understanding of sportsmanship and fair play and how to apply it. This was

supported in Bryant's research, as well (Bryant K. , 2018; Hansen D. , 1999). It would seem to be a good decision to offer such a program for principals.

Measuring moral reasoning through research in administrative leadership is also limited. Nevertheless, research on the ethics of leadership demonstrates a dramatic influence in the workplace and impacts value-based decisions due to the ethical choice of leaders in establishing a vision and influencing the behaviors of those they lead (Gini, 2004). Research in athletics and leadership could be used to guide the development of secondary athletic programs and guide administration on preparation in ethics as a leadership guide to positively influencing athletic programs, education, and sport ethics within their schools. If sportsmanship and fair play is the goal of the IHSAA then changes in how secondary school administrators understand sportsmanship must be addressed.

Chapter Six: Summary

Implications

The role of high school administrators in high school sports varies from state to state but the opportunity for being a positive influence is present regardless of state. As stated earlier and reiterated here, research (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018) is minimal concerning the understanding of leadership in sport among high school administrators as moral development leaders. Current research states that specific instruments with a strong theoretical and pedagogical of moral development and practice must be used to examine moral development if character is to be built (Serdyukov, 2017). Knowing that intervention and moral reasoning practice must be used to further the moral development of an individual, the results of the current study show that more intervention and training is needed to increase moral reasoning and moral principles in secondary school administrators.

The low scores of the RSBVCI in the present study among secondary school administrators suggests:

1. As a group, they cannot articulate the sportsmanship values of the IHSAA.
2. If they cannot do so, they cannot effectively lead their school, athletic directors, and athletes, as well as, the parents and community in providing sportsmanship values according to IHSAA?
3. A low moral reasoning score and a high social reasoning score suggests the population were not educated about the moral values of the IHSAA

4. If 1-3 are correct, education is needed to improve the administrator's ability to reason what sport is and how it should be played.

5. Research is clear that a specific education directed toward sport ethics using principles of moral reasoning probably would help their moral reasoning.

Moral principles are important to moral development within school administrators as they supervise athletics and all those involved in such endeavors. Interscholastic athletes can learn how to reason morally when they evaluate their personal moral values and develop a consistent and impartial set of moral principles (Lumpkin & Stokowski, 2011). How do athletes develop a consistent and impartial set of moral principles? Education is the answer with appropriate guidance and leadership. Those in leadership positions in interschool athletics can positively impact athletes' lives through modeling moral judgment and growth through character education (Rudd & Stoll, 2004). These administrators need intervention education.

As mentioned earlier, character education should be intentional (Austin, 2010). This is the culminating conclusion of the current study based on the low results in moral reasoning among secondary school administrators. Further research and the development of an educational program specifically directed toward leadership for moral reasoning in secondary schools is needed. The supervisory role of these administrators should require this training in order to prepare them for the important role they will play in interscholastic sports. There is a need for further research on the effectiveness of the future programs measuring moral reasoning through research in administrative leadership.

Nevertheless, research on the ethics of leadership demonstrates a dramatic influence in the workplace and impacts value-based decisions due to the ethical choice of leaders in establishing a vision and influencing the behaviors of those they lead (Gini, 2004). The need for research in athletics and leadership could be used to guide the development of secondary athletic programs and guide administration on preparation in ethics to positively influence athletic programs, education, and sport ethics within their schools.

School administrators have a unique role to serve as a role model to athletic directors, coaches and student athletes. Ethics should be taught to administrators because they provide and are responsible for the environment by which athletic directors, coaches, and student athletes reside. Moral education is a life-long pursuit that should not be considered completed after a certain milestone in life (Lickona, 2009; Stoll & Beller, 2003). Moral education benefits all of society not just those who appear to need the education. Nevertheless, society has not been trained in moral education (Lickona, 1993). Indeed, in sports, moral decisions are often bent to an environment that values success rather than integrity.

Scores from the RSBH Value Judgment Inventory suggest secondary school administrators possess more social than moral character. This is consistent with previous studies. The significant difference in the results is identified in the moral reasoning of secondary school female administrators in comparison to secondary school male administrators. The female participants scored lower in moral reasoning than the male participants. These results among females were alluded to by Beller (1990),

...female athletes scored significantly higher than their male peers across all values except responsibility. The fact that responsibility scores are similar between males and females may be a direct result of participation within the N.C.A.A.'s male

dominated and administered philosophies and programs. However, because of prevailing attitudes, only time will tell whether the disparity between male and female student athlete moral reasoning scores will decrease and women's programs will follow in the footsteps of their male models (Beller, 1990, pp. 253-254).

The present study is noteworthy because historically, females have consistently scored higher than males in moral reasoning in the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989). Factors contributing to this difficult result could be a lack of understanding of the sports scenarios as the females may not have a history as a sports participant, they may also have a limited knowledge of the established rules of the IHSAA, additionally, the female participants may have had a low level of interest in the topic of sport in relation to the other areas of their job responsibilities. Regardless of the contributing factors, the results indicate the need for an intervention program for current secondary school administrators and required coursework for future secondary school administrators, all of which is needed to prepare administrators and future administrators for their role in secondary school sports programs.

Another explanation for the differential findings among genders are suggested in a meta-analytic re-analysis of 40 studies with 6,100 participants, where "...gender differences in moral dilemma judgments are due to differences in affective responses to harm rather than cognitive evaluations of outcomes" (Friesdorf, Conway, & Gawronski, 2015, p. 332).

Friesdorf, Conway, and Gawronski's (2015) research indicated women are more likely to have deontological judgments or action that is consistent with moral norms. Whereas, men slightly lean more to the utilitarian inclinations or action due to potential consequences. The

researchers also suggest the historical results of the RSBH Value Choice Judgment Inventory but brings into question why the female secondary school administrators would score lower in moral reasoning than their male counterparts (Friesdorf, Conway, & Gawronski, 2015).

Another study, indicating a need for educational intervention, compared graduate students in moral reasoning using the Defining Issues Test. Greer, Searby, and Thoma (2015) found a low moral reasoning score among educational leadership/administration graduate students compared to the national norm for graduate students across disciplines (Greer, Searby, & Thoma, 2015). The results of the Greer, Searby, and Thoma's (2015) research and the results from the RSBH among secondary school administrators raise the question about the population of individuals who choose Education Administration as a field of study.

Furthermore, the comparison between secondary school administrators and athletic directors indicates there is a need for intervention in both populations. The secondary school male administrators scored similarly to the athletic directors in moral reasoning but in social reasoning the secondary school male administrators scored slightly lower than the athletic directors. Conversely, the secondary school female administrators scored lower compared to the athletic directors in moral reasoning but in social reasoning the secondary school female administrators scored similarly to the athletic directors (Bryant, 2018). These results are significant due to the historically higher results in the RSBH for females than males in every type of population (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989).

Deliberate planning with specific curriculum can affect moral reasoning (Lickona, 2009). A disconnect or the breakdown in moral reasoning and a rise in social reasoning occurs when high school administrators are not trained in how to recognize and teach moral reasoning. Minimal research has been done to measuring the level of moral reasoning of

secondary school administrators. Additionally, little research has been directed towards examining the training and preparedness of high school administrators to teach moral reasoning in sport (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018). In an earlier study, moral reasoning of administrators did not appear to be much different than coaches (Bryant, Stoll, & Beller, 2018).

Deviance in sport has always been present but should not be accepted as the norm (Coakley, 2015). Training coaches, athletic directors, and school administrators using a focus on moral development training through character education should be valued. Moreover, the impact leaders have on athletes warrants a better understanding among leaders of moral education. The present research, using the RSBH instrument, should help to encourage further research in the understanding of the specific population of high school administrators related to reasoning in both social values and moral character.

The researcher encourages future studies of secondary school administrators looking specifically at the past sport experience of the administrators and the leadership model to which they subscribe. This research would give insight to the background as to where the decisions they make derive. A connection could also be made to other research on gender and leadership, former athletes and leadership and non-athletes and leadership. The window to greater understanding about the application of sport ethics is unlimited. Such findings could then be developed into a course to educate future school administrators before they enter the field on the implications of social reasoning and the value of moral reasoning. It would also seem prudent for administrators to be educated on about the agreement they make to participate in the IHSAA in accordance with the Sportsmanship Manual.

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Appendix A:

University of Idaho

Office of Research Assurances
Institutional Review Board
875 Perimeter Drive, MS 3010
Moscow ID 83844-3010
Phone: 208-885-6162
Fax: 208-885-5752
irb@uidaho.edu

To: Sharon K. Stoll
Cc: Lisa Brown
From: Jennifer Walker, IRB Coordinator

Approval Date: December 14, 2016

Title: Moral reasoning and social reasoning in secondary school administrators
Project: 16-140
Certified: Certified as exempt under category 2 at 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2).

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board at the University of Idaho, I am pleased to inform you that the protocol for the research project *Moral reasoning and social reasoning in secondary school administrators* has been certified as exempt under the category and reference number listed above.

This certification is valid only for the study protocol as it was submitted. Studies certified as Exempt are not subject to continuing review and this certification does not expire. However, if changes are made to the study protocol, you must submit the changes through [VERAS](#) for review before implementing the changes. Amendments may include but are not limited to, changes in study population, study personnel, study instruments, consent documents, recruitment materials, sites of research, etc. If you have any additional questions, please contact me through the VERAS messaging system by clicking the 'Reply' button.

As Principal Investigator, you are responsible for ensuring compliance with all applicable FERPA regulations, University of Idaho policies, state and federal regulations. Every effort should be made to ensure that the project is conducted in a manner consistent with the three fundamental principles identified in the Belmont Report: respect for persons; beneficence; and justice. The Principal Investigator is responsible for ensuring that all study personnel have completed the online human subjects training requirement.

You are required to timely notify the IRB if any unanticipated or adverse events occur during the study, if you experience and increased risk to the participants, or if you have participants withdraw or register complaints about the study.

Appendix B: The RSBH Value-Judgment Inventory (c)

Please complete the following information:

Male _____ Female _____

Teacher/AD _____ TOSA _____ Administrator _____

Classification: 6A _____ 5A _____ 4A _____ 3A _____ 2A _____ 1A _____

Age: 25-30 _____ 31-35 _____ 36-40 _____ 41-45 _____ 46-50 _____ 51-55 _____

56-60 _____ 61-65 _____ 66-70 _____ 70+ _____

Years of experience as a high school athletic director _____

Name (please print) _____ School _____

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact, Dr. Sharon Kay Stoll, 208 885-2103 or Lisa Brown, 208-871-5380, at the University of Idaho. You may refuse to participate in this process with no penalty from us at the Center for ETHICS*.

Signed: _____ Print Name _____

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*The Center for ETHICS**
 Andy Rudd, Ph.D.
 Sharon Kay Stoll, Ph.D.
 Jennifer M. Beller, Ph.D.
 Chung Hae Hahm, Ph.D.

The following scenarios involve dilemmas with high school and college athletes. Carefully read the scenario and respond in one of five ways: SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree. There is no

<p>1-1. Mike and Ben are long time tennis doubles partners. They have played hundreds of matches together. They are playing in the championship of a doubles tournament. Mike and Ben have fought hard in a long, exhausting, sweat dripping match and have battled their way to within one point of winning the match. Mike calls a ball out that is clearly inside the line. With a guilty looking face, Mike glances at Ben. Because they are teammates, Ben should not overrule Mike's line call.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>2-2. Three college basketball players have an algebra class together. The instructor of the class has a reputation for giving tough exams and limited office hours. Lisa and Shirley, two of the star players, have studied hard all semester, but are fighting to pass the course, whereas Tara is doing well. If Lisa and Shirley do not pass the course, they will be ineligible for the coming season. For the final exam, Lisa and Shirley position themselves near Tara. Tara should help Lisa and Shirley by making sure they can see her exam.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>3-3. Jeremiah, the pitcher from Team A throws a 90 mile per hour fastball that hits Marvin, the batter from Team B in the elbow. Marvin falls to the ground in enormous pain and consequently, must leave the game for x-rays. The following inning, Marvin's teammates urge Alex, the pitcher from Team B, to throw at Team A's batter. Alex should take care of his teammates and throw at the batter.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>4-4. Melinda, the star player for her basketball team, averages 35 points per game; her teammates average 5 to 10 points per game. Despite being the star, Melinda is no longer enjoying herself. She is tired of time consuming practices, long road trips, and pressure from screaming fans. Melinda should quit in the middle of the season, because she is no longer having fun.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>5-5. Coach Johnson is under great pressure to produce a winning team. Rumors persist that Coach Johnson must win the remaining three games to keep his job. Despite being on the "hot seat," Coach Johnson is well liked by her players and they have played hard for her all season. Many players consider Coach Johnson to be a second mother. Before the game, Coach Johnson tells the team that she is in jeopardy of losing her job. She says, "We must win our three remaining games or I will be fired. Do whatever you have to do to win. Even if it means bending the rules." The players should help their coach.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>6-0. A female gymnast with Big Time U tries diligently to be a great athlete, but alas the gods are not with her. The more she works, the more she seems to fail at the most inappropriate times: the big meets. She decides to seek help for her mental shortcomings. She sets monthly appointments with her school's sport psychologist. In six months, the meetings prove fruitful, and she begins to see results.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>7-6. Casandra, a college swimmer discovers that two of her teammates Kiley and Sage are using illegal drugs. If the coach is notified of Kiley and Sage's drug use, the two players will be benched for drug rehabilitation. Because Kiley and Sage are Casandra's teammates, Casandra should not notify the coach.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>

<p>8-7. Keegan is the star running back for Team XYZ and has led his team to the playoffs for the first time in fifteen years. During practice Keegan severely twists his knee. The doctors recommend that he miss the first playoff game in order to avoid permanent knee damage. An hour before the big game, his teammates encourage Keegan to receive a shot that would numb his knee. Even though Keegan may risk injury, Keegan should receive the shot and play for the good of the team.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>9-8. A college baseball game is tied in the bottom of the ninth inning, bases loaded with two outs. Just before Marvin comes to bat, his coach pulls Marvin aside. The coach commands Marvin to crowd the plate in hopes of being hit by a pitch. This would allow Team A to win the game. Although Marvin is concerned about getting injured, Marvin should risk injury in order to help his team win.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>10-9. Noah, a red-shirt freshman quarterback, has elected to practice with the team, but cannot play in the games. As such, he protects his four years of eligibility. Noah has a bright future in college football. During practice before the last game of the season, the starting quarterback suffers a season ending injury. XYZ must win to qualify for the Rose Bowl. Although the back-up quarterback could start, the coaches ask Noah to be the starter. If Noah plays, he will lose a year of eligibility and a year of development for the Pro Draft. Noah should help his team regardless of losing a year of eligibility and weakening his chances to play professional football.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>11-26. A highly recruited sprinter from Zimbabwe attends every practice, works diligently, and is highly respected by his peers and coaches. He is a good student, sits in the front of every class, and is an active participant. He is an NCAA finalist and must miss three days of class for the championships. As per university policy, he contacts all of his professors and receives permission to take his final exams at a different time and place.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>12-10. Sara, the most valuable player for her college tennis team, is very religious. Her religion forbids her to play on Sundays. As luck would have it, Sara's team must play a make-up match on Sunday against their state rival to qualify for the national tournament. Sara should put her religion aside and play for her team on Sunday.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>13-11. Two rival basketball teams in a well-known conference played a basketball game on team A's court. During the game, team B's star player was consistently heckled whenever she missed a basket, pass, or rebound. In the return game on team B's home court, the home crowd took revenge by heckling team A's players. Such action is fair because both crowds have equal opportunity to heckle players.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>14-12. Male Soccer players are allowed to play the ball with any part of their body except the hands or outstretched arms. A soccer player receives a chest high pass and taps the ball to the ground with his hand. The referee does not see this action and the play continues. Because it is the referee's job to see these actions, the player is not obligated to report the foul.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>
<p>15-13. Basketball player A skillfully dribbled the ball around her opponents to the basket. Just as she moved toward the basket, she was tripped by player B, causing the basket to be missed. If player A had not been tripped, two points probably would have been made. Player B is charged with a foul and player A must shoot two free throws. Player A missed the two shots from the free throw line. Player B is demonstrating good strategy by forcing player A to shoot two foul shots instead of an easy lay-up.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; text-align: center;">SA A N D SD</div>

<p>16-14. Certain basketball teams are coached to run plays that cause the opponents to foul. Players and coaches believe this is clever strategy because the opponents may foul out of the game, giving their team an advantage. Because the coach orders this type of play, the players should follow his directions.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>17-33. A starting linebacker for Big Time U is a good person, is known for his hard work and determination. He is also known as a fierce competitor and is aggressive on every play. The best part about him is that he is a consummate player. He loves the game and the experiences gained from it. He is also known as a good sport. He has won every team award for sportsmanlike conduct. After the big interstate rivalry, he shakes hands with all opposing players and coaches.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>18-15. Player A who is the center on an ice hockey team skated the puck down the ice, around several opponents. He had a clear shot at the net as he passed player B. Player B, while pretending to go for the puck, decided to turn at the last second to trip player A with his stick. Consequently, player A missed the goal. Because player A must now attempt a penalty shot instead of easy goal, this is demonstrating good strategy.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>19-16. During a volleyball game player A hit the ball over the net. The ball barely grazed off player B's fingers and landed out of bounds. However the referee did not see player B touch the ball. Because the referee is responsible for calling rule violations, player B is not obligated to report the violation.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>20-17. Football players are not allowed to move beyond the line of scrimmage until the ball is snapped. Some coaches encourage their players to charge across the line of scrimmage a fraction of a second before the ball is snapped. The officials have difficulty seeing the early movement; therefore, the team has an advantage compared to their opponents. Because the strategy is beneficial and the officials must call the infraction, the team's actions are fair.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>21-18. During an intramural basketball game, a student official awarded one free throw shot instead of two to team A. Team B knew the call was wrong, however chose to remain silent, knowing the call was to their advantage. Because the official's job is to make the proper calls, and it is not a formal game, team B's action was acceptable.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>22-19. During a youth sport football game, an ineligible pass receiver catches a long touchdown pass and scores. The officials fail to determine that the player was ineligible. Because it is the referee's job to detect the ineligible receiver, the player or the coach does not have to declare an ineligible receiver.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>23-33. The star of the swim team at Big Time U was 21 and had just completed a great collegiate career by winning both of her events at the NCAA Championships. Her parents traveled over 200 miles to support her and cheer her on to victory. After the finals, they take her out to dinner to celebrate. She decides to have a glass of white wine with her fish filet entree.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>
<p>24-20. Ice hockey is often a violent game. Even though players are often hurt, hitting hard and smashing players into the boards is normal. Player A and B are opponents playing in a championship game. While trying to control the puck, player A smashed player B into the boards. Even though the puck is on the opposite side of the arena, player B, a few minutes later, retaliated by smashing player A into the boards. Because "hitting hard" and "smashing players into the boards" are an inherent part of the game, player B's action was acceptable.</p>	<p>SA A N D SD</p>