

DEVELOPING AND TESTING A TEACHING INTERMEDIATE CONCEPT MEASURE:  
A PRELIMINARY RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY STUDY

by

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## ABSTRACT

The Neo-Kohlbergian approach to moral reasoning development maintains that intermediate concepts lie between bedrock moral schemas and professional codes of ethics and deal with issues of confidentiality, competence, informed consent, allocation of resources and professional autonomy (Rest and Narvaez, 1994). Intermediate concepts provide concrete guides for behavior; they contrast general moral schemas that are concerned with issues of fairness, justice and equality. Following the system for developing the dental and adolescent ICM (Bebeau and Thoma, 1999; Thoma, Derryberry and Crowson, 2013), this paper outlines the development and testing of a prototype Intermediate Concept Measure for teachers (TICM). Results indicate that the TICM has respectable psychometric properties. TICM summary scores were significantly related to Defining Issues Test (DIT-2) scores, which supports the assertion that the new measure assesses a construct in the moral domain. Further exploration of the relationship between the TICM and the DIT-2 revealed significantly difference performance on the TICM for the 3 schema groups (personal interest, maintaining norms and postconventional). All three groups are better at identifying good action choices and justifications than bad action choices and justifications. Additionally, students emphasizing the personal interest schema were at a disadvantage when identifying bad action choices and justifications; they also had difficulty identifying justifications compared to action choices. Taken together, these findings provide evidence that the TICM is a measure of moral reasoning within the teaching profession.

## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband and son, Nicholas and Noah. You both have inspired me throughout this journey. Nicholas, your constant love and support has helped me finish. I love you.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

$df$	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
$F$	Fisher's $F$ ratio: A ration of two variances
$M$	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
$SD$	Standard Deviation
$p$	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
$r$	Pearson product-moment correlation
$\eta^2$	Effect size
$<$	Less than
$=$	Equal to
TICM	Teaching Intermediate Concept Measure

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## INTRODUCTION

Educational philosophers such as Aristotle, Kant and Herbart have long argued that teaching is inherently a moral profession. Teachers are tasked with making daily decisions about what to teach, how to assign grades, how allocate resources and how to discipline students (Strike & Soltis, 1992). They guide students as they realize the self, specifically their moral identity (Bull, 1993). Other moral dimensions of teaching involve the transmission of values and norms that enable students to become good citizens and engage in society (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013). Teachers model and provide concrete meaning for such values as fairness, justice, honesty and tolerance as they interact with their students (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2002; Cambell, 2013; Osguthorpe, 2008). Thus, there is a clear responsibility to cultivate a culture of moral and ethical practice in the field.

The Aristotelian tradition frames the discussion on the moral essence of teaching in terms of virtues, where students acquire virtuous dispositions from a teacher only if that teacher is virtuous (Fenstermacher, 2001). Chief among the virtues are fairness, honesty, compassion, truthfulness and courage. How then do teachers teach virtue? Fenstermacher (2001) proposes that teachers use six pedagogical tools to promote moral conduct in their classrooms and provide an opportunity to demonstrate virtue: intentionally create a moral classroom community, didactic instruction, use of academic task-structures that foster intellectual virtue (i.e providing opportunities for students to think deeply and imaginatively), call-outs for conduct, private consultations with students and showcasing specific behaviors/students. For teachers to be at

ease using these strategies in a moral way they ought to be a part of the moral curriculum in teacher education programs. The argument can then be made that teacher education programs that do not are making a grave mistake as scholars agree that cultivating virtue should then be a core goal of teacher education programs (Campbell, 1997, 2008; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011; 2013; Sockett & LePage, 2002).

Campbell (2013) adds to discussion on the moral work of teaching by framing teaching as an exercise in teaching morally and teaching morality. Teaching morally involves being aware of how ethics shapes every decision and aspect of the job as a teacher and ultimately making good decisions. Teaching morality includes modeling moral behavior and giving explicit instruction on what is the right and wrong thing to do. Goodlad (1992) unpacks moral practice in the classroom as formal direct instruction on morality, commonly through didactic instruction. Blumenfeld-Jones et al., (2013) adds to the discourse on the moral work of teaching by saying that teacher have a responsibility to build an ethical self through an awareness of many modes of ethical thinking and acting. Overall, very few educational philosophers and scholars disagree that teaching has an ethical base and these arguments are supported by empirical evidence that support that connection between teaching and morality.

The literature supports the claim that teachers and schools have a moral mission (Arthur, 2008; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011). Students also believe that their teachers play a major role in their moral development (Arthur, 2011). Moral theories guide how schools operate in very clear ways (Strike & Soltis, 2009). For example, Kohlberg's Just Community approach has been applied to classroom discipline procedures and school-wide policies pertaining to student misconduct (Howard-Hamilton, 1995; Kohlberg, 1985; Power, 1998). His Socratic questioning method and moral dilemma discussion is a common instructional tool taught in teacher

professional development in K-12 (Jackson et al., 2008). Teachers themselves report entering the field because of the moral work it involves (Book & Freeman, 1986; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992) and believe that their practice has strong moral potency (Brownlee et al., 2012; Sanger, 2001; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011).

Beyond philosophical perspectives that posit that teaching is inherently moral, organizations that provide professional standards for the field underscore that teaching is a moral enterprise. In 2000, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Assessment (NCATE) revised its standards to emphasize the need for teacher education programs to attend to the moral development and disposition of teacher candidates. Currently, the NCATE defines disposition as “professional attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and non-verbal behaviors as educators interact with students, families, colleagues, and communities” (2008, p.32). Previous definitions included the term “social justice”, mirroring scholarly discussions on the moral and civic responsibility that teachers have to their students and their families (Sullivan, 2004). The focus on social justice and value commitments in the profession were met with opposition and ultimately resulted in a refocusing on teacher beliefs and promoting reflective practice among teachers. Despite the controversy surrounding teacher dispositions, the NCATE (2008) currently expects institutions to assess for preservice teachers’ beliefs on fairness, the belief that all students can learn and practice that results in equitable learning outcomes; values that Kohlberg and Rest would say are at the heart of moral judgment development.

This renewed attention on the moral disposition of teachers has also led to discussions about the moral curriculum in teacher education programs. There is a strongly held view that there is a gap between the inherently moral work of teaching and explicit instruction preparing teachers for the moral elements of the profession (Chubbuck, Burant & Whipp, 2007; Sanger &

Osguthorpe, 2011,2013; Sockett & LePage, 2002). Sanger and Osguthorpe (2013) argue that the removal of explicit moral language in teacher education programs makes it difficult to adequately prepare educators and ultimately devalues a profession that has a hand in citizen development. Research has revealed that when teacher candidates received explicit moral instruction and are given the opportunity to critically reflect on personal views on morality they develop a deeper understanding of how beliefs shape their practice and are better able to articulate the moral aspects teaching (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011). In an examination of teacher educators' practices in the Netherlands, Willemse, Lunenberg and Korthagen (2008) found that faculty and student teachers struggled to articulate the moral elements of their profession. They concluded that instruction on the moral dimensions of teaching was implicit and unplanned even though faculty and student teachers expressed that moral development in field was highly important. Similar results have been found in Sweden, where teachers in two elementary schools lacked a common ethical language and professional knowledge about the moral aspects of their practice (Thornberg, 2008).

Lapsley and Woodbury (2016) reiterate the sentiment that most schools of education do not adequately address the moral developments of its students. The authors point to the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards that narrowly address ethical practice by focusing only on codes of ethics and ethical use of information without giving the rationale behind these codes. In response to accreditation standards most teacher education programs have one required developmental or/and educational psychology course that covers moral judgment development (Nucci, Drill, Larson & Browne, 2005). These courses often do not explicitly address ethics; they are more likely to cover policy issues, educational philosophy and the history of schooling (Sanger, 2008). Scholars are of the opinion that this is not enough for a

profession rife with moral decisions and value commitments; it is a missed the opportunity to explicitly outline how the curriculum should prepare preservice teachers for their moral-laden profession (Bull, 1993; Chubbuck et al., 2007; Campbell, 2008, 2013; Lapsley & Woodbury, 2016; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013; Strike, 1993).

The question then is what should teacher education programs do? Campbell (2013) answers this question by taking a look at how other professional programs such as nursing, social work and physical therapy approach the moral curriculum. First, she found that these programs make the implicit elements of the curriculum explicit with mandatory ethics courses or units and assessments evaluate core ethical components. Second, ethics components in the curriculum are outlined clearly learning outcomes. Courses cover philosophical foundations and codes of conduct but also include concrete application of ethical considerations in the profession. Frequently, instruction focused on the use of “real-life” case studies and discussion of the ambiguities embedded in each case, how to conceptualize the dilemma and picking a part the decision making process. Third, students underwent a debriefing after clinical practice. These sessions often involved discussion of negative modeling by practitioners in ethical situations that students may have experienced and a review of alternative behaviors. Campbell (2013) has incorporated case study discussion (with the use of an ethical decision-making framework in analysis) in her instruction of preservice teachers and sees it as a powerful tool in filling the moral vacuum in the curriculum. For Campbell, observing how other professions structured the moral curriculum led her to conclude that case study discussion is a meaningful way to improve ethics instruction in teacher education.

## **Purpose and Significance of Proposed Study**

The purpose of the proposed study is to develop and test a prototype intermediate concept measure for the teaching profession (TICM). The most obvious use of the TICM is an outcome measure that assesses the moral thinking of teachers at the intermediate concept level. The practice of teaching has been seen as a moral endeavor because teachers tackle what is fair and just in regards to their students and by extension their parents; they are stewards of the personhood of others and influence the moral development of their students (Osguthorpe, 2008; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2011; 2013). Thus teacher education programs ought to attend to the moral functioning of pre-service teachers. Research that examines if the curricula in teacher education programs are producing moral teachers is rare. The TICM is a tool that can be used to examine if the ethics curriculum in teacher education programs are preparing teachers to make sound moral judgments.

My hope is also that the TICM can be utilized to help raise the moral consciousness of pre-service teachers and aid in the development of strategies that result in sound moral judgments. The lack of explicit moral or ethical content in teacher education programs is of concern as evidence shows that explicit, systematic instruction and dilemma discussion promotes gains in moral development (Schlaefli, Rest & Thoma, 1985). Even outside of the Neo-Kohlbergian tradition there is much support for pre-service teachers being given the opportunity to discuss stories that depict realistic classroom experiences in order to develop what Strike (1993) called “dialogical competence”. He found that issues of fairness, respect for students and parents and punishment within the context of teaching led to the moral insight that all teachers needed. The TICM has the potential to be used as an intervention in teacher education programs to further moral development and help build dialogical competence. The stories and action

choices and justifications provide the educative opportunity identify ethical components relevant to teaching practice that are embedding in each story and consider alternative ways to resolve the ethical dilemma and distinguish between ethical and unethical practice (Bebeau, 1994; Thoma, Bebeau & Bolland, 2008).

Using the TICM as a moral intervention is supported by research. Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1993) found that individualized instruction and self-directed behavior modification interventions to advanced moral reasoning in in-service teachers. The use of guided reflection among mentor teachers paired with pre-service teachers has produced significant gains in moral reasoning as measured by the DIT. In intervention studies, peer counseling activities, dilemma discussion, instruction on moral development theory and social role-taking with guided reflection was associated with significant gains in moral reasoning of education students (Cummings, Harlow & Maddux 2007; Hurt & Sprinthall, 1977; Reiman & Peace 2002). Teachers who were principled thinkers were more likely to motivate students' social development and learning than their counterparts that reasoned at lower levels. They were also more aware of their moral duties as teachers (Chang, 1994; Cumming et al., 2001). O'Keefe and Johnston (1989) found that teachers who were principled thinkers were more tolerant of students' diverse opinions, they empathized more with students and were more likely to use differentiated instruction. Teachers with higher levels of moral reasoning were better able to weather the moral and interpersonal challenges of working at a public school (Reiman & Peace, 2002). Supervising teachers who had lower levels of moral reasoning were more likely to negatively and inaccurately evaluate preservice teachers doing their field experience (Thies-Sprinthall, 1984). These studies provide clear evidence that attending to the moral development of teachers and giving them the space to reasoning about ethical dilemmas matters.



In all these studies moral reasoning was measured using the DIT. The DIT has been established as a robust measure moral reasoning (Thoma, 2002) but because of the abstract nature of its dilemmas it cannot unearth the discipline-specific areas that student teachers need to develop that are pertinent to the moral domain of teaching. The TICM will be able to uncover deficiencies in reasoning about concepts specific to the profession thus providing teacher educator programs with useful information that can be used to tailor ethics instruction.

Willemse, Lunenberg and Korthagen (2008) posit that the lack of empirical research on the moral dimension of teaching stems from “the absence of a clear theoretical framework” (p.446) to guide such work. Developing a TICM is a solution. The Four Component Model (FCM), which serves as the theoretical foundation for the TICM is a lens through which to view the moral dimensions of teaching. At Winthrop University, the teacher education program combines the perspectives of John Dewey, Nel Noddings, Carol Gilligan and Rest’s FCM to create a theoretically ground framework that guides the moral curriculum. In this college of education course content and assessments are structured to develop teacher candidates that are morally and ethically sensitive, make sound moral judgments, be morally motivated and have the courage to act in a moral way even in the face of challenges and distractions (Johnson, Vare & Evers, 2013). The neo-Kohlbergian model provides a blueprint for theory-driven measures that assess the different components involved in the moral dimensions of teaching (Bebeau, 1994; Bebeau & Thoma, 1999).

This brings me to the second problem highlighted by Willemse and colleagues (2008), a need for empirical research that can serve as a blueprint for investigating the moral development of pre-service teachers and teacher practitioners. There are four decades of research on the relationship between higher education and moral development (King & Mayhew, 2002; Rest,

1986). Beginning with the seminal work of Rest and Thoma (1985) longitudinal studies have demonstrated that students who attend college make greater moral reasoning gains than their counterparts who do not attend college. Since then there has been a proliferation of research on how students of differing college majors perform on the DIT (Mayhew and Engberg, 2010; Mayhew, Seifert and Pascarella, 2010; Snodgrass and Behling, 1996). King and Mayhew (2002) point to research on institutional, disciplinary contexts and other aspects of college such as peer relationships that are associated with moral development. The TICM will be able to provide greater insight into how education students versus their counterparts in other disciplines reason about ethical issues specific to the profession and how college impacts how they interpret intermediate concepts.

Empirical research has also focused on moral development in specific contexts. DIT-like measures have been developed to examine moral reasoning in journalism and among managerial students and professionals (Lovisky, 2000; Westbrook, 1994). The Test of Teachers' Moral Reasoning (TTMR) was used as a tool to investigate teaching-specific moral reasoning (Chang, 1994). The scoring scheme of the TTMR was "formed from the researcher's intuition based on her understanding of moral theory and her experiences in the teaching profession" (p.79). These studies have found that students and professionals with greater socialization in each field were more likely to have higher moral reasoning scores than novices. They add to the rich tradition of empirical research that chart the trends and changes in moral reasoning development that occur in college, laying the groundwork for research on the moral reasoning of in-service and pre-service teachers.

Measures like the TTMR attempt to address the need for discipline-specific dilemmas that uncover moral reasoning trends within a particular field or discipline. However, by retaining

a structural format similar to the DIT they fail to get to the heart of moral reasoning in the professions. The dental ICM provides evidence that supports a measure that highlights intermediate concepts and a scoring system that is grounded in the thinking and judgment of respected experts with a professional context (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). The new TICM will utilize teaching specific moral concepts that go beyond abstract principles to get to the heart of decision-making within the profession.

### **Research Questions**

1. Can the TICM demonstrate acceptable reliability estimates?
2. a. Does the TICM relate to the DIT developmental score i.e the N2 score?  
b. Are there differences in performance on TICM subscales (i.e good action choice and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications [*Goodbad*] and action choices versus justifications [*Actjust*])?
3. Is the TICM sensitive to students with different levels of teaching experience?
4. Do students who have training in professional ethics in the teaching profession differ on the TICM?
5. Do demographic categories relate to TICM score differences?

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

In the following literature review the theoretical and methodological contributions that inform the proposed study will be discussed. The review focuses on the Kohlbergian view of moral development, Rest's reconceptualization of moral functioning as outlined in the Four Component Model (FCM) and how moral reasoning is measured from a neo-Kohlbergian perspective using the Defining Issues Test and Intermediate Concept Measures. The chapter closes with the research questions that guide the study.

### **Moral Judgment Development: Kohlberg's Perspective**

Kohlberg's conceptualization of moral development borrowed heavily from the work of Piaget that focused on the cognitive development of children as they arrive at moral decisions (Piaget, 1997). Piaget's theory of how cognitive structures are formed through social interaction focused on how children interpret the moral and construct moral values and judgments. His moral stage theory saw children at first making moral decisions based on information handed down by authority figures. At around age 10 morality involved social agreement and rules that benefit all members of society. Later, higher order moral functioning resulted when children's thought structures were challenged by increasingly complex moral experiences.

Piaget proposed movement from heteronomous morality that is characterized by unilateral conformity to adult authority to autonomous morality, the morality of cooperation and justice. His work emphasized age-related cognitive operations that ended at adolescence and

evolving cognitive moral development that was supported or “scaffolded” during difficult moral problems. He used stories and games to unearth the underlying cognitive operations of behavior. Kohlberg also embraced a constructivist approach to moral judgment development. He engaged key features of Piagetian theory such as morality becoming increasingly progressive and complex and seeing moral judgment as phenomenological in nature, but extended cognitive development beyond adolescence to show how moral judgment developed took place well into the college years. His work differed from the dominant behavioral tradition during the 1970’s as it focused on cognition and not the causal correlations of behavior such as altruism or other prosocial behavior (Kohlberg, 1969, 1985).

Like Piaget, Kohlberg used interviews to gain insight into intuitive thoughts about moral issues such as fairness and justice. His Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) asked participants (college-aged students) to reason about hypothetical moral dilemmas in order to uncover their rationale for the course of action they deemed morally justified (Kohlberg, 1984). Kohlberg (1984) incorporated social-construction theory to assert that the self is mediated by cognitive structures emerges as individuals engaged in the moral experience of discussing the dilemmas. With the MJI, Kohlberg determined a “score” within a continuous scale that indicated a specific stage of moral development and pointed to the cognitive processes involved in that stage.

Using data gathered with the MJI, Kohlberg (1984) hypothesized a sequential stage theory of moral development. He posited four principles that framed his model of moral judgment development. First, different developmental stages translated into different ways of reasoning about morality. Therefore, individuals at different stages would reason qualitatively different even about similar or shared values. Second, each stage characterized a structured way of thinking about morality and ethical issues. Third, stages follow an invariant sequence. Finally,

stages are hierarchical in nature; cognitive structures found at lower stages are rehabbed and an individual's moral reasoning improved as they advanced to a higher stage.

Kohlberg saw that as MJI interviewees grappled with the moral dilemmas (most notable being the Heinz dilemma) identifiable patterns emerged that allowed him to trace the progression through three levels of moral reasoning which are further divided into six developmental stages that characterize a specific moral orientation. At the preconventional level (stages 1 and 2) moral reasoning is egocentric and motivated by self-interest. Moral reasoning at level 1 is characterized by the punishment-obedience orientation and the instrumental relativist orientation in which obeying rules to avoid punishment and an action is judged based on the need of the individual directs what is moral. An individual then advances to the conventional level where the main concern is maintaining societal order. Here interpersonal and societal (law and order) conformity fosters loyalty to the collective and tempers self-interest, allowing for a third person perspective that takes into consideration others. Justice demands maintaining social and institutional order through fixed rules and laws. The final level is the postconventional level where thinking shifts toward a principled perspective. Kohlberg posits that the social contract orientation and universal ethical principle orientation dominate this level. Right action is critically examined and agreed upon the whole society and laws can be challenged if they infringe upon the individuals' rights.

Initial data from early versions of the MJI, supported the six stage formulation of moral development. However, longitudinal and cross-cultural research led Kohlberg to the conclusion that stages 5 and 6 were not universal across cultures and stage 6 reasoning was rare even among adults (Gibbs, Basinger, Grime & Snarey, 2007). Critics of Kohlberg pointed to the all-male sample used to develop his stage descriptors (Gilligan, 1982) and problems associated with the production format of the MJI that hindered the ability to accurately assess the cognitive

structures involved in moral reasoning. Rest confronted the theoretical and methodological concerns associated with Kohlberg's approach, which ultimately led him to reject the orthodox stage model of moral development (Thoma, 2002). Upon closer examination of data gathered using the MJI, Rest noted that the response variability of participants that did not support the notion that an individual was in a particular stage or in between two stages of moral development. Rest then adopted a schema conceptualization of moral development rather than a "hard" stage approach, allowing for shifting usage of moral judgment schemata. The schema view maintains that more than one schema may be used therefore a pattern of responses becomes evident across different orientations. Rest's schema view, commonly referred to as the neo-Kohlbergian view of moral development will serve as the theoretical framework that will guide this study.

**The Neo-Kohlbergian Perspective.** The influence of schema theory in the neo-Kohlbergian approach is seen in two notable ways. First, Rest posited that developmental schemas progress in a flexible and dynamic manner as opposed to an invariant stage process; which led to him to see individuals as using earlier schemas less and less as they activated later schemas. Second, schemas may be activated without the ability to articulate the reason or justification behind a solution to a dilemma. This approach would form the basis for a recognition measure that addressed some of the limitations of the MJI. Rest and his colleagues at Minnesota argued that recognition measures would be more sensitive to changes during periods of rapid development such as adolescence. Such a measure, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) would then capture markers of development and response variation across these markers. Later on in their research, Thoma & Rest (1999) posited that an individual might not present clear preference for one schema, indicating that they are in transition between two. In addition,

individuals might be consolidated at one schema, where they show a preference for one schema although there might be usage of other schemata.

Rest's Four Component Model (FCM) attempts to address deliberations within the field about the moral judgment-action gap, where individuals with sophisticated moral reasoning do not always act in a moral way. One main criticism was that research points to moral reasoning being only a modest predictor of moral behavior (Blasi, 1980). Rest responds to this critique unpacking moral action as the product of four components: moral sensitivity, moral judgment, moral motivation and moral implementation. The model assumes that these components operate as a highly interacting system each having their own distinct function (Rest, 1986). Another major assumption of the model is that each of the four components engage both cognition and affect, albeit one may be prioritized over the other based on the moral dilemma.

Component 1, moral sensitivity involves identifying or interpreting the moral elements of what is typically a complex situation. This process underscores that for moral behavior to occur an individual must code the situation as moral. There are often defensive operations that can distort the moral issue, as well as affective responses that may overwhelm cognitive appraisal of the moral issues. The individual has to hone in on the multiple courses of action and how each action may impact the welfare and of others, create multiple scenarios and possible consequences for those involved (Rest, 1994). Rest (1986) explains that moral sensitivity may trigger a strong affective response even before broad cognitive functions are engaged. These "gut" feelings help the individual empathize with the victim and instantly dislike the perceived wrongdoer before reflection or contemplation of the facts. Thus "gut" feelings or affective responses involved in Component 1 can obstruct moral judgment; this points to ethical sensitivity being distinct from the ability to make a well-reasoned argument about a moral issue. Bebeau (1994) found that



dental students and professionals may be able to interpret the ethical and moral dimensions of a situation but not be proficient at developing a sound moral judgment, and vice versa.

Component 2, moral judgment refers to identifying and eliminating possible solutions, then establishing a course of action that is morally justified. Ultimately, the individual has to distinguish between what one ought to do and what is the right or moral thing to do. Kohlberg's global stage model is located in component 2, as it highlights the social norms and religious prescriptions that serve as a more abstract guide for moral thinking. The neo-Kohlbergian perspective maintains that this component is multifaceted. He hypothesized that processes at this level include justice-based judgments along with decision-making within professional context (Kohlberg, 1986). Thus measures of moral reasoning include traditional instruments such as the MJI and DIT and intermediate concept measures (ICM's), which will be discussed in detail below.

Making moral judgments come easily to most individuals, beginning relatively early in their development (Piaget, 1997). Based on this, Rest's cognitive developmental model emphasizes how concepts of cooperation and ideas about fairness and justice act as problem-solving heuristics that guide moral decision-making. In component 2, cognition and affect work together to influence what schema is prioritized as individuals make moral decisions. Cognitive understanding of what is fair and just is accompanied by feelings about moral responsibility and when reciprocity is appropriate. This process involves consideration of stakeholder interests, identifying options, weighing the consequence of each possible course of action and balance competing values and norms to determine what is morally right or wrong.

Component 3, moral motivation involves prioritizing the right thing to do over and above other interests. For an individual to act morally they have to figure out how to put the moral at

the top of their list of things to do. For example, for teachers, if the moral thing to do is closely associated with their professional identity, then it is safe to say they it is likely that they will act on it. Being aware of the moral thing to do is not enough; one has to counter defensive operations that may be related to personal, career or other relationships and interests. Often, these defensive operations undercut the motivation even when the moral course of action is clear.

Component 4, Moral Implementation involves formulating a strategy to get the moral act done. The individual has to chart a course of action, manage distractions and harness the fortitude to see the moral act through to its completion. An individual may be ethically sensitive, make sound moral judgments and able to prioritize moral values but falls short in implementing a moral plan. Moral implementation or moral courage requires having enough perseverance, ego strength and problem-solving skill to overcome fatigue and waning will and to act morally. This involves self-regulation to delay reward and manage distractions and executive skills that often involve work around impediments and unanticipated difficulties (Rest, 1983).

The FCM signaled a departure from Kohlberg's "hard" stages, as the model outlines "softer" schemas that are more concrete conceptions of how individuals interpret, organize and prioritize the moral elements in social situations. The Neo-Kohlbergian perspective maintains that individuals shift usage of three moral judgment developmental schemata for determining a right course of action: the personal interest, maintaining norms and postconventional. The personal interest schema closely aligns with Kohlberg's stages 2 and 3. Individuals reasoning at the personal interest level prioritize the self and attend to the gains and losses of individuals or a small network of people when presented with a moral dilemma. Moral reasoning at this level does not take into account conceptions of societal cooperation. Ideas of societal cooperation are recognized in the other two developmental schemata that denote more advanced moral

reasoning, albeit different perspectives of cooperation. The maintaining norms schema emerges as individuals gain a more nuanced understanding of how cultural norms, laws, religious conventions and sources of authority inform society-wide cooperation. Individuals thinking at the maintaining norms level have a broader perspective of moral obligation that includes how to meet the demands of the “other” or those outside their known social group or “in-group”.

Finally, individuals’ progress to a more advanced position of moral reasoning: postconventional thinking. They are committed to shareable ideals that are reciprocal and flexible based on the experience of the community. According to the Neo-Kohlbergian formulation of moral reasoning the postconventional schema highlights four key elements. First, primacy of moral criteria emphasizes that the individual understands laws and norms based on the underlying moral purposes. Whereas at the maintaining norms level of thinking conventions are viewed as unalterable and adherence to them are key to society’s functioning. Second, the appeal to an ideal underscores the principles that guide the way members of society relate to each other that creates good for all. For example, caring for those in need or guaranteeing civil rights and protection for all. Third, shareable ideals stress that ideas about societal cooperation are open to scrutiny and are not based on personal preference or intuition. Therefore, justification for what is deemed moral does not serve the individual at the expense of others, serves the common good, or aligns with established ideals (that can be challenged by new rational debate). Finally, full reciprocity calls for unbiased social norms and laws and their impartial application (Rest et al., 1997).

This revised model of moral development unpacks moral functioning as broader ranging and more specific than Kohlberg had originally outlined. Schemas structure information in a network based prior experiences and they serve as a filter through which new experiences are

understood. The schema view of moral development maintains that judgments are more automatic and less reflective than characterized by Kohlberg's model (Rest et al., 1997). The neo-Kohlbergian model also identifies different types of moral judgments. Macro-moral considerations assess society-wide institutions, rules and roles that facilitate social cooperation. These judgments prioritize fairness and impartiality. Micro-moral considerations assess how individuals negotiate daily relationships and the growth of individual virtues. Macro-morality emphasizes fairness and impartiality and micro-morality emphasizes relating to others with integrity. Rest and colleagues (1997) note that the two types of morality interact with each other but their view holds that moral schema mainly captures macro-morality issues.

Another difference of the Neo-Kohlbergian approach is that moral judgment, although an important component is no longer seen as directly impacting moral behavior (as the other components are also activated). This perspective holds that individuals may also use alternative ethical strategies and systems such as religious prescriptions, social and professional norms or codes during moral reasoning. Nisan (1984) found that dominant norms of a community such as the tendency toward egalitarian distribution among children in a kibbutz can override general justice concepts in deciding what is morally right. Similarly, Lawrence (1979) revealed that religious ideology not moral schema guided cognition when conservative seminarians were solving moral problems.

**Levels of Moral Reasoning.** Rest and Narvaez (1983) posited 3 levels of cognitive abstraction that guide moral functioning: general schemas, intermediate concepts and codes of conduct. Moral schemas are activated when situation specific interpretative systems fail to aid in providing a resolution to a moral dilemma. These bedrock schemas act as a general context-free default system for interpreting the moral elements in any given situation. In contrast,

professional codes of conduct are the most concrete guides for behavior in clearly defined situations; they leave very little room for interpretation about what is moral or ethical thing to do. For example, the American Medical Association (2016) code of medical ethics provides standards that define “honorable behavior for the physician” and gives guidance as to what is ethically permissible in the profession. One code states “physicians must seek to protect patient privacy in all settings to the greatest extent possible” (AMA, 2016). The code then goes on to direct physicians to when disclosure of private information is feasible, such as in the case of informing other health care personnel who are also providing care. The code of medical ethics, as is the case in many professions catalogues specific prescriptions and prohibitive behavior devoid of any rationale based on moral theory.

In between moral schemas and professional codes of conduct are intermediate concepts (Rest & Narvaez, 1983). Intermediate concepts are contextual and are central to the moral dimensions of professions. They are open to interpretation regarding what is appropriate and inappropriate behavior within a specific field. These concepts are more specific guides for behavior compared to abstract, bedrock schemas that deal with general issues of fairness, justice and equality. Judgments at this level of moral reasoning are typically organized around “intermediate” concepts such as confidentiality, competence, informed consent, allocation of resources and professional autonomy (Bebeau and Thoma, 1999). Intermediate level concepts are not triggered by a specific situation instead they can be applied to a wide range of situations.

Intermediate concepts are central to the curriculum of professional ethics courses and are particularly sensitive to moral educational interventions. Operationalizing intermediate concepts and developing a measurement system has provided greater insight into the moral development of college students in professional programs such as dentistry and pharmacy (Bebeau & Thoma,

1999, Roche, Thoma & Wingfield, 2014). More recently, the Adolescent Intermediate Concept Measure (Ad-ICM) has revealed that intermediate concepts can be applied to a broader social context (Thoma, Derryberry & Crowson, 2013). The development of the Ad-ICM underscores the claim that intermediate concepts describe a generalized aspect of moral reasoning and is not limited to the professional context and principles such as informed consent that have a “well-established set of moral consideration” (Thoma, 2014, p. 357).

**Measuring moral reasoning.** The Neo-Kohlbergian model of moral development provides the framework for development of measures of specific areas of moral functioning because it isolates the cognitive structures that are activated by moral information embedded in a dilemma. Rest posited the FCM with the expressed aim of developing a measure of moral reasoning, which he considered a pivotal component in the model. Kohlberg’s difficulties interviewing subjects and scoring methods of the MJJ also motivated Rest to abandon its format in exchange for a paper and pencil test, the Defining Issues Test (DIT). It builds on Kohlberg’s moral dilemma structure but bypasses the limitations of the MJJ, like a reliance verbal ability that can hamper effective assessment of cognition related to the moral judgment processes, self-reporting bias and interrater reliability issues. The DIT does not require production or articulation of moral judgment instead the subject has to recognize the elements needed to resolve the moral issue, allowing for tacit assessment of moral reasoning.

**Defining Issues Test.** The DIT has 6 dilemmas accompanied by twelve statements that the individual takes into consideration in order to resolve the moral conflict. The subject is asked to rate the items on a five point Likert scale based on their importance to their resolution of the dilemma. Then the subject performs a second pass though of the items, ranking the four most important statements. As the subject makes sense of items (by rating and ranking them as

important) a preferred moral schema is activated. Each of the items are presented as sentence fragments, so as the subject tries to complete the line of argument a specific moral schema is triggered to fill in the information needed to make sense of the item. It is assumed that if rated as acceptable, the item will represent the test-takers preferred schema and it will also be ranked as important (Thoma, 2014). The ratings and rankings provide an index or score of the test-takers preferred schema. Rest and colleagues (1997) would argue that one's preferred schema also structures moral thinking and decisions beyond the DIT.

The data obtained by the DIT clusters items into three distinct groupings that are loosely based on Kohlberg conception of moral development: stage 2 and 3, stage 4 and stages 5 and 6. The personal interest schema reflects features of Kohlberg's stages 2 and 3; it centers on how aspects of the situation impacts the self and relationships with the self and others. The maintaining norms schema aligns to Kohlberg's stage 4 and focuses on how thinking is guided by the norms that organize and maintain cooperation in society. The P-score related to but do not directly map Kohlberg's stages 5 and 6. It is an index of post-conventional or principled reasoning; higher scores reflecting more advanced moral thinking. The N2 score is a more robust index that begins with the degree to which post-conventional reasoning is prioritized (similar to the P-score) combined with rejection of lower stage reasoning. Ultimately, the N2 score better captures individual response patterns to provide an overall developmental profile of the test taker (Rest et al., 1999).

The DIT has been validated based on seven criteria: (1) differentiation of age and educational effects, (2) chart longitudinal gains in moral reasoning, (3) correlation to measures of moral comprehension and cognition, (4) sensitivity to educational interventions that target moral judgment, (5) correlation with prosocial behavior and decision-making within professions, 6)

ability to predict political orientation, and (7) reliability (Rest et al., 1999a; 1999b; Thoma, 2014). Through the use of longitudinal and cross-sectional data, Rest and Thoma (1985) able to tease out age effects from education effects among college students. They found that college students had significantly higher DIT scores than high school students and their scores continued to climb beyond their undergraduate career. More recently, Mayhew and colleagues (2016) highlight that the DIT was sensitive to moral interventions, such as college courses that were designed to promote moral reasoning growth such through either explicit content (for e.g. dilemma discussion) or implicit content (for e.g. service learning or diversity training). The literature indicates that DIT scores are related to text comprehension (Narvaez, 1998), verbal ability (Thoma et al., 1999) and critical thinking (Hurtado et al., 2012). These results have established the DIT as a robust research tool that can capture the cognitive and developmental aspects of moral reasoning that are highlighted by the Neo-Kohlbergian model.

The DIT has also been widely used to measure the moral development of professionals, beginning with differences in the moral reasoning of college students with different academic majors. Paradice and Dejoie (1991) found that management information system (MIS) majors had higher DIT scores than non-MIS majors. Education and business seniors had lower DIT scores than those with liberal arts majors (McNeel, 1994). Additionally, Cumming et al., (2001) found that education majors had lower levels of principle reasoning than typically found among a college sample. The authors administered the DIT along with the Academic Misconduct Scale (AMS) and found a negative correlation between principled reasoning and academic misconduct, which led them to suggest that education majors were more predisposed to cheating behaviors.

Medical students that experienced film discussion as an intervention to stimulate moral reasoning gains had higher DIT posttest scores than a control group (Self, Baldwin & Olivarez,



1993). Similar results were seen with medical students that took part in moral case study discussion (Self, Wolinsky, Baldwin, 1998). Coleman and Wilkins (2004) developed and tested two discipline-specific dilemmas for journalism along with the DIT and found that journalists performed better on professionally focused moral dilemmas than other professional groups including nurses, orthopedic surgeons, veterinary and dentals students. Loviscky (2000) developed a DIT-like test for managers, the Managerial Moral Judgment Test (MMJT). The DIT scores supported the construct validity of the MMJT. MMJT sum score were correlated to *p*-scores and the scales of the MMJT each had a coefficient alpha of above 0.70, therefore establishing the internal consistency reliability of the instrument. Beyond testing the reliability and validity of the new measure, the authors found that doctoral students scored higher on both the DIT and MMJT than MBA students, who scored higher than undergraduate students.

Beyond measuring moral judgment development, the DIT has also been used to support the construct validity of newer measures of moral judgment development, like the MMJT and Intermediate Concept Measures (ICM's). The section that follows give a detailed discussion of ICM's and how they have been validated based its relationship with the DIT.

***Intermediate Concept Measures.*** Intermediate concept measures assess moral judgment within a specific professional or social context. When first developed ICM's were limited to the professional context. They measured the ability to appropriately apply an intermediate concept embedded in a discipline or profession-specific dilemma and interpret how a protagonist's action might impact the outcome of the dilemma (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). In 2013, Thoma and colleagues expanded the intermediate concept measurement approach to adolescent populations. An ICM for pharmacists has been successfully used as an outcome measure and an intervention in a professional ethics course (Roche et al., 2014). These developments have helped to establish

the credibility of ICM's. Pertinent to this study, the application of the ICM approach across disciplines and social contexts has established the methodology for developing an ICM for any profession (Thoma et al., 2013).

Intermediate concept measures share some structural similarities to the DIT, in that they ask test takers to focus on a story and both provide action choices and justifications. However there are key differences. The stories in ICM are context-specific and are closely related to functioning within a target profession or population. Test takers then have to rate and rank the appropriateness of multiple action and justifications. Importantly, responses are scored based on expert opinion within the field. For example, with the dental ICM action choices and justifications were ranked as acceptable, neutral and unacceptable based on consensus of dentists with ethics training (Bebeau and Thoma, 1999). In contrast, for traditional moral judgment measures (e.g., the DIT, MJI) the default system that is activated by stories are moral schemas and item responses are scored by linking them to each schema. Four intermediate scores are then generated from the ratings and rankings: the percentage of time a subject identifies acceptable items as appropriate, and the percentage of time a subject selected unacceptable items for action choices and justification items. Scores are combined to form an index of acceptable and unacceptable scores. Then these two indices are then combined to generate a total score of all four subareas.

Thoma (2014) highlights that the use of expert opinion is based on the notion that expert choices reflect the application of ethical concepts (as defined by moral schemas) along with advanced understanding of the professional context in which these judgments are made. Expert opinion also takes into account general social perspectives that are pertinent to the profession and includes inferences about any preceding events not explicitly stated in the stories in order to

formulate “bedrock” ethical concepts in the field. This conceptualization of expert opinion has been successfully employed in the development of the dental, adolescent and pharmacy ICM (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999, Thoma et al., 2013, Roche et al., 2014). Expert opinion has also been validated as ICM developers engaged practitioners from the discipline to check the authenticity of stories, action choices and justifications (Bebeau, 2014; Bebeau & Thoma, 1999).

*The Dental ICM.* The Dental ICM was developed in order to assess the effectiveness of dental ethics curriculum. It was validated based on the following criteria: 1) realistic stories to ensure the integrity of the measure, 2) consensus among experts regarding what action were better or worse, 3) the instrument’s sensitivity to groups expected to differ in dental ethics, and 4) its relationship with other measures of expertise (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). It is important to note, that Bebeau and Thoma (1999) were not motivated to establish that intermediate concepts are developmentally orders as is the case with moral schemas. The dental ICM provides empirical support for intermediate concepts and demonstrated the transportability of the measurement design process to other professional and social contexts by systematically outlining the steps for developing the measure.

In order to ensure the integrity of the five topics were chosen from the ethics curriculum and developed into cases by dental practitioners. The cases were then checked for authenticity by a separate group of practitioners. Following case development, a group of dental faculty and residents generated action choices and justifications for each choice. Each action choice was rated as acceptable or unacceptable. The same group then rated the action choices on a 4-point scale (highly defensible to not at all defensible) and then they ranked to two best and worst choices. Justifications were rated on a 5-point scale (great, much, some, little, no) and the three best and two worse justifications were ranked. The group if necessary modified cases and items.

In a second round with a new group (made up of faculty and residents) cases were reviewed and items were rated and ranked. The goal was for each group to achieve consensus on cases that reflected ethical dilemmas that most, if not all dentists face and consensus on the best and worst action choices and justifications (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999).

Each group of faculty and dental residents were deemed experts in the field because that had received ethical training based on well-validated professional curriculum (Bebeau, 1994). However, to ensure that consensus was not merely personal preference, a result of having experienced the same ethics curriculum or a regional bias, dental faculty from across the country were also enlisted to respond to the newly developed cases. Eighty-eight percent of these experts rated “best” choices as reasonable and 88% rated the “worst” choices as unreasonable choices. For justification items, the agreement was 95% and 93% for appropriate and inappropriate items, respectively. When asked what was the single best action choice or justification, agreement ranged from 32% to 46% (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999).

Construct validity of the dental ICM was established based on the instrument’s ability to discriminate among groups that experienced different levels of ethics interest and education (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Dental seniors scored significantly higher than dental freshman, who in turn scored higher than college freshmen. Freshmen, both dental and college struggled especially with distinguishing between best and worst actions choices. Specifically, freshmen students ranked best action choices as worst and worst as best action choices. The dental ICM was also validated based on its relationship to traditional measures of moral reasoning, namely the DIT. DIT scores were significantly related to dental ICM scores, with  $r = .26$  for dental freshman and  $.33$  for senior students (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). These findings demonstrated that the measure captured reasoning within the moral domain. This is further supported by the lack of

correlation between dental ICM scores and GPA scores. This finding demonstrates that the dental ICM is sensitive to ethical considerations within the field but not the overall dental curriculum.

*The Adolescent ICM (Ad-ICM).* Research on the Ad-ICM has focused on how well the measure captured moral reasoning as outlined by the neo-Kohlbergian perspective. Specifically, the assumption that moral reasoning is developmental. Therefore, one important validation criterion was the measure's sensitivity to age-educational group differences. Thoma and colleagues (2013) found that younger adolescents scored lower than older adolescents on the AD-ICM, and older adolescents scored lower than college students. Students placed on in-school detention scored lower than older adolescents. These students experienced challenges identifying bad choices and justifications; a similar trend was found by Bebeau and Thoma (1999) among dental students. Further evidence of the validity of the Ad-ICM was found, as there was a negative association between the Personal Interest schema scores of the DIT and Ad-ICM scores. Teens with lower Ad-ICM scores also prioritized Personal Interest schema in the DIT (Thoma et al., 2013). The authors explained that interests of the self and placing prominence on personal relationships as regards to moral reasoning obstruct understanding of intermediate concepts.

The neo-Kohlbergian view of moral development advances that reasoning at the intermediate concept level is associated to moral behavior. Empirical support for this position within the adolescent context is seen in students assigned to in-school detention having lower AD-ICM scores than the youngest group of high school students. These students have a history of making bad choices and their difficulty in identifying bad and good choices on the AD-ICM is an expression of this (Thoma, 2014).

Research on the intermediate concepts in professional and adolescent populations has anchored this level of cognition as pertinent to the moral domain. Educational and age trends captured by the dental ICM and Ad-ICM chart developmental pathways; reasoning about intermediate concepts becomes more advanced as dental students experience greater socialization in the field and adolescents in higher grades are better at distinguishing between good and bad choices than lower division students. Both measures show the developmental hierarchy of intermediate concepts as higher scores are related to higher scores on the DIT. This supports the position that advanced moral reasoning about intermediate concepts will be reflected in individuals' broad-based moral thinking as theorized by the FCM. The dental ICM and Ad-ICM are also sensitive to deliberate attempts to stimulate moral development through educational interventions. Ad-ICM and dental ICM scores are related to DIT scores, supporting the assertion that ICM's measure a construct also assessed by the long validated measure. Additionally, the finding that students placed in in-school detention score lower than their peers reveals that the Ad-ICM taps into real-life moral functioning.

***ICM's as an Intervention Tool.*** Roche, Thoma and Wingfield (2014) used an ICM as an educational intervention to stimulate moral reasoning growth in undergraduate and post-graduate pharmacy students in an online and blended (a mix of online and face-to-face) format. In the study, students were presented online with a discipline-specific dilemma and individually asked to find the ethical concepts embedded in each story. Next students were asked to rate and rank justification options. If students did not match options with expert opinion they received an individual review session. The final phase of the intervention involved face-to face group problem solving to find the most preferred course of action. Achieving group consensus provided each student with continuous peer feedback as they debated and negotiated their way to

unanimous decision. Fifty-two percent of pharmacy interns most preferred action choice aligned with expert opinion and 82% included the expert option in their top three choices. In the final group phase, 96% of interns changed their ranking of the most or least preferred action choice in order to align with the group decision. The authors believe that this finding underscores the need for debate and discussion in making moral decisions within the profession. Results also demonstrated that students were able to recognize the ethical norms pertinent to the profession (Roche et al., 2014). The study revealed that an ICM is adaptable for use in face-to-face and technology-enhanced learning formats as an intervention to promote moral reasoning. Roche and colleagues (2014) highlight that the ICM has the potential to be used as an evaluation and assessment tool within professional education programs.

In summary, research on the intermediate concepts in professional and adolescent populations has anchored this level of cognition as pertinent to the moral domain. Educational and age trends captured by the dental ICM and Ad-ICM has charted developmental pathways of moral reasoning at this level of cognition; reasoning about intermediate concepts becomes more advanced as dental students experience greater socialization in the field and adolescents in higher grades are better at distinguishing between good and bad choices than lower division students. These findings support the theoretical assumption that advanced moral reasoning about intermediate concepts will be reflected in individuals' broad-based moral thinking. The dental and adolescent ICM are also sensitive to deliberate attempts to stimulate moral development through educational interventions. It is reasonable to conclude that the Ad-ICM taps into real-life moral functioning since students placed in in-school detention scored lower than their peer even peers that are younger (Thoma et al., 2013). Research on intermediate concepts among adolescents and pharmacy interns (Thoma et al., 2013; Roche et al., 2014) address questions

about whether intermediate concepts may be generalizable to contexts outside of the professional domain (Walker, 2002). Given these findings, the following research questions will guide the proposed study:

1. Can the TICM demonstrate acceptable reliability estimates?
2. a. Does the TICM relate to the DIT developmental score i.e the N2 score?  
b. Are there differences in performance on TICM subscales (i.e good action choice and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications [*Goodbad*] and action choices versus justifications [*Actjust*])?
3. Is the TICM sensitive to students with different levels of teaching experience?
4. Do students who have training in professional ethics in the teaching profession differ on the TICM?
5. Do demographic categories relate to TICM score differences?



## **METHOD**

### **Participants**

Participants were drawn from undergraduate and graduate students in the College of Education at a large southeastern university. Undergraduate students were recruited from eight classes: Orientation to Teacher education, School, Culture and Society, Social Psychological Foundations in Education, Educational Psychology, and Survey in Special Accommodation Strategies. All five courses are required courses for preservice teachers and are considered checkpoints for meeting statewide standards for developing ethical practice. Undergraduate students were also recruited from Lifespan Human Development, Introduction to American Politics and African Politics and were used as a comparison group. Graduate students were recruited from two classes: Effective Teaching- the Concepts and Processes and Quantitative Research Methods. Regarding recruitment of undergraduate and graduate students, emails were sent to professors teaching the courses asking for assistance in collecting a sample. Extra credit was offered to participating students. The surveys were administered on Qualtrics. Upon completion of each measure (the DIT and the TICM) participants will be directed to enter their student ID that allowed professors to assign extra credit; this information was not connected to participants' responses to protect confidentiality

## Measures

**Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2)- short form.** The DIT-2 (Rest & Narvaez, 1998) assessed moral judgment development. Participants will be presented with 3 dilemmas, each followed by 12 items. Participants are asked to take the position of the protagonist in the story and decide what he or she must do. They are then asked to rate the items based in their importance in terms of their importance in interpreting the dilemma and then rank the four most important issues as it relates to determining the action choice. Scores for each schema are calculated from the ranking data. The Postconventional schema score or *p*-score originally represented the items selected that appeal to Kohlberg's Stages 5 and 6. Presently based on a schema view of moral thinking, a more accurate description of the *p*-score is that it is an indication of a test-taker's use of postconventional reasoning. A more robust index was later developed; the N2 score reflects the emphasis placed on postconventional reasoning and the de-emphasis placed on maintaining norms and personal interest reasoning by incorporating rating and ranking data. Additionally, the N2 score captures transitions and consolidation in a particular schema, giving a more nuanced understanding of movement through moral schemas (Rest et al., 1999). Scores can range from 0-95, higher scores reflecting more advanced moral judgment development.

Rest and colleagues used seven criteria to assess the validity of the DIT: (1) differentiation of age and educational effects, (2) chart longitudinal gains in moral reasoning, (3) correlation with measures of moral comprehension and cognition, (4) sensitivity to educational interventions that target moral judgment, (5) relationships with prosocial behavior and decision-making within professions, (6) ability to predict political orientation, and (7) adequate reliability (Rest et al., 1999a; 1999b; Thoma, 2014). Each criterion will be discussed below:

*Differentiation of age and educational effects.* Studies with large composite samples have found that 30%-50% of DIT score variance is attributable to level of education (Rest et al., 1999a). By using such large samples, researchers were able to decrease the impact of confounding variable such as socioeconomic status and tease out educational and age effects. These finding align with current research by Maeda, Bebeau and Thoma (2009) who found that students in medical school on average having P scores 5.2 higher than nonmedical students.

*Charting longitudinal gains.* This criterion supports the theoretical assumption that a measure of moral judgment development would capture advances in reasoning over time. In a 10-year longitudinal study with male and female participants from diverse demographic, educational (college and non-college participants) and socioeconomic backgrounds, DIT scores followed an upward trend. It is important to note that the most significant longitudinal gains were among college students than any other population examined in the sample.

*Correlation with measures of comprehension and cognition.* Research indicated that the DIT is related to measures of moral comprehension such as the Moral Comprehension Test. DIT scores were related to cognitive measures, specifically those assessing verbal ability and to other cognitive developmental measures (Thoma, et al., 1999).

*Sensitivity to educational interventions.* In a review of over 50 intervention studies there was a moderate effect size of .40 for dilemma discussions interventions. The effect size for control groups was .09 (Schlaefli et al., 1985). More recently, King and Mayhew's (2002) review of the literature found that interventions studies that included ethics courses, courses with a ethics component, social diversity courses and service learning or community service programs found a significant increase in DIT scores for the majority of the studies.

*Relationships with prosocial behavior and decision-making with professions.* This criterion addresses the widely debated link between moral reasoning and moral behavior within the field. Researchers have mined this area and found that 32 out of 47 measures of moral behavior are related to DIT scores (Rest, 1986). Bebeau and Thoma (1994, 1999) found that ethical decision-making within professions are significantly related to performance on the DIT.

*Links to political variables.* The DIT measures what neo-Kohlbergian theory understands as macromorality, that is, an individual's understanding of society-wide norms and institutions that impact social cooperation. Macro-morality issues are connected to political ideology such as civil liberties, freedom of speech and the press and law and order. Macromoral judgments involve political attitude and orientation. Thoma and colleagues (1999) found that DIT scores were related to political attitudes about matters such as public policy issues, attitudes towards human right issues, free speech and religious views. Specifically, P and N2 scores were associated with political attitude and accounted for over 60% of the variance in controversial issues like abortion and women's rights. The P score was more closely related to political tolerance and law and order preferences than the N2 score; it emphasizes the shift from the law and order orientation to a universal ethical principle orientation. Thus, moral judgment as assessed by the DIT captures the developmental shift toward macro-moral conceptions of social cooperation that are closely related to political orientation (Rest et al., 1999; Bebeau & Thoma, 2003).

*Adequate reliability.* The Cronbach alpha for the DIT using large composite samples was in the high .70's to the low .80's. The test-retest reliability was similar. DIT scores correlations to political attitude variables ranged from .40 to .65; this showed the discriminant validity of the measure (Thoma, et al., 1999).

**Developing the Teaching intermediate concept measure (TICM).** Following Bebeau and Thoma (1999) there are three main concerns that were addressed to develop an intermediate concepts measurement system for teachers: identifying the concepts, developing the stories or dilemmas that reflect an intermediate concept and specific items yoked to each story which represent plausible and implausible action choices and justifications.

*Identifying the concepts and stories.* First, 34 teacher practitioners were asked to share experiences that highlighted ethical considerations they faced over the course of their career. This resulted in a variety of stories that ranged from detailed and nuanced stories to generic and stereotypical stories. Teachers were also asked to state the ethical concept that each story embodied. The researcher then reviewed the stories; those that shared a common theme were grouped together to represent a concept. From the grouped stories, teacher experiences were combined to create a set of six stories that were similar complexity and length. Then a group of eight experts were asked to review the stories to check if they were realistic and relevant. Experts were individuals who had extensive knowledge of the teaching practice, instruction in teacher education programs and ethical theory and practice in the profession of teaching. Experts also produced extensive scholarship on moral or ethical theory in teaching. They gave feedback on what would be the best and worst action choice and the best and worst justification would be for each story. The expert group deemed one story unrealistic. The group of teacher practitioners checked all six stories for authenticity using a 5-point likert scale ranging from highly plausible to high implausible. The teacher group was also asked to generate action choices for the protagonist of each story and justifications for each choice. The plausibility data indicated that the same story that was deemed implausible by the expert group was also rated as implausible by

the teacher group therefore it was eliminated. This process identified 5 stories that represented an intermediate-level concept in the profession.

*Developing Action Choices and Justification Items.* The next step in the measurement development process was to create a set of plausible action and justification choices yoked to each story. To this end, a second group of 22 teacher practitioners rated the action choices and justifications generated in the story development phase on a 5-point likert scale ranging from highly plausible to high implausible. This group also generated choices and/or justifications not represented in the initial set of items. New item nominations were also modified or eliminated as appropriate. These teachers were asked if any concepts were missing from the ones represented in the 5 stories; teachers then generated one additional story that centered on the concept “teacher response to bullying”. It was rated on relevance and plausibility. Action choices and justifications were generated for this story and the group rated them for plausibility using the 5-point likert scale. Item choices were modified or eliminated based on teachers’ plausible ratings. Following this process, the researcher identified 6 stories that represented one intermediate concept in teaching and corresponding action choices and justifications (see Table 1). Following the precedent set by the dental ICM and AD-icm the number of items flowed directly from the teachers and there were not a predetermined number of items (action choices and justifications) for each story (See Table 2). This choice follows a tradition in which psychological realism is more important than methodological traditions (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013).

Table 1

*Final List of Concepts and Stories Description*

Concept	Short Description of Story
Harm Reduction: Zero Tolerance	Mr. Toland has to decide whether to report a student's violation of the schools weapon policy.
Fairness: Promotion or Retention	Ms. Thompson has to decide to promote or retain a struggling student that has missed considerable days in the semester.
Handling of Student Cheating	Ms. Lawrence has to decide whether to report students who have cheated on a paper.
Plagiarism	Mr. Gordon has to decide whether to report a student who had plagiarism.
Handling Students with Individual Education Program (IEP)	Ms. Carter has to decide what term grade to give a student with an IEP.
How to Address Bullying	Mr. Williams has decide how to address an incident of bullying where the bullied student who has threatened to retaliate.

Table 2

*Number of Action Choices and Justifications for each Story*

Story	Number of Action Choices	Number of Justifications
Mr. Toland	8	10
Ms. Thompson	10	12
Ms. Lawrence	8	10
Mr. Gordon	9	10
Ms. Carter	9	12
Mr. Williams	10	11

*Developing the Scoring Key.* The scoring key was developed using expert opinion on the appropriateness of action choices and justification (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Experts were asked if a preservice teacher or teacher practitioner were to endorse each item would the action choice (and justification) be acceptable, unacceptable or neutral. Items that had high consensus or inter-rater agreement (75% raw agreement) were assigned the appropriate label (Thoma et al., 2013). Items that did not have high inter-rater agreement were modified as needed. A group of 22 teachers (the same group that developed action choices and justifications) reviewed the items with low inter-rater agreement, modified and rated each item on relevance and plausibility. Experts reviewed all items including newly modified items for an additional cycle, with all action choices and justifications rated as reliable in one of the three categories, that is, acceptable, unacceptable or neutral.

*Developing the TICM scoring process.* Now that the stories and items were developed the next step was to create the measure and its scoring process. The scoring process followed other



ICM methodologies (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013). Participants (a group of preservice teachers and in service teachers,  $n = 268$ ) were asked to read each story and rate a set of action choices on a 5-point scale, ranging from *I strongly believe that this is a good choice* to *I strongly believe that this is a bad choice*. Then they were asked to rank the three best choices and two worst. Justification choice were also be rated on a 5-point scale, ranging from *I strongly believe that this is a good reason* to *I strongly believe that this is a bad reason*. The justification items were also ranked. This was done for all the action choices and justifications across the 6 stories. A primary index was created based on the ranking data. Higher scores captured a ranking pattern where the participants and experts are in consensus. Higher scores indicated that the participant selected the expert defined acceptable items as the best choices and justifications and also recognized the worst choices and justifications as the experts rate the item. Not matching the expert ratings reduced the score on the measure. Action choices, good or bad and justifications, good and bad produced four intermediate scores based on a weighted sum from ranking positions. For good choices and justifications, 1<sup>st</sup> rank = 3 points, 2<sup>nd</sup> rank = 2 and 3<sup>rd</sup> rank = 1, for a total of 6 possible points. Six stories produced a total possible score of 36 and a bad score of 18. The four intermediate scores were totaled to create three indices: Totalgood, Totalbad and TotalICM. Totalgood is an average of good choices and justifications represented as a percentage of a perfect score; indicating percentage of the experts' acceptable items as good choices. Totalbad was calculated in a similar fashion. TotalICM is an average of all good and bad action items and justifications based on the range of good and bad scales, represented as a percentage across all 6 stories. A high TotalICM score demonstrates the ability to identify both acceptable and unacceptable choices and justifications as the experts do. Conversely, failing to identify acceptable and unacceptable choices and justifications as experts do reduces a test-takers score.

The range for a TotalICM will be -1 (a pattern differing from expert opinion) through +1 (a pattern in consensus with expert opinion). There were two other subscales that were calculated: *Goodbad* and *Actjust*. *Goodbad* is an average of good (or best) action choices and justification rankings versus an average of bad (or worst) action choices and justification rankings represented as a percentage across all 6 stories. *Actjust* an average of good (or best) and bad (or worst) action choices rankings versus an average of good (or best) and bad (or worst) justification rankings.

The dental ICM and AD-icm both used ranking data only to create primary indexes; this procedure was also used for the TICM. Ranking data has been found to provide greater insight to ethical thinking because the test-taker must rate each item then deliberate about each item in relation to all the items presented when tasked with identifying the best and worst items (Rest, 1979).

## **Procedure**

The study took place following approval from Institutional Review Board (IRB) (see Appendix C). Students were recruited from the classes previously mentioned. I contacted faculty via email to get permission to recruit their students and determine if extra credit will be offered for participation. For the professors that were amenable, I set up a time to speak to the class at the beginning of the semester about study participation and distributed a link and QR code to gain access to the study. Instructors were also emailed a recruitment script that was sent an email or the course management system (Blackboard) to students that included a link and QR code that allowed them to access the study via Qualtrics. Prior to beginning the surveys participants were first presented with an informed consent. Participants completed the DIT-2 short form (Rest & Narvaez, 1998; Rest et al., 1999) and the TICM; this may be done in multiple sittings. In order to

control for order effects survey presentation was randomized. Participants were asked at the end of the survey in Qualtrics to enter their Campus Wide ID (CWID). CWID were not linked participants but only used to track students participation for allocation of possible extra credit.

### **Research Questions and Corresponding Analyses**

1. Can the TICM demonstrate acceptable reliability estimates?

Cronbach's reliability estimates were computed for the overall summary score, TotalICM. The average of good choices and justifications and average of bad choices and justifications and the story across the six stories was used to compute these estimates.

2. a. Does the TICM relate to the DIT developmental score i.e the N2 score?

To support a case for criterion validity, Pearson product-moment correlation between TotalICM scores and the DIT-2 summary score, the N2 score were computed for the sample in order to investigate if both measures assess the moral domain. The independent variable was N2 score and dependent variable was the TotalICM score.

- b. Are there differences in performance on TICM subscales (e.g. good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices [*Goodbad*] and justifications and action choices versus justifications [*Actjust*])?

First, a one-way ANOVA was conducted in order to determine if performance on the TICM summary score was significantly different when participants were grouped by their modal schema score (Personal Interest, PI types 1&2; maintaining norms, MN types 3,4&5 and post conventional, PC types 6&7). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's procedure were used to confirm how the participant type (or group) differed. Given initial group differences in TotalICM scores a two within-subject and one between factor repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine differences on the TICM subscales. The within-subjects factors were good action

choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*). The between-subjects factors were participant schema: personal interest (PI), maintaining norms (MN), and postconventional (PC).

3. Is the TICM sensitive to students with different levels of teaching experience?

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the differences in TotalICM mean scores for students with teaching experience and those without teaching experience. The dependent variable was the TotalICM score and the between-subjects factor was preservice (no teaching experience) versus service (teaching experience). Additional analysis on the subscale level was conducted. A two within-subject and one between-subjects factor repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate if participants with varying teaching experiences had significantly different performance on the subscales good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*). The within-subjects factors were *Goodbad* and *Actjust*. The between-subjects factor was teaching experience: preservice teachers and service teachers.

4. Do students who have training in professional ethics in the teaching profession differ on the TICM?

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the mean differences in TotalICM scores for participants that received ethics instruction related to the teaching profession, participants that received ethics instruction unrelated to the teaching profession, and participants that received no ethics instruction at all. The dependent variable was the TotalICM score and the between-subjects factor was ethics instruction. A two within-subjects and one between-subjects factor repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate if participants with different ethics training had significantly different performance on the subscales good action choices and

justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*). The within-subjects factors were *Goodbad* and *Actjust*. The between-subjects factor was ethics training: ethics instruction related to the teaching profession, ethics instruction unrelated to the teaching profession and no ethics instruction at all.

5. Do demographic categories relate to TICM score differences?

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine if gender had a statistically significant effect on TotalICM scores. A two within-subjects and one between-subjects factor repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate if there were gender differences on the subscales good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*). The within-subjects factors were *Goodbad* and *Actjust*. The between-subjects factor was gender. A second one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine if ethnicity had a significant effect on TotalICM scores. A two within-subjects and one between-subjects factor repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate if there were ethnicity differences on *Goodbad* and *Actjust*

## RESULTS

Throughout this chapter data analyses are reported and interpreted for each of the research questions that guide this study. First, internal consistency estimates were computed on the TICM summary score (TotalICM). Then, the relationship between the TICM and DIT-2 was examined in order to test the claim that both measures assess the moral domain. Following the tradition of other ICM approaches analyses were conducted to investigate if the TICM is sensitive to group differences (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013). To further explore the relationship between the TICM and DIT, students were grouped by their modal schema score and compared on the TotalICM score. Schema group performance on TICM subscales was also investigated. Finally, individual differences (i.e. gender and ethnicity) on the TICM summary score were conducted. The TotalICM score is an average of good action choices and justification and average of bad action choices and justifications across the six stories in the measure (Chapter 3 provides detailed description of the TotalICM score and the other scores discussed in this chapter).

Descriptive statistics can be found in Table 3 for the overall sample and for gender. Participants in the present sample reported TotalICM scores of ( $M = .48, SD = .22$ ). Participants reported lower N2 scores, lower P scores, lower MN scores, and higher PI scores compared to national norms obtained from the Center for the study of Ethical Development (2015;  $M_{N2} = 34.1; M_P = 34.9; M_{PI} = 27.1; M_{MN} = 33.2$ ). In respect to gender, 76.5% of the sample was female

and 23.5% male. As seen in Table 4, white students made up the majority of the sample at 85.4%; black students represented 8.2%, Hispanic students represented 3%, and Asian or Pacific Islander represented 1.5%. Students who identified as “Other” ethnic groups represented 1.9%.

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics for the Overall Sample*

	Sample ( <i>n</i> = 268)		Male ( <i>n</i> = 63)		Female ( <i>n</i> = 205)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Total ICM Score	.48	.22	.47	.21	.49	.22
N2 Score	25.54	13.99	23.06	11.93	26.31	14.50
P Score	24.53	14.90	24.13	13.62	24.66	15.30
MN Score	27.89	15.06	24.39	14.87	28.97	14.99
PI Score	37.18	16.02	38.62	16.13	36.73	16.00

Table 4

*Sample Demographics- Ethnicity*

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
African American or Black	22	.43	.18
Asian or Pacific Islander	4	.49	.00
Hispanic	8	.39	.29
Caucasian	229	.49	.22
Other	5	.73	.02

Total	268	.48	.22
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## Research Questions

### 1. Can the TICM demonstrate acceptable reliability estimates?

Cronbach's reliability estimates were computed for the overall summary score, TotalICM which is an average of good choices and justifications and average of bad choices and justifications and the story across the six stories was used to compute these estimates.

Cronbach's alpha was computed using the summary scores of each story; the story summary score was an average of good action choices and justifications rankings and bad action choices and justifications for each of the six stories. The Cronbach's Alpha,  $\alpha = .75$ .

**Summary.** The coefficient  $\alpha$  value indicated acceptable internal consistency and a reasonable stable estimate of the summary scale, TotalICM. Among ICM approaches an  $\alpha$  of .75 is considered to indicate good internal consistency (i.e. the AD-icm) because the concepts being assessed are broad and nested within different contexts. Consequently, participants have to attend to the different ethical elements embedded in each story and context across stories which reduce the estimate of internal consistency. Secondly, even though the measure involves rating and ranking items yoked to each story, the only statistically independent unit of analysis is each story, thus the measure in its entirety is essentially a 7-item scale. Measures of that length typically do not have high internal consistency estimates (Walker, et al., 2017). Finally, the scoring is based on expert opinion that represents a combination of "bedrock" ethical concepts, ethical training that informs understanding of the dilemma and a general social perspective that covers different contexts (Thoma et al., 2013; Thoma, 2014). Therefore scoring based on an



expert key covers many constructs which also reduces estimate of internal consistency (Streiner, 2003).

## **2. Does the TICM relate to the DIT developmental score i.e. the N2 score?**

To support a case for criterion validity, Pearson product-moment correlation between TotalICM scores and the DIT-2 summary score, the N2 score was computed for the sample. The correlation was statistically significantly  $r(212) = .29$  for TotalICM, which supports the claim that the TICM measures a construct within the moral domain. It is interesting to note that the correlation between the personal interest schema score and TotalICM is negative,  $r(212) = -.19$ , suggesting that as TotalICM scores increase personal interest scores decline. In contrast, the correlation between maintaining norms scores were positive and statistically significant,  $r(212) = .24$ . These values are similar to those reported for other ICM approaches (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013).

**Summary.** The TotalICM score is significantly correlated with the DIT-2 N2 score. This result provides evidence that the TICM is a measure of moral reasoning and not simply a measure of teacher knowledge or ability. This is similar to findings reported for adolescent and dental ICM summary scores and the DIT-2 indices (Thoma et al., 2013).

### **2b. Are there differences in performance on TICM subscales i.e. *Goodbad*<sup>1</sup> and *Actjust*<sup>2</sup>?**

To further explore the relationship between moral judgment scores and performance on the TICM, participants were grouped by their modal schema score and the resulting 3 groups: personal interest (PI, types 1&2), maintaining norms (MN, types 3,4&5), and postconventional

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<sup>1</sup> *Goodbad* is an average of best action choices and justifications versus worst action choices and justifications.

<sup>2</sup> *Actjust* is an average of best and worst action choices versus best and worst justifications.

(PC, types 6&7) performance on the TICM were examined. A one-way ANOVA indicated statistically significant main effect,  $F(2, 206) = 6.11, p = .003; \eta^2 = .06$  for modal schema type and TotalICM scores. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's procedure showed that participants emphasizing the personal interest schema ( $M = .44, SD = .22$ ) obtained statistically significantly lower TotalICM scores than participants emphasizing maintaining norms ( $M = .55, SD = .17$ ) and postconventional schema ( $M = .52, SD = .23$ ) (see Figure 2). Participants emphasizing maintaining norms and postconventional schema were not statistically different from each other.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for Schema Groups*

Schema Group	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Personal Interest ( $n = 109$ )	.44	.22
Maintaining Norms ( $n = 55$ )	.55	.17
Postconventional ( $n = 45$ )	.52	.23

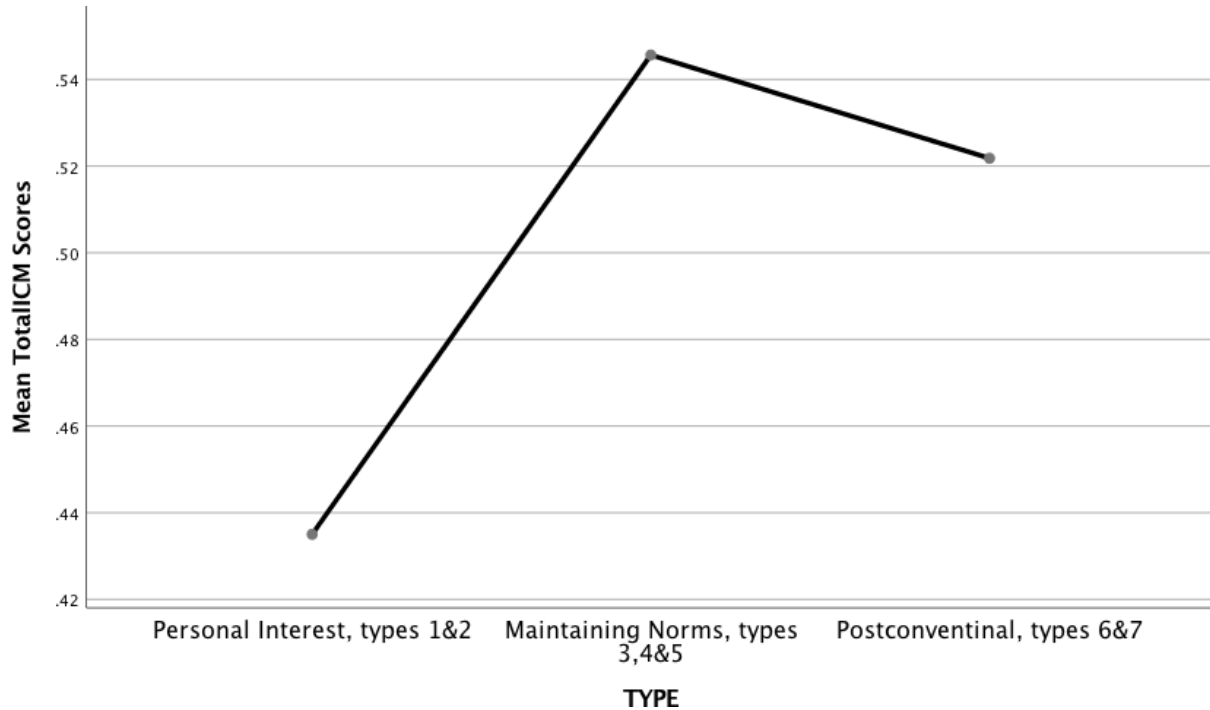


Figure 1. Participants Mean TotalICM Scores by Schema Type (PI, MN, P).

Given initial differences in TotalICM scores for schema type additional analysis on TICM subscales was conducted. Specifically, the analysis of the data used a two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA with *Goodbad* and *Actjust* as the within subjects factors and student schema group (PI, MN, and PC) as the between subjects factor. The repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference in participants good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications mean scores,  $F(1, 206) = 36.54, p = .000; \eta^2 = .15$  (See Figure 2). All three groups were better at identifying both good and bad action choices versus good and bad justifications, according to the results of a repeated measures ANOVA,  $F(1, 206) = 26.36, p = .000; \eta^2 = .11$ . (See Figure 3) The repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a significant *Goodbad x Schema* interaction  $F(2, 206) = 7.20, p = .001; \eta^2 = .065$ . (see Figures 4,5, and 6) There was also a significant *Goodbad x Actjust* interaction  $F(1, 206) = 113.70, p = .000; \eta^2 = .356$ .

Table 6

*Descriptive Statistics for Goodbad and Actjust by Schema Type*

	Personal Interest		Maintaining Norms		Postconventional	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average of best action choices	.44	.25	.54	.20	.51	.23
Average of best justifications	.53	.22	.59	.20	.56	.26
Average of worst action	.44	.35	.65	.25	.58	.31
Average of worst justifications	.24	.32	.37	.27	.41	.30

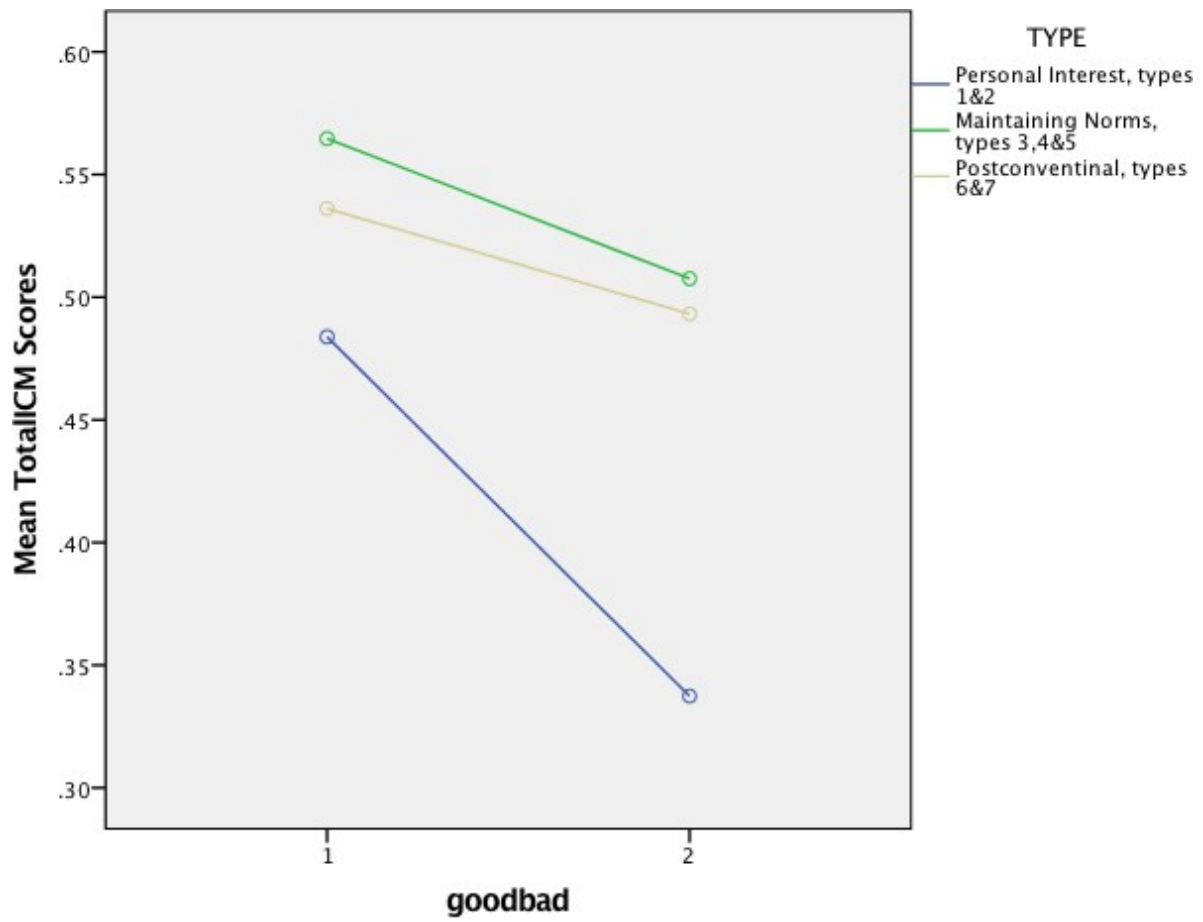


Figure 2. Difference in Goodbad Mean Scores by Schema Type.

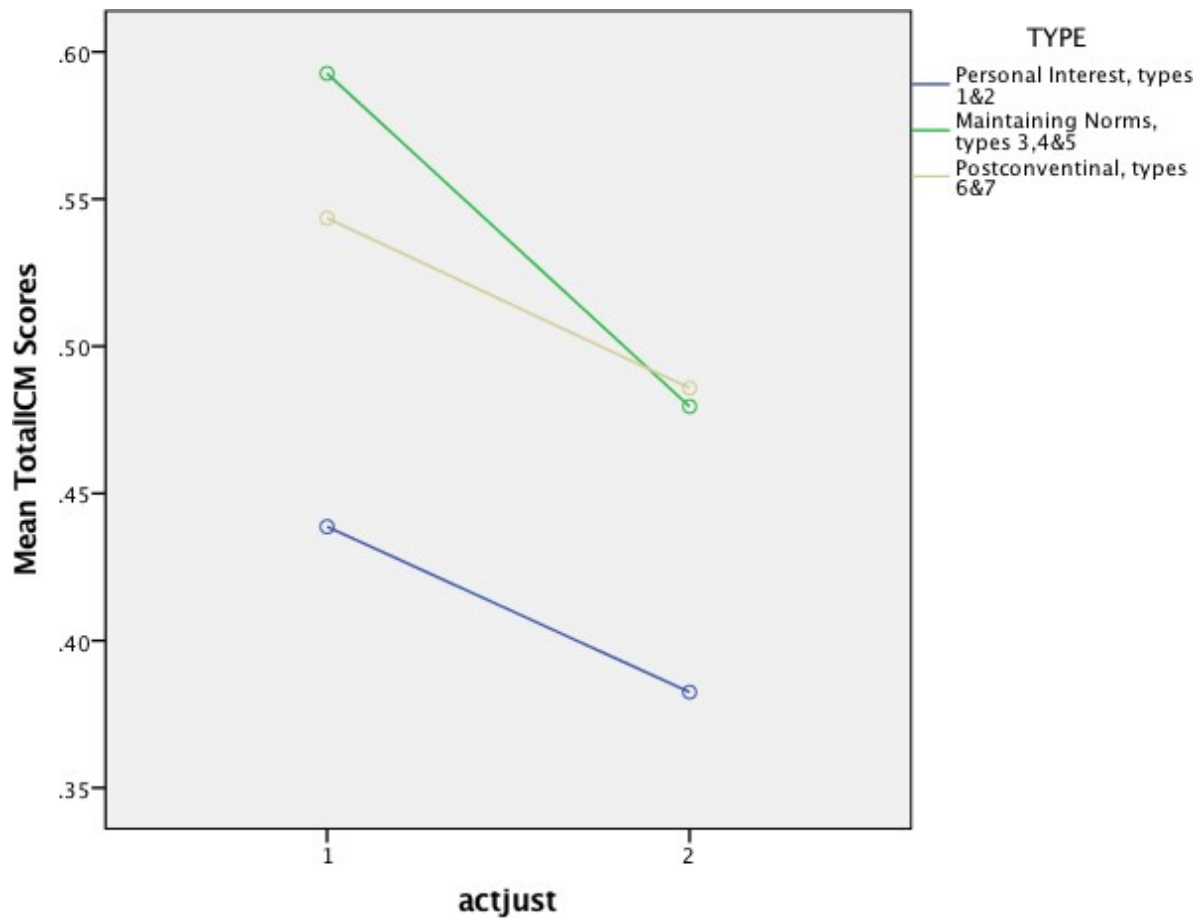


Figure 3. Difference in *Actjust* Mean Scores by Schema Type.

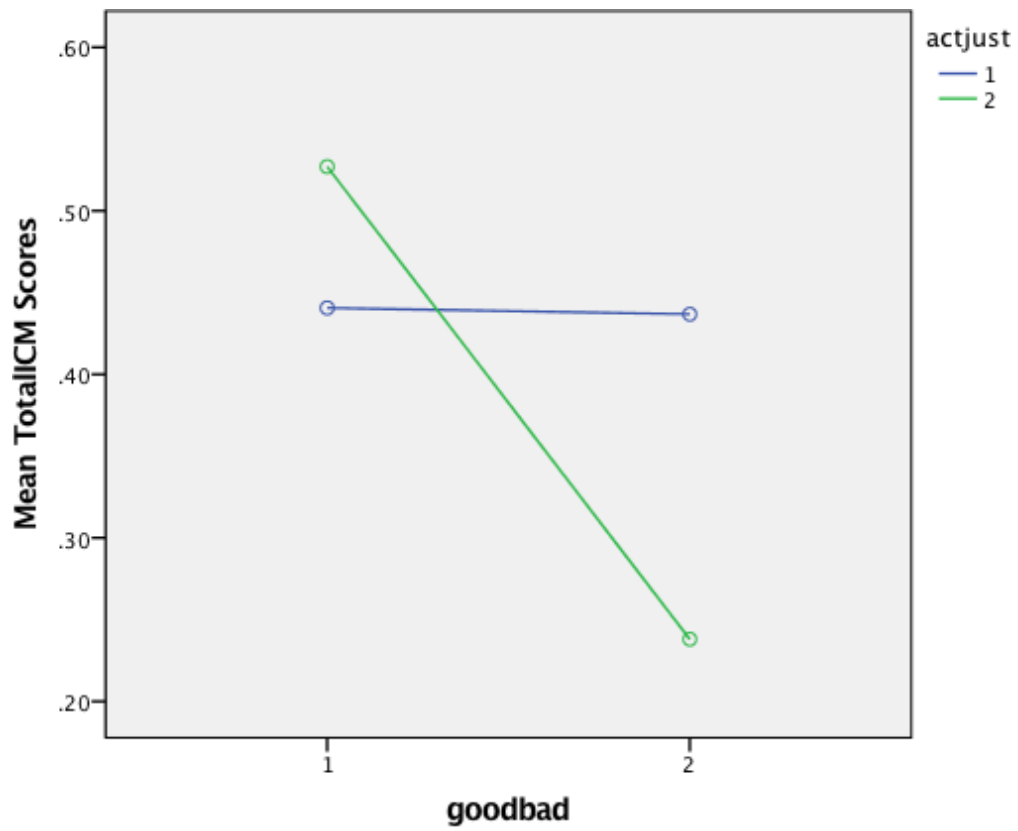


Figure 4. Interaction between *Goodbad* x *Actjust* for PI Schema.

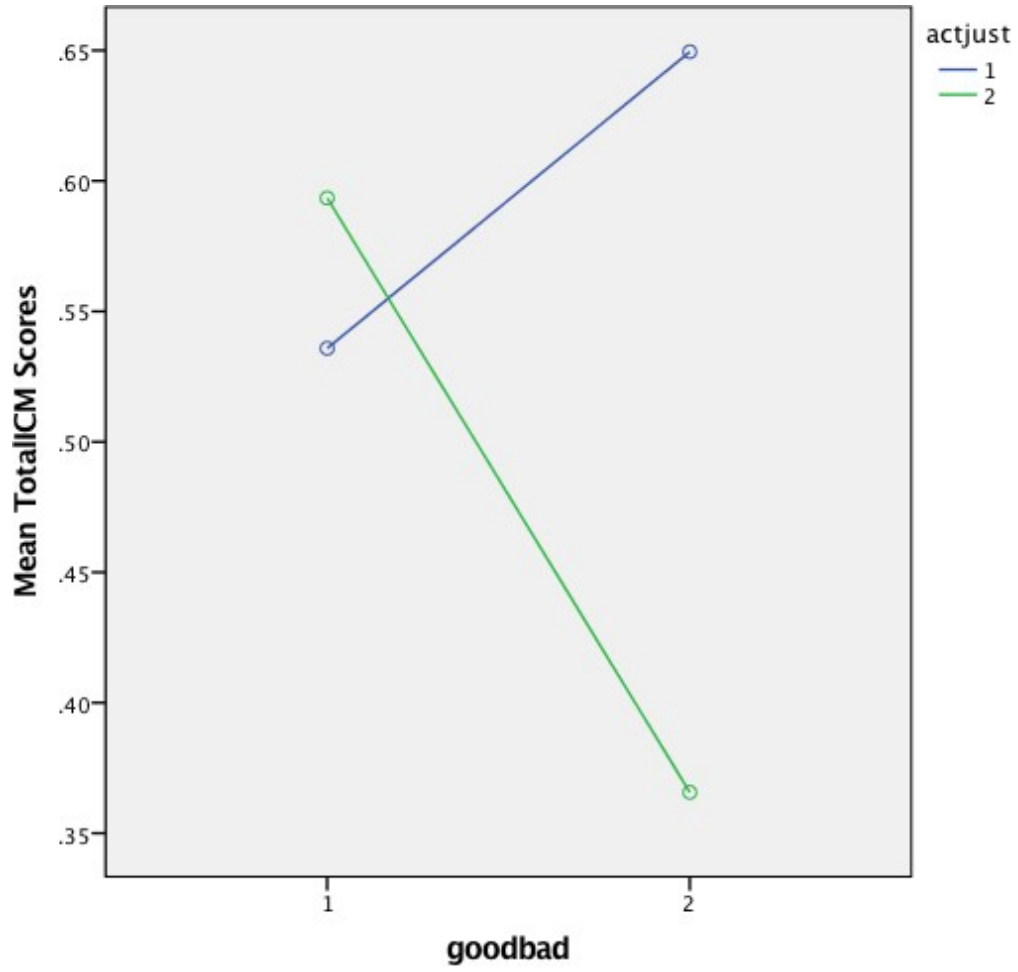


Figure 5. Interaction between *Goodbad* x *Actjust* for MN Schema.



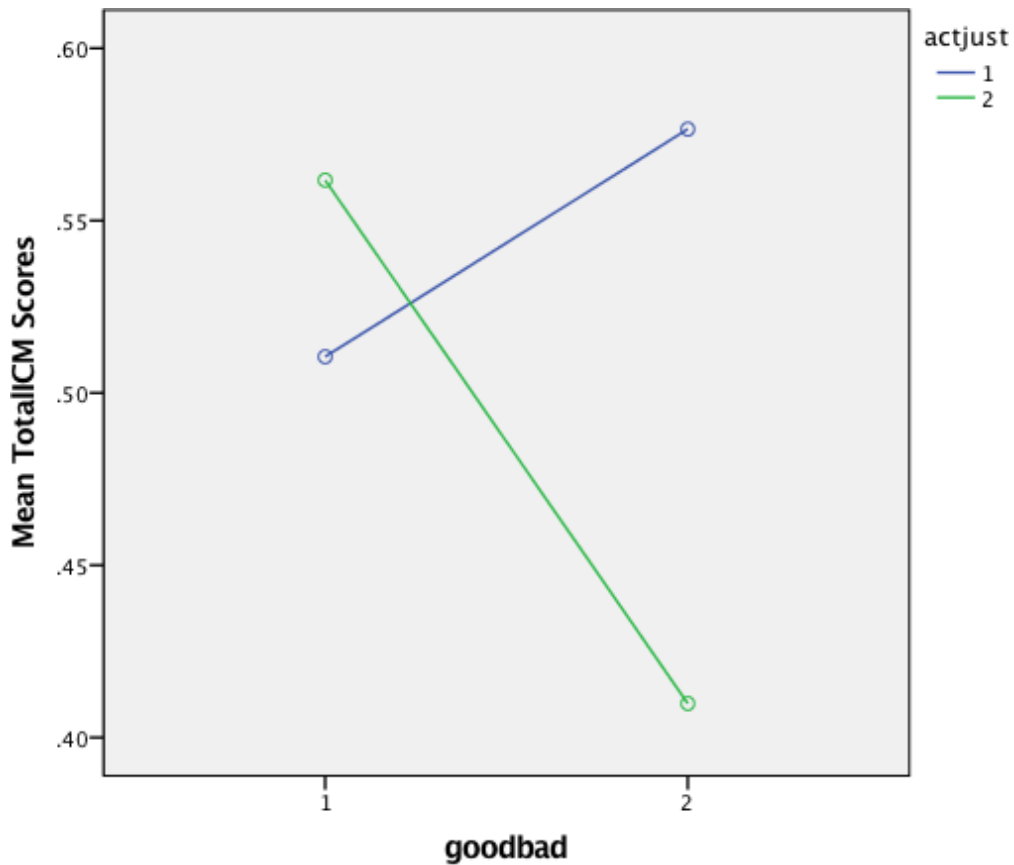


Figure 6. Interaction between *Goodbad* x *Actjust* for PC Schema.

**Summary.** The analysis on TotalICM scores indicated that there were significant differences for schema type and 6% of all variance in TotalICM scores is attributable to students' schema type. Students emphasizing the personal interest schema had lower TotalICM scores than those emphasizing the maintaining norms and postconventional schemas. Results indicate that all three groups (those emphasizing PI, MN, and PC) are better at identifying good action choices and justifications than bad action choices and justifications (a 15% difference in the mean scores) and all three groups are better at identifying action choices than justifications (an 11% difference in the mean scores). There is a significant interaction between identifying good and bad action

choices and justifications and modal schema type, with students emphasizing personal interest schema having difficulty identifying the bad action choices and justifications. Also there is a significant interaction between good action choices and justification versus bad action choices (*Goodbad*) and justifications and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*) (there is no interaction by modal schema type). Students emphasizing personal interest schema are also at a disadvantage identifying justifications compared to action choices.

### **3. Is the TICM sensitive to students with different levels of teaching experience?**

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the mean differences in TotalICM scores for students with teaching experience and those without teaching experience. The dependent variable was the TotalICM score and the between-subjects factor was preservice (no teaching experience) versus service (teaching experience). Additional analyses on the subscale level was conducted using a two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA with good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*) as the within subjects factors and teaching experience (preservice/service teachers) as the between subjects factor.

The analysis on TotalICM scores indicated no significant interaction effect between teaching experience and TotalICM scores,  $F(1, 210) = .705, p = .402; \eta^2 = .003$ , for preservice teachers ( $M = .48, SD = .22$ ) and service teachers ( $M = .51, SD = .19$ ). Similarly, results from the two between (*Goodbad, Actjust*) and one within (preservice/service) repeated measures indicated no significant interaction between group differences in teaching experience and (*Goodbad*),  $F(1, 210) = .84, p = .360; \eta^2 = .00$ . There was also no significant interaction between group differences in teaching experience and (*Actjust*),  $F(1, 210) = .06, p = .803; \eta^2 = .00$ .

Table 7

*Descriptive Statistics for Goodbad and Actjust by Teaching Experience*

	Preservice		Service	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average of best action choices	.47	.24	.52	.23
Average of best justifications	.55	.24	.57	.19
Average of worst action choices	.51	.34	.58	.31
Average of worst justifications	.31	.31	.30	.30

**Summary.** There was no significant difference in TotalICM scores for preservice and service teachers. However, service teachers had higher TotalICM scores than preservice teachers. There was no significant interaction between teaching experience and the TICM subscales *Goodbad* and *Actjust*, meaning that students with different teaching experience did not perform differently on the TICM subscales.

#### **4. Do students who have training in professional ethics in the teaching profession differ on the TICM?**

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the mean differences in TotalICM scores for participants that received ethics instruction related to the teaching profession, participants that received ethics instruction unrelated to the teaching profession, and participants that received no ethics instruction at all. The dependent variable was the TotalICM score and the between-subjects factor was ethics instruction. Additional analyses at the subscale level was

conducted using two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA with good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*) as the within subject factors and ethics instruction (students that received ethics instruction related to the teaching profession, students that received ethics instruction unrelated to the teaching profession, and students that received no ethics instruction) as the between subjects factor.

The analysis on TotalICM scores indicated no significant differences in mean TotalICM scores,  $F(2, 205) = 2.28, p = .105; \eta^2 = .022$ , for students that received ethics instruction related to the teaching profession ( $M = .46, SD = .22$ ), for students that received ethics instruction unrelated to the teaching profession ( $M = .54, SD = .18$ ), and students that received no ethics instruction ( $M = .51, SD = .20$ ). Similarly, the two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA revealed no significant interaction between group differences in ethics instruction and *Goodbad*,  $F(2, 205) = .20, p = .817; \eta^2 = .00$ . There was also no significant interaction between group differences in ethics instruction and *Actjust*,  $F(2, 205) = 2.41, p = .093; \eta^2 = .02$ .

Table 8

*Descriptive Statistics for Goodbad and Actjust by Ethics Instruction*

	Teaching Ethics		Unrelated Ethics		No Ethics	
	Instruction		Instruction		Instruction	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average of best action choices	.46	.24	.53	.23	.50	.23
Average of best justifications	.53	.24	.61	.21	.57	.20
Average of worst action	.50	.36	.58	.28	.56	.29
Average of worst justifications	.27	.33	.39	.21	.36	.29

**Summary.** There was no significant difference in TotalICM scores for students with ethics instruction related to teaching, students with ethics instruction unrelated to teaching and students with no ethics instruction at all. Students with ethics instruction unrelated to teaching had better TICM scores than students with ethics instruction related to teaching and students who had no ethics instruction. Students with ethics instruction related to teaching had the lowest of the three groups. There was no significant interaction between group differences in ethics instruction and the TICM subscales *Goodbad* and *Actjust*, meaning that students' with varying ethics instruction did not perform differently on the TICM subscales.

### 5. Do demographic categories relate to TICM score differences?

There was not a statistically significant effect of gender (female,  $M = .49$ ,  $SD = .22$ ; male,  $M = .47$ ,  $SD = .21$ ) on TotalICM scores as determined by a one-way Anova,  $F(1, 210) = .223$ ,  $p =$

.637. Additional analyses on the subscale level was conducted using a two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA with good action choices and justifications versus bad action choices and justifications (*Goodbad*) and action choices versus justifications (*Actjust*) as the within subjects factors and gender as the between subjects factor. The repeated measures ANOVA revealed no significant interaction between gender and *Goodbad*,  $F(1, 210) = 2.07, p = .15; \eta^2 = .01$  There was also no significant interaction between gender and *Actjust*,  $F(1, 210) = .01, p = .91; \eta^2 = .00$ . There was not a significant effect of ethnicity on TotalICM scores,  $F(4, 207) = 1.60, p = .175$  (See Table 4 for descriptive statistics). Additional analyses on the subscale level was conducted using a two within and one between repeated measures ANOVA with *Goodbad* and *Actjust* as the within subjects factors and ethnicity as the between subjects factor. The 2x1 repeated measures ANOVA revealed no significant interaction between ethnicity and *Goodbad*,  $F(4, 207) = .79, p = .531; \eta^2 = .02$ . There was also no significant interaction between gender and *Actjust*,  $F(4, 207) = 1.98, p = .10; \eta^2 = .04$ .

Table 9

*Descriptive Statistics for Goodbad and Actjust by Gender*

	Female		Male	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average of best action choices	.48	.25	.47	.20
Average of best justifications	.55	.22	.56	.34
Average of worst action choices	.53	.34	.49	.32
Average of worst justifications	.32	.32	.27	.28

Table 10

*Descriptive Statistics for Goodbad and Actjust by Ethnicity*

	African American/ Black		Asian/Pacific Islander		Hispanic		Caucasian		Other	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average of best action choices	.44	.28	.53	.16	.35	.33	.49	.23	.61	.10
Average of best justifications	.49	.17	.38	.06	.48	.31	.55	.22	.94	.03
Average of worst action choices	.51	.32	.83	.08	.39	.22	.52	.37	.81	.18
Average of worst justifications	.18	.23	.31	.12	.30	.42	.32	.31	.46	.06

**Summary.** Gender was not significantly related to TotalICM scores. This is in contrast to results found with the AD-icm where there were significant gender differences (Thoma, Derryberry & Crowson, 2013). However, Females had higher TICM scores than males. There was no significant interaction between gender and the TICM subscales *Goodbad* and *Actjust*, i.e students' gender did not impact their ability to identify good action choices and justification compared to bad action choices and justifications or their ability to identify action choices compared to justifications. Statistical analysis revealed that ethnicity was not significantly

associated with TotalICM scores. There was no significant interaction between ethnicity and the TICM subscales *Goodbad* and *Actjust*, i.e. i.e students' ethnicity did not impact their ability to identify good action choices and justification compared to bad action choices and justifications or their ability to identify action choices compared to justifications. This result is consistent with analyses of race and Ad-ICM scores (Thoma et al., 2013)



## DISCUSSION

This chapter will discuss the findings presented in Chapter Four and directions for future research. Additionally, implications for teacher education programs will be discussed. The purpose of this study was to develop and test a prototype teaching intermediate concept measure (TICM). First the psychometric properties of the prototype TICM will be discussed. Then, the construct validity will be examined by looking at correlation with the TICM and an established measure of moral reasoning, group differences on the TICM and performance on the subscales of the new measure will also be examined. All participants had difficulty identifying justifications compared to action choices. This points to the need for a broader and multifaceted ethics curriculum that includes instruction on how to distinguish between good and bad action choices and justifications. Results of this study indicate that the TICM is a promising outcome measure of the ethics curriculum in teacher education programs.

This study provides empirical support for the theoretical claim that IC's give greater insight into moral reasoning within professional and social contexts than traditional measures like the DIT (Rest & Narveaz, 1994). Recently, the IC measurement system has been applied to army leadership, the field of pharmacy and adolescent populations (Turner, 2008; Thoma et al., 2013; Roche et al., 2014) the success of TICM proves that the ICM's are easily translated to other professional settings. The TICM comes along with the AD-icm to rebut the criticism that IC's cover only broad-based moral reasoning (Walker, 2002); it is more accurate to characterize IC's as nested in salient and well-established moral considerations. The measure supports the

utility of the protocol used to develop the dental ICM and AD-icm; cementing the blueprint for development of future IC measures.

### **Psychometric Properties**

The psychometric properties of the TICM are similar to those demonstrated by the AD-icm (AD-icm summary score  $\alpha = .85$ ) (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). This is a promising indication that the TICM is a viable measure and therefore may be more sensitive to moral reasoning in the field of teaching than traditional measures like the DIT.

### **Criterion Validity**

Criterion validity was demonstrated by the finding that the TICM summary score (TotalICM) was significantly related to the DIT-2 specifically the overall index of moral judgment, the N2 score. This finding supports the assertion that both measures assess moral domain and that the TICM is not measuring the general teacher education curriculum. Exploring the relationship with the TICM and the DIT revealed some noteworthy trends. Interestingly, movement on the TICM was associated with the participants schema score as measured by the DIT. Students emphasizing the personal interest schema had the worst performance on the TICM when compared to those emphasizing maintaining norms and postconventional schemas. These students were challenged when identifying bad action choices and justifications. Similar trends were found with the adolescent-icm and dental ICM where students placed on in-school detention and novice dental students had challenges identifying bad choices and justifications, respectively (Thoma et al., 2013). Finding that students emphasizing the personal interest schema are at a disadvantage in understanding IC's as experts would supports the view that when an individual lacks a society-wide conceptualization of fairness and justice they do not think

about intermediate concepts in the same way that experts in the field of teaching do. As was described in the literature review, those emphasizing the personal interest schema prioritize the self and attend to gains and losses at the individual level, therefore their orientation to the moral elements in social situations is a liability in understanding IC's as defined by experts. These individuals do not prioritize social norms in their moral reasoning and lack system-wide considerations of cooperation that get to the heart of how IC's are expertly understood (Thoma, 2014).

This relationship between the TICM and the DIT could be interpreted as the prototype measure merely capturing the transition from personal interest to conventional and postconventional thinking. This is a reasonable interpretation of the findings as college is a time when the transition to a system-wide view of morality is developmentally appropriate, therefore the measure may be tapping into this transition (Rest & Thoma, 1985; King & Mayhew, 2002; Rest et al., 1986). Rest and Thoma (1985) mapped the moral development of individuals from high school to 6 years after high school, comparing those that attended college for more than 3 years to those who did not. They found that college attendance was associated with significant gains in postconventional thinking (P scores). Thus, data that indicates that the TICM is sensitive to the transition to postconventional thinking that is occurs during college is not a limitation of the prototype measure but an expected finding.

### **Group Differences: Teaching Experience**

When preservice teachers were compared to service teachers there was no significant difference in their performance on the TICM. Interestingly, service teachers had higher mean TICM scores than preservice teachers. This may be an indication that service teachers would have statistically significant higher TICM scores if the percentage of service teachers in the

sample was greater. Further research with a more representative sample of service teachers is needed to investigate if the TICM is sensitive to differences in years of teaching experience.

A second explanation of this finding is that the lack of explicit ethic instruction in teacher education continues through to professional development (Maxwell et al., 2016). Glanzer and Ream (2007) state that the teaching has “missed out on the ethics boom” that took place in other professions such as medicine, dentistry and engineering with between one third to one half of other professional programs having a mandatory ethics course but only 6% of teacher education programs including a mandatory course. This is problematic because such courses support deeper understanding of ethical norms and provide the space for teacher candidates to test their reasoning, provide justifications and address misconceptions about moral behavior before entering practice. Maxwell et al., (2016) suggest that the 6% reported by Glanzer and Ream is an ambitious figure and that number of teacher education programs with mandatory ethics course is actually less than 6%. For them this figure represents a lack of commitment to ethics education in teacher education that stifles the ethical development of preservice teachers as professionals. Thus, this finding may be a reflection that the moral vacuum in the teaching profession that has resulted in teacher practitioners that do not have the training to assess IC’s as experts would. At best, it points to a need for professional development and continued training on ethical concepts that has been scantily addressed in the moral curriculum in teacher education.

### **Group Differences: Training in Professional Ethics**

When students that received ethics instruction related to teaching, students that received ethics instruction unrelated to teaching and those that experienced no ethics instruction were compared there were no significant difference between the three groups on the TICM summary score. These results are unlike those found with the dental ICM and AD-icm. In dentistry the

ICM discriminated among groups with varying levels of dental ethics interest (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). The AD-icm was sensitive to groups who had different acting out behavior, with students placed on in-school suspension having significantly lower scores (Thoma et al., 2013).

An explanation for these results is that ethics instruction focuses primarily on codes of conduct in the teacher education program, which does not support an understanding of intermediate concepts as assessed by the TICM. The focus on knowledge of codes of conduct or developmental or/and educational psychology courses that cover moral judgment development is a common response of teacher education programs to accreditation standards (Glanzer & Ream, 2007; Maxwell et al., 2016). Mere knowledge of the codes typically does not get to intent, reasoning behind each code and what is the best and worst action choice within a specific context. Therefore it is reasonable to conclude that this type of instruction does not adequately prepare preservice teachers to reason about IC's as assessed by the TICM which requires test-takers to rate and rank the best and worst action choices and justifications. An interpretive analysis of codes of ethics of 13 administrative jurisdictions in Canada concluded that, "instruction based too faithfully on the local code of ethics risks presenting future teachers with a highly partial depiction of teacher deontology" (Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016, p.478). Scholars also argue that using codes of conduct as the foundation of professional ethics instruction in teacher education is insufficient (Boon, 2011; Campbell, 2008; Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016; Strike, 1989). The codes of conduct serve as a guide for ethical conduct but do not present real cases or articulate the ethical course of action and the justifications behind the moral choice. Therefore, knowledge of the codes fails to give teacher candidates the ability to reflect on the moral dimensions of their field in a meaningful way. Instead what is needed is discipline-specific ethics instruction to

tackle concepts that have been adjudicated in the field in the form of case study discussion (Strike, 1989).

Closer examination of the syllabi of education courses where participants were recruited from in the study revealed a focus on professional codes of conduct. In “Edu 200: Orientation to Teacher Education” which serves as the first checkpoint in meeting state standard of ethics in the teacher education program, students are given a copy of the Alabama code of ethics and assessed on knowledge of the code through “online discussions on ethics and professionalism in education”. The instructor of Edu 200 revealed that students viewed videos of ethical case studies, however the codes of conduct were used as a guide in the decision-making process. In “School, Culture, Society” Alabama Quality Teaching Standard (AQTs) pertaining to “knowledge of appropriate professional behavior and dispositions expected of professionals as outlined in the Alabama Educator Code of Ethics” was addressed by presenting students with a copy of the code of ethics and discussing what they mean. In BEF 305: Introduction to Educational Psychology ethics instruction focused on moral and prosocial development with no emphasis on ethics in teaching. What the Alabama Educator Codes of Ethics does is to present standards that are broadly defined, give no context or present educators with credible examples of ethical issues that they are likely to face in their careers (see Appendix D). These broad-based standards were the primary materials students were provided with to identify an appropriate moral position. Absent from all courses were dilemma discussions, social role-taking and guided reflection that is associated with advanced moral reasoning (Cummings, Harlow & Maddux 2007; Hurt & Sprinthall, 1977; Reiman & Peace 2002).

Taken together, non-significant group findings underscore the need for explicit instruction in teacher education programs on intermediate concepts and the associated principles.

These findings add to the literature that argue that knowledge of codes of conduct do not promote deeper understanding of complex and nuanced ethical dilemma in the context of teaching. Moral instruction ought to highlight what is appropriate and inappropriate behavior in ethical dilemmas and develop the ability to distinguish between the two, in order to facilitate preservice teachers matching expert opinion on ethical action. Targeted instruction on concepts that are central to the field along with knowledge of codes of conduct and will better prepare preservice teachers to make sound ethical decisions in clearly defined situations that codes cover and nuanced ethical dilemmas found in the TICM (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999).

A moral curriculum that centers on IC's and assesses whether students are making sound moral judgments addresses concerns raised by scholars and practitioners about an absence of norms that ought to serve as the ethical base for professionalism in teaching (Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016). The TICM provides a vision about what are the core concepts and norms that teachers will grapple with in the profession. Expert consensus on appropriate and inappropriate behavior constitutes a consensus on the regarding ethical practice. The TICM provides a clear picture of the types of ethical issues that are contextual and relevant to teaching. The measure is also theory driven. Rest's conceptualization of moral reasoning provides an overarching theoretical framework that can direct moral instruction in teacher education programs. The FCM provides a clear guide on the competencies that need to be developed in preservice teachers: moral sensitivity, moral reasoning, moral motivation and moral implementation.

## **Differences in Good versus Bad Scores**

It is promising that the TICM is performing like other ICM's approaches with all participants having difficulty identifying bad choices and justifications. The same pattern was observed with participants using the AD-icm (Thoma et al., 2013) and dentistry students using the dentistry ICM (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Difficulty identifying bad action choices and justifications may be a result of the deficient ethics curriculum in teacher education programs and socialization in the field that focuses mostly on the appropriate and good thing to do. Therefore, students are left to infer what would be the inappropriate action choice and justification when presented with an ethical dilemma. Another way that the TICM is similar to other ICM's is that individuals with lower levels of moral judgment reasoning having difficulty identifying bad action choices and justifications compared to good action choices and justifications. As previously discussed, the personal interest orientation handicaps understanding IC's as defined by experts. With the adolescent icm and dental ICM younger adolescents and novice dental students (personal interest reasoning occurs with some frequency within these populations) experienced challenges identifying bad action choices and justifications. Finding that the personal interest schema is a liability in determining the acceptable moral choice and justification implies that one goal to the ethics curriculum in teacher education should be to reduce personal interest reasoning (Thoma et al., 2008). Overall, difficulty identifying bad action choices and justifications has implications for what should be attended to in teacher education programs; the ethics curriculum should not only address good action choices and justifications but should focus on identifying and distinguishing between good and bad action choices and the justifications. Finding these holes in preservice teachers' ethical thinking presents a compelling



picture of the ethical content that should be included in the moral curriculum (Schwimmer, 2016; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013).

## **Gender**

With respect to gender, there were no significant differences on the TICM. This is surprising as a large gender difference was found with the AD-icm (Thom et al., 2013). This finding may be because during the development of the measure the researcher was careful to get equal input from both male and female teachers and experts in order to ensure that stories, action choices and justification did not appeal to any particular gender. Therefore, women were not at an advantage when reasoning about the concepts embedded in each story. There have been longstanding claims that moral judgment theories are gender biased and based on gender differences (Gilligan, 1977). In response to these criticisms special attention has been paid to gender parity in the development of other ICM approaches. These efforts do not remove the possibility that gender differences exist on measures of moral judgment reasoning as was seen with the AD- icm but they may reduce any advantage that may lead to women having better scores on measures of moral reasoning judgment (Thoma, 1986; Walker, 2006).

Another explanation for the absence of clear gender differences on the TICM is that male and female teacher educator students reason about and interpret intermediate concepts in similar ways. There is a common belief that teaching is synonymous with mothering and based on a pedagogy of love that men are incapable of. Beginning in the 1960's there was an uptick in scholarship that explored the feminization of the teaching profession and why teaching was seen as "women's work" (Seifert, 1988). Gendered perceptions of the profession resulted in men avoiding the profession and poor attempts to recruit more men to the field. However, research as debunked the myth of the "motherteacher" (Sugg, 1978). Fagot (1981) found that inexperienced

teachers of both sexes engaged male students in masculine-preferred activities and female students in feminine-preferred activities. More recently, van Polanen et al. (2017) reported that male and female professional caregivers expressed similar levels of sensitivity, attention and stimulation to both male and female students. Similarly, research in nursing, another predominantly female profession, male nursing students like their female counterparts stated “wanting to care for others” as a main motivation for entering the profession and showed similar levels of empathy during their clinical practicum (Meadus & Twomey, 2011). Thus, it is not farfetched that male education students would make judgments at the intermediate concept level that are similar to their female counterparts. This is a plausible reason for the unexpected findings with respect to gender.

### **Limitations**

The study is not without its limitations. During the development phase of the study, the researcher met with teachers from a single high school in the southeastern United States, teaching experience ranged from 2 to 37 years and teachers taught wide number of subjects but mainly at the high school level for the majority of their careers. This restricts how representative the stories (that were based on these teachers’ experiences) are to the wider population, i.e. to elementary and middle school teachers even though not all the stories are set in high school. This limitation points to the TICM being a measure of moral reasoning with an emphasis on the high school context and not as clear an assessment of IC’s at the elementary and middle school level. However, having professionals or adolescents from one institution is not uncommon in the development of ICM’s (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013).

Participants who completed the prototype TICM were college students from a large southeastern university and of this only 17% of the sample were in service teachers, this restricts

how representative the sample is to the wider population. Since the participant pool was skewed towards preservice teachers at this stage of validity testing, the TICM could be limited to an outcome measure among teacher candidates and not service teachers. Further testing with a sample that includes a larger percentage of service teachers will give better insight into whether the TICM is able to uncover the ways preservice teachers compared to service teachers reason about IC's.

The non-significant findings among groups may be an indication that the TICM is not highly sensitive to group differences and that the measure could benefit from additional cycles in the developmental process to refine the action choices and justifications items that are yoked to each story. In terms of developing action choices and justifications items Thoma and colleagues (2013) report achieving 75% inter-rater agreement among experts to reliably rate the items in one of three categories (i.e. acceptable, unacceptable and neutral). However, in his review of the process for developing items for the recent ICM approaches, Thoma (2014) reported that an 80% inter-rater agreement was the benchmark used. This study used a 75% inter-rater agreement as a benchmark for reliability rating among experts, given the complexity and nuance of the stories and items yoked to each story an 80% reliability benchmark may be more prudent.

### **Future Directions and Implications**

First, a similar study could be conducted with more attention being paid to having a more representative sample of service teachers. Additionally, there would be utility in speaking to practitioners at the elementary and middle school level in another state or school district to identify if there are other core concepts not represented in the TICM. However, the concepts of promotion and retention, grade assignment, zero tolerance policies that are embedded in the stories in the TICM are also found in recent research in ethical dilemmas in education (Levinson

& Fay, 2016). Analysis of 223 teacher-generated ethical stories revealed five underlying ethical values: protection against physical and mental harm, respect for integrity, respect for autonomy, fairness and veracity (Colnerud, 1997). More recently, Shapira-Lishchinsky (2010) reviewed 50 incidents and found 5 categories that characterized the ethical norms the stories: caring climate versus formal climate, distributive justice versus school standards, confidentiality versus school norms, loyalty to colleagues versus school norms and family agenda versus educational standards. The norms in these studies are also represented in the TICM. This suggests that the IC's in the TICM are relevant and resonate to the field. Further, it would be interesting to see how the measure would perform at another teacher education program. Would results be similar if the teacher education program had explicit moral instruction that did not focus on codes of conduct or had at least one mandatory ethics-related course?

In addition to its use as an outcome measure, the TICM has the potential to be used as a moral education intervention in teacher education programs. Intervention studies have found that dilemma discussion, instruction on moral development theory and social role taking with guided reflection is associated with significant gains in moral reasoning of education students (Cummings, Harlow & Maddux 2007; Hurt & Sprinthall, 1977; Reiman & Peace 2002). To test these findings students will be presented with the stories in the TICM and asked to find the ethical concepts embedded in each story. Next students will be asked to rate and rank justification options. If students fail to match options with expert opinion they will receive a review session on moral theory. The final phase of the intervention will involve a group problem-solving task to find the most preferred course of action. Achieving group consensus provides each student with continuous peer feedback as they debate and negotiate their way to a unanimous decision. The goal is to give preservice teachers active practice in identifying good

and bad action choices and justification and provide a space to reflect on intermediate concepts that are central to the field, which may facilitate correcting of deficiencies in moral reasoning and help them develop strategies to make sound moral judgments. The TICM can be used to bridge the gap between educational philosophy theory and specific prescriptions in teaching. The measure could also be used in conjunction with service work to promote moral development growth in student teachers (Campbell, 2008).

The dental and adolescent ICM were sensitive to deliberate attempts to stimulate moral development through educational interventions (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2013). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the TICM could capture moral reasoning growth after students have experienced targeted moral reasoning intervention. Another study testing this assumption with education students who are in a teaching practicum and/or a semester long service project can provide data that the TICM is sensitive to moral reasoning intervention. Research of this nature is not only needed to investigate the moral development of preservice teachers but to also examine the variables associated with an understanding of intermediate concepts. Longitudinal research is still needed to answer Walker's (2002) question about the developmental patterns of intermediate-level concepts, how they are acquired and their relationship to other aspects moral judgment development.

## **Conclusions**

With traditional measures of moral judgment reasoning, a researcher would often have to prove how the ability to reason well about an abstract, context free ethical dilemma matters in the professional context. That is not the case with the TICM. The measure has the benefit of being contextually relevant because the stories emerged from practitioners and experts who have teaching experience and have produced extensive scholarship on ethics in the profession. The

measure is also so theoretically grounded. The study adds to the existing literature that supports intermediate concepts filling the gap between abstract moral schemas and codes of ethics and get to the heart of moral reasoning in professional contexts (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999, Thoma et al., 2013). As with other ICM approaches, there is particular interest by practitioners in ICM's because of their utility in ethics interventions. By offering relevant and realistic cases with corresponding action choices and justifications, the TICM can easily be used as intervention resource in teacher education and professional development programs. The measure has the flexibility of being an outcome measure and an intervention tool that can be used in dilemma discussion to advance moral reasoning; it can be adapted and used in face-to-face, online and hybrid classes to raise the moral consciousness of preservice and service teachers (Roche et al., 2014).

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## **APPENDICES**

### **Teaching Intermediate Concept Measure (TICM)**

This questionnaire is concerned with how you define the issues in the teaching profession. Several stories about issues in teaching will be described. After each story, there will be a list of questions. The questions that follow each story represent different issues that might be raised by the problem. In other words, the questions/issues raise different ways of judging what is important in making a decision about the social problem. You will be asked to rate and rank the questions in terms of how important each one seems to you.

#### **Mr. Toland**

Mr. Toland is a social studies teacher at a high school. One Wednesday at the end of the school day he is driving off campus when he sees a group of students hanging out waiting to be picked-up by parents. This is not unusual as some students carpool together to and from school. An unusual sound comes from the group so he slows his car to take a closer look at the students. He then notices that a female student, Rachel has a stun gun that she is waving at the other students. Mr. Toland immediately turns his car around in order to speak to Rachel as the school has a strict no tolerance policy for weapons on campus. Rachel tells him that her mother gave her the stun gun as protection because she has to walk through an unsafe part of town to get home. Mr. Toland knows Rachel, she a good student and has never had any behavioral problems that he is aware of. He knows that Rachel lives in a sketchy part of town. He is torn on whether or not to report her for this infraction, as it will likely mean a suspension or even an expulsion. This type of infraction would also trigger the police being notified, that could hurt Rachel's chances of getting into a good college and even change the trajectory of her academic career.

Please think about these 8 choices that Mr. Toland might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an “X” for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
1. He could take the gun from Rachel and report the violation to the police.					

2.He could take the gun from Rachel and report the violation to school administration.					
3. He could take the gun from Rachel and call her mother and explain the situation to her.					
4. He could take the gun from Rachel and explain to her that he has to do this if he is not going to report her to the authorities.					
5. He could tell Rachel that she has broken school rules and that he will not tell the authorities if she promises not to bring out the gun again.					
6. He tell her that she shouldn't be waving the gun around, keep it in her backpack and not take it away from her					
7. He could call her mom					



and have her take the gun and promise not to give it back to Rachel								
8. He could not confront Rachel and call the police and report the violation to the school administration								

Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8
Best Choice								
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best								
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best								

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8
Worst Choice								
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst								

Now please judge the following REASONS Mr. Toland might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. It would protect Rachel					

from getting into trouble that could result in her suspension or expulsion.					
2. By taking the gun and explaining the situation of Rachel's behavior to her mother, she would have consequences at home.					
3. His decision would have taken into consideration the situation the fact that Rachel has to walk through an unsafe part of town to get home.					
4. There would be no consequences for her behavior.					
5. The other students would think it would be cool to bring a gun to school.					
6. The other students would not have much respect for Mr. Toland.					

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<p>6. The other students would not have much respect for Mr. Toland.</p> <p>7. The word would get around that Mr. Toland broke school rules.</p>					
<p>8. The consequences have the potential to have a negative long-term impact on Rachel's life.</p>					
<p>9. Rachel would understand that she has broken a school but not have to deal with the negative long-term impact.</p>					
<p>10. Mr. Toland would not have to deal with the unpleasantness of confronting Rachel but still enforce school rules.</p>					

Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Best Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best										
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best										

Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Worst Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst										

**Ms. Thompson**

Nolan has missed a month of school because of an illness. Prior to this extended illness Nolan frequently missed days of school and struggled to complete his homework. His teacher Ms. Thompson is unsure of how to handle the missed assignments and instruction because she does not feel that Nolan will be able to get caught up and that he and the rest of the class need to focus on the upcoming state testing. Ms. Thompson is also aware that support from the parents is unclear because Nolan does not have a great home life. His mother shared in the last parent-teacher meetings that she and Nolan’s dad were going through a divorce. Even before this month-long absence Ms. Thompson believed that Nolan is a likely candidate to repeat the 4th grade. Ms. Thompson decides to speak with Ms. Taylor the 4th grade head teacher. Ms. Taylor says, "I would give him a B for all the missed assignments and not have him have to make it up. Then I would just give him some extra attention to help him get ready for testing, maybe if he can do well on the tests he will be promoted to the 5th grade, then that teacher can deal with him". Ms. Thompson does not believe that Nolan is a “B” student.

Please think about these 9 choices that Ms. Thompson might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an “X” for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
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1. She can assign a high-achieving student to work with Nolan to help him catch up with his missed assignments.					
2. She can assign Nolan a "C" and not have him make up the missed assignments.					
3. She can assign Nolan a "B" and not have him make up the missed assignments.					
4. Have Nolan make up all the missed assignments on his own.					
5. She can choose the most important assignments and have Nolan make those up.					
6. She can consult the Principal on how to handle the situation.					
7. She can see how					

Nolan performs on the tests and then decide whether or not to nominate him to repeat the 4th grade.									
8. She should wait until the fourth grade teachers meeting and ask them what she should do.									
9. Ms. Thompson cannot have Nolan make up the missed assignment and nominate him to repeat the 4th grade.									

Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9
Best Choice									
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best									
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best									

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9
Worst Choice									
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst									

Now please judge the following REASONS Ms. Thompson might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. Both the high-achieving student and Nolan will benefit from the peer tutoring experience.					
2. Nolan will learn that he must expend some effort for a grade.					
3. Ms. Thompson will help Nolan and hold on to her principles as well.					
4. Nolan will learn that he cannot make a good grade without doing the work.					
5. It is not fair to the other students to assign Nolan a B grade when he did not complete the assigned work.					
6. Ms. Thompson					



will have gone against her principles that Nolan is not a B student.					
7. Nolan's test grade will give a better indication of whether or not he should be promoted or retained.					
8. Ms. Thompson must consider what is best for Nolan.					
9. Colleagues with more teaching experience will know what to do.					
10. Nolan is likely to repeat the 4th grade and will have a chance to do better then.					
11. The Principal makes the final decision regarding promoting or retaining students.					
12. The 5th grade teacher would have to deal with Nolan.					

Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11	Reason 12
Best Reason												
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best												
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best												

Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11	Reason 12
Worst Reason												
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst												

**Ms. Lawrence**

Ms. Lawrence is in her first year of teaching. She has two students that she considers “A” students turn in the same book project; this seems to be a case of blatant cheating. Ms. Lawrence contacts both sets of parents to meet about the breaking of the student code of conduct. One parent pleads with Ms. Lawrence to not enforce the rule regarding reporting the plagiarism because her son would now not get into the National Honor Society and therefore miss out on some college scholarships. The parent also stresses that her son is a good student and has never had a violation of the student code of conduct or the school’s honor code. The parent ends the conference with asking for Ms. Lawrence “to you cut him some slack, I am also a teacher and know not reporting this is up to you”. Ms. Lawrence then goes to the vice principal about the matter, who in turn tells her that it was up to her whether or not she officially reports the cheating. The school’s policy outlines that both students would get a zero on the project, they would be ineligible for the Honor Society and an honor code violation would be noted on their school record.

Please think about these 8 choices that Ms. Lawrence might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an “X” for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
1. Ms. Lawrence can tell the parents that there is a code of conduct and report the cheating violation.					
2. Ms. Lawrence can take the parents' advice and not report the violation.					
3. Ms. Lawrence can take the parent's advice on the condition that the students read another book and turn in a new project that she will grade and give them reduced credit for the work.					
4. Ms. Lawrence can have them turn in a new project and grade that work without reducing the grade.					
5. Ms. Lawrence can					

report the cheating but let the parents find out on their own.								
6. Ms. Lawrence can tell the parents that she will report the cheating and if they have further inquiries to go to the Principal.								
7. She can give both students a zero on the project but not report the violation.								
8. She can report the violation and have the students turn in a new project for a reduced grade.								

Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8
Best Choice								
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best								
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best								

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8
Worst Choice								
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst								

Now please judge the following REASONS Ms. Lawrence might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. It would be flagrant violation of the honor code.					
2. The parents and the students would be rewarded for getting away with violation of the honor code on the grounds that they are entitled for exceptions to be made for them because they are A students.					
3. It would be unfair to other students in the school.					
4. The word would get around that the honor code					

is meaningless.										
5. Reporting upholds the school's honor code.										
6. The students could stay in the Honor Society and their records would be clean.										
7. The Principal would then have to deal with the parents.										
8. The students would learn and the honor code would be upheld.										
9. He must do what is best for the students first.										
10. He does not want to upset the parents.										

Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Best Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best										

3 <sup>rd</sup> Best											
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Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Worst Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst										

### **Mr. Gordon**

Mr. Gordon has his students working on an English paper in Google classroom during class. He is able to monitor their progress and give comments that are saved so that each student is able to refer to this feedback when writing the final paper even when not in class. While doing this Mr. Gordon notices a few students copying and pasting from the Internet. This leads him to have a class discussion about plagiarism, what it is, why it is not allowed and how violations would be punished. Despite these efforts, he sees that Francesca's final paper has signs of plagiarism. When confronted with the copied work Francesca, an ESL student, seems genuinely confused about why her work contains plagiarism. Mr. Gordon believes Francesca because, while improving, her English is not strong and she may not have fully understood his discussion on plagiarism. She also asks not to be punished because her paper had not been given the level of review in Google Classroom that other students had received with only 1 saved comment in her draft of the paper. Mr. Gordon feels like Francesca is at a disadvantage because English is not her first language. She has been struggling in his class but recently seemed to turn a corner and her grades have improved from D's to C's and B's. Mr. Gordon worries that any punishment will set Francesca back.

Please think about these 9 choices that Mr. Gordon might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an "X" for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
1. Mr. Gordon could punish Francesca for plagiarism without regard for other					

circumstances related to her ESL status.					
2. Mr. Gordon could ignore Francesca's plagiarism and give her a grade based on the quality of the paper.					
3. He can give her a chance to redo the paper.					
4. He can give her another paper to do and grade that.					
5. He can give her another paper and give her a reduced grade.					
6. He can ask her to research and write a paper on plagiarism.					
7. He can review her past work for signs of plagiarism and grade the paper based on what he finds.					
8. He can give her articles on how to avoid plagiarism to read.					



9. Mr. Gordon can refer the matter to an administrator.					
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Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9
Best Choice									
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best									
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best									

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8
Worst Choice								
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst								

Now please judge the following REASONS Mr. Gordon might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. Francesca has been improving in class and punishing her for her lack of clear understanding about plagiarism could set her back.					
2. By clearly explaining the repercussions					

<p>of plagiarism and giving Francesca the chance to redo her paper, Mr. Gordon has treated Francesca fairly and taught her a valuable lesson about plagiarism.</p>					
<p>3. It is doubtful that Francesca will engage in plagiarism in the future</p>					
<p>4. Mr. Gordon would have shown a lack of understanding about Francesca’s English language limitations and her genuine confusion about the problem of plagiarism.</p>					
<p>5. Mr. Gordon would be bound by rules rather than making exceptions to the rules based on</p>					

individual student needs.					
6. Someone with more experience will know how to handle the situation.					
7. Francesca could learn on her own what plagiarism is and how to avoid it in the future.					
8. The rules are enforced and Francesca still has an opportunity to learn from the assignment.					
9. Francesca will not lose hope and not give up completely.					
10. Mr. Gordon will not have to feel badly about punishing Francesca.					

Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Best Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best										

3 <sup>rd</sup> Best											
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Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10
Worst Reason										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst										

**Ms. Carter**

Ms. Carter has a student in her class Mark that has an Individualized Education Program (IEP) that calls for him being able to listen to the audio version of each textbook and/or have large print texts, extended time on assignments, bookmarks or colored strips to follow along when reading and a separate room for testing. Mark also is required to cover less material than students without IEP's, for example 10 study words instead of 20 words. In addition to providing the accommodations and modifications outlined in his IEP Ms. Carter has extra one-on-one time with Mark in the after school care program and often gives examples of topic sentences for writing assignments. Ms. Carter does not have an aide assigned to her class and often feels that the extra time spent with Mark may be negatively impacting her other students. At the end of the semester Mark's mother emails her to say that she is disappointed that Mark has received a C in her class. His mother writes that Mark has been working hard and spends a lot of time in after care, has turned in all assignments and homework and therefore should be at least getting a B, if not an A.

Please think about these 9 choices that Ms. Carter might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an "X" for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
1. Ms. Carter can maintain the C because of the accommodations that she has made for Mark.					
2. Ms. Carter can change Mark's grade to B based					

on whether the accommodations have resulted in Mark learning as much as students who have not received accommodations.					
3. Ms. Carter can have a resource teacher review Mark's work and provide a grade.					
4. Ms. Carter can change Mark's grade to a B and have a resource teacher grade all assignments from them on.					
5. Ms. Carter can email Mark's mother explaining why she gave him a C.					
6. Ms. Carter can email Mark's mother explaining why she gave him a C and tell her that she will change his grade just this once.					
7. Ms. Carter can choose the most significant assignments and have Mark work with the resource teacher to redo them and assign a grade based on those assignments.					

8. Ms. Carter can speak to an administrator about having an aide assigned to her class.									
9. Ms. Carter can have the resource teacher review Mark's work and then have them both meet with his mother to discuss his grade and progress.									

Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9
Best Choice									
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best									
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best									

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9
Worst Choice									
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst									

Now please judge the following REASONS Ms. Carter might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. Mark will have a realistic report of the					

work he has done and how much he has learned compared to students who do not have an IEP.					
2. Ms. Carter's decision would not take into consideration Mark's efforts and level of learning.					
3. Ms. Carter's decision would not consider Mark's mother's concerns.					
4. Ms. Carter would adhere to school rules regarding grading procedures.					
5. It is possible that Mark would give up on his schoolwork.					
6. Ms. Carter would be better able to support students with IEP's and those that do					

not have an IEP.					
7. A resource teacher would be better able to assign Mark a grade.					
8. Ms. Carter would be able to say she did all she could to assign Mark a fair grade.					
9. Ms. Carter and the resource teacher would be better able to explain why Mark was assigned a C.					
10. Ms. Carter should not have to defend the grades she assigns to her students.					
11. Ms. Carter is giving Mark all the support he needs to improve.					
12. Mark's mother would feel better about his grade and not email Ms. Carter any further.					



Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11	Reason 12
Worst Reason												
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst												
3 <sup>rd</sup> Worst												

Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11	Reason 12
Worst Reason												
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst												

**Mr. Williams**

Mr. Williams a science teacher at Middletown High is concerned about a student in his class, Jonathan. Jonathan is withdrawn, does not have a group of friends that he hangs out with and is often teased by his classmates, particularly the athletes. Mr. Williams has often had to intervene and punish two football players for harassing Jonathan. He has also emailed Jonathan’s parents to schedule a parent-teacher conference to discuss his concerns; it was only after several emails that he got a response from Jonathan’s mom. At the meeting she shared that Jonathan was teased at his previous school, which led to his parents deciding to transfer him to Middletown High. In a recent incident a football player called Jonathan a “gay wuss” during a class discussion. Mr. Williams immediately sent the student to the Principals office and met with Jonathan after class; during that meeting Jonathan shrugged off the incident and said, “It’s ok Mr. Williams, I’m gonna get him back some day”. Mr. Williams pressed Jonathan about what he meant by that, to which Jonathan responded with a shrug. The conversation ended with them both walking over to Mrs. Gibson’s office, the school guidance counselor. Mr. Williams met briefly with her to discuss the incident and then Jonathan met privately with Mrs. Gibson. When Mr. Williams checked-in with Mrs. Gibson later that day she informed him that she chatted briefly with Jonathan and felt that he was ok. Mr. Williams feels uneasy, he believes Jonathan’s parents

should be called in to meet with him and the Principal along with Mrs. Gibson to discuss the incident.

Please think about these 10 choices that Mr. Williams might make in this situation. Rate each choice as follows by marking with an “X” for each action choice.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD choice	I believe this is a GOOD choice	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD choice	I strongly believe this is a BAD choice
1. Mr. Williams can tell Mrs. Gibson she needs to meet Jonathan’s parents and the Principal.					
2. Mr. Williams can schedule the meeting with Jonathan’s parents and the Principal himself.					
3. Mr. Williams can speak to the Principal about what should be done next.					
4. Mr. Williams can do nothing because he has already referred Jonathan to the school guidance counselor.					
5. Mr. Williams should meet					

with Jonathan again to talk further.					
6. Mr. Williams should speak to the Principal to find out if the football player was punished.					
7. Mr. Williams should demand that Jonathan tell him what he meant by "I'm gonna get him back someday".					
8. Mr. Williams can ignore Jonathan's comment.					
9. Mr. Williams can make a report to the school resource officer.					
10. Mr. Williams can meet with the Principal, Mrs. Gibson and the school resource officer in order to formulate a plan to help Jonathan and					

address bullying in the school.					
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Please select the choice that is the BEST, the choice that is 2nd BEST and the choice that is 3rd BEST.

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9	Choice 10
Best Choice										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Best										
3 <sup>rd</sup> Best										

Please select the choice that is the WORST, the choice that is 2nd WORST

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9	Choice 10
Worst Choice										
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst										

Now please judge the following REASONS Mr. Williams might be thinking about while he makes his decision.

	I strongly believe this is a GOOD reason	I believe this is a GOOD reason	I am not sure	I believe this is a BAD reason	I strongly believe this is a BAD reason
1. Jonathan will get the support he needs to deal with being bullied.					
2. He will be able to gain a better understanding					

about how Jonathan feels.					
3. The guidance counselor, Mrs. Gibson is better trained to handle the situation.					
4. Mr. Williams will find out if Jonathan has plans to hurt the student that bullied him or anyone else in the school.					
5. Jonathan's parents will know that he is still being bullied.					
6. The school resource officer will know about the incident.					
7. This team (Mr. Williams, the Principal, Mrs. Gibson and the school resource officer) will formulate a plan to maintain the safety of Jonathan and all the					

students at the school.					
8. He has done all he can to help Jonathan.					
9. The Principal will know what is the best thing to do.					
10. It is important that students are punished for bullying other students.					
11. He will maintain a relationship a Jonathan.					

Please select the REASON that is the BEST, the REASON that is 2nd BEST and the REASON that is 3rd BEST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11
Worst Reason											
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst											

Please select the REASON that is the WORST, the REASON that is 2nd WORST

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Reason 9	Reason 10	Reason 11
Worst Reason											
2 <sup>nd</sup> Worst											

## Defining Issues Test-2 (short form)

This questionnaire is concerned with how you define the issues in a social problem. Several stories about social problems will be described. After each story, there will be a list of questions. The questions that follow each story represent different issues that might be raised by the problem. In other words, the questions/issues raise different ways of judging what is important in making a decision about the social problem. You will be asked to rate and rank the questions in terms of how important each one seems to you. Please turn the page to begin.

### FAMINE

The small village in northern India has experienced shortages of food before, but this year's famine is worse than ever. Some families are even trying to sustain themselves by making soup from tree bark. Mustaq Singh's family is near starvation. He had heard that a rich man in his village has supplies of food stored away and is hoarding food while its price goes higher so that he can sell the food later at a huge profit. Mustaq was desperate and thinks about stealing some food from the rich man's warehouse. The small amount of food that he needs for his family probably wouldn't be missed.

What should Mustaq Singh do? Do you favor the action of taking the food? (*Mark one*)

\_\_\_ Should take the food \_\_\_ Can't Decide \_\_\_ Should not take the food

Please rate in the space beside each statement how important each particular item/question is in making a decision about what you should do one way or another.

1=Great 2=Much 3=Some 4=Little 5=No

1. Is Mustaq Singh courageous enough to risk getting caught stealing? \_\_\_
2. Isn't it only natural for a loving father to care so much for his family that he would steal? \_\_\_
3. Shouldn't the community's laws be upheld? \_\_\_
4. Does Mustaq Singh know a good recipe for preparing soup from tree bark? \_\_\_
5. Does the rich man have any legal right to store food when other people are starving? \_\_\_
6. Is the motive of Mustaq Singh to steal for himself or to steal for his family? \_\_\_
7. What values are going to be the basis for social cooperation? \_\_\_
8. Is the epitome of eating reconcilable with the culpability of stealing? \_\_\_
9. Does the rich man deserve to be robbed for being so greedy? \_\_\_
10. Isn't private property an institution to enable the rich to exploit the poor? \_\_\_
11. Would stealing bring about more total good for everybody concerned or not? \_\_\_
12. Are laws getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society? \_\_\_

Now that you have rated these items, please rank them below from most important to fourth most important in making a decision about what Mustaq Singh should do.

\_\_\_\_\_ # of Most important item \_\_\_\_\_ # of Third most important item  
\_\_\_\_\_ # of Second most important \_\_\_\_\_ # of Fourth most important item

## REPORTER

Molly Dayton has been a news reporter for the *Gazette* newspaper for over a decade. Almost by accident, she learned that one of the candidates for Lieutenant Governor for her state, Grover Thompson, had been arrested for shop-lifting, 20 years earlier. Reporter Dayton found out that early in his life, Candidate Thompson had undergone a confused period and done things he later regretted which were very out-of-character now. His shop-lifting had been a minor offense and charges had been dropped by the department store. Thompson has not only straightened himself out since then, but in addition built a distinguished record in helping many people and in leading community projects. Now, Reporter Dayton regards Thompson as the best candidate in the field and likely to go on to important leadership positions in the state. Reporter Dayton wonders whether or not she should write the story about Thompson's earlier troubles because in the upcoming close and heated election, she fears that such a news story would wreck Thompson's chance to win.

Do you favor the action of reporting the story? (*Mark one*)

\_\_\_ Should report the story \_\_\_ Can't Decide \_\_\_ Should not report the story

Please rate in the space beside each statement how important each particular item/question is in making a decision about what you should do one way or another.

1=Great 2=Much 3=Some 4=Little 5=No

1. Doesn't the public have a right to know all the facts about all the candidates for office? \_\_\_
2. Would publishing the story help Reporter Dayton's reputation for investigative reporting? \_\_\_
3. If Dayton doesn't publish the story wouldn't another reporter get the story anyway and get the credit for investigative reporting? \_\_\_
4. Since voting is such a joke anyway, does it make any difference what reporter Dayton does? \_\_\_
5. Hasn't Thompson shown in the past 20 years that he is a better person than his earlier days as a shop-lifter? \_\_\_
6. What would best serve society? \_\_\_
7. If the story is true, how can it be wrong to report it? \_\_\_
8. How could reporter Dayton be so cruel and heartless as to report the damaging story about candidate Thompson? \_\_\_
9. Does the right of 'habeas corpus' apply in this case? \_\_\_
10. Would the election process be more fair with or without reporting the story? \_\_\_
11. Should reporter Dayton treat all candidates for office in the same way by reporting everything she learns about them, good and bad? \_\_\_
12. Isn't it a reporter's duty to report all the news regardless of the circumstances? \_\_\_



Now that you have rated these items, please rank them below from most important to fourth most important in making a decision about what Reporter Dayton should do.

\_\_\_\_\_ # of Most important item \_\_\_\_\_ # of Third most important item  
\_\_\_\_\_ # of Second most important \_\_\_\_\_ # of Fourth most important item

## CANCER

Mrs. Bennett is 62 years old, and in the last phases of colon cancer. She is in terrible pain and asks the doctor to give her more pain-killer medicine. The doctor has given her the maximum safe dose already and is reluctant to increase the dosage because it would probably hasten her death. In a clear and rational mental state, Mrs. Bennett says that she realizes this; but she wants to end her suffering even if it means ending her life.

Should the doctor give her an increased dosage?

Do you favor the action of giving more medicine? (*Mark one*)

- \_\_\_\_\_ Should give Mrs. Bennett an increased dosage to make her die  
\_\_\_\_\_ Can't Decide  
\_\_\_\_\_ Should not give her an increased dosage

Please rate in the space beside each statement how important each particular item/question is in making a decision about what you should do one way or another.

1=Great 2=Much 3=Some 4=Little 5=No

1. Isn't the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving an overdose would be the same as killing her? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Wouldn't society be better off without so many laws about what doctors can and cannot do? \_\_\_\_\_
3. If Mrs. Bennett dies, would the doctor be legally responsible for malpractice? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Does the family of Mrs. Bennett agree that she should get more painkiller medicine? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Is the painkiller medicine an active heliotropic drug? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on those who don't want to live? \_\_\_\_\_
7. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation? \_\_\_\_\_
8. Would the doctor show more sympathy for Mrs. Bennett by giving the medicine or not? \_\_\_\_\_
9. Wouldn't the doctor feel guilty from giving Mrs. Bennett so much drug that she died? \_\_\_\_\_
10. Should only God decide when a person's life should end? \_\_\_\_\_
11. Shouldn't society protect everyone against being killed? \_\_\_\_\_
12. Where should society draw the line between protecting life and allowing someone to die if the person wants to? \_\_\_\_\_

Now that you have rated these items, please rank them below from most important to fourth most important in making a decision about what the doctor should do.

\_\_\_\_\_ # of Most important item \_\_\_\_\_ # of Third most important item  
\_\_\_\_\_ # of Second most important \_\_\_\_\_ # of Fourth most important item



Office of the Vice President for  
**Research & Economic Development**  
Office for Research Compliance

February 13, 2018

Shani Kerr ESPRMC  
College of Education Box 870231

Re: IRB#: 18-OR-057 "Testing an Intermediate  
Concept Measure for Teaching" Dear Shani Kerr:  
The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has  
granted approval for your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45  
CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of written  
documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under  
expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior  
(including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition,  
motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or  
practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview,  
oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors  
evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

Your application will expire on February 12, 2019. If your research will  
continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB  
Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete  
the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study  
cannot be initiated without IRB approval except when necessary to  
eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study  
closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Request for Study  
Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent form to provide to your  
participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this  
proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

## Alabama Educator Code of Ethics

### **Introduction**

The primary goal of every educator in the state of Alabama must, at all times, be to provide an environment in which all students can learn. In order to accomplish that goal, educators must value the worth and dignity of every person, must have a devotion to excellence in all matters, must actively support the pursuit of knowledge, and must fully participate in the nurturance of a democratic citizenry. To do so requires an adherence to a high ethical standard.

The Alabama Educator Code of Ethics defines the professional behavior of educators in Alabama and serves as a guide to ethical conduct. The code protects the health, safety and general welfare of students and educators; outlines objective standards of conduct for professional educators; and clearly defines actions of an unethical nature for which disciplinary sanctions are justified.

### **Code of Ethics Standards**

*Standard 1: Professional Conduct*

*An educator should demonstrate conduct that follows generally recognized professional standards.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Encouraging and supporting colleagues in the development and maintenance of high standards.
- Respecting fellow educators and participating in the development of a professional and supportive teaching environment.
- Engaging in a variety of individual and collaborative learning experiences essential to developing professionally in order to promote student learning.

Unethical conduct is any conduct that impairs the certificate holder's ability to function in his or her employment position or a pattern of behavior that is detrimental to the health, welfare, discipline, or morals of students. Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Harassment of colleagues.
- Misuse or mismanagement of tests or test materials.
- Inappropriate language on school grounds.
- Physical altercations.
- Failure to provide appropriate supervision of students.

*Standard 2: Trustworthiness*

*An educator should exemplify honesty and integrity in the course of professional practice.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Properly representing facts concerning an educational matter in direct or indirect public expression.
- Advocating for fair and equitable opportunities for all children.
- Embodying for students the characteristics of intellectual honesty, diplomacy, tact, and fairness.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Falsifying, misrepresenting, omitting, or erroneously reporting professional qualifications, criminal record, or employment history when applying for employment or certification.
- Falsifying, misrepresenting, omitting, or erroneously reporting information submitted to federal, state, and/or other governmental agencies.
- Falsifying, misrepresenting, omitting, or erroneously reporting information regarding the evaluation of students and/or personnel.
- Falsifying, misrepresenting, omitting, or erroneously reporting reasons for absences or leaves.
- Falsifying, misrepresenting, omitting, or erroneously reporting information submitted in the course of an official inquiry or investigation.

#### *Standard 3: Unlawful Acts*

*An educator should abide by federal, state, and local laws and statutes.*

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the commission or conviction of a felony or of any crime involving moral turpitude. As used herein, conviction includes a finding or verdict of guilty, or a plea of *nolo contendere*, regardless of whether an appeal of the conviction has been sought or a situation where first offender treatment without adjudication of guilt pursuant to the charge was granted.

#### *Standard 4: Teacher/Student Relationship*

*An educator should always maintain a professional relationship with all students, both in and outside the classroom.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Fulfilling the roles of trusted confidante, mentor, and advocate for students' growth.
- Nurturing the intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and civic potential of all students.
- Providing an environment that does not needlessly expose students to unnecessary embarrassment or disparagement.
- Creating, supporting, and maintaining a challenging learning environment for all students.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Committing any act of child abuse, including physical or verbal abuse.
- Committing any act of cruelty to children or any act of child endangerment.
- Committing or soliciting any unlawful sexual act.

- Engaging in harassing behavior on the basis of race, gender, national origin, religion, or disability.
- Soliciting, encouraging, or consummating an inappropriate written, verbal, or physical relationship with a student.
- Furnishing tobacco, alcohol, or illegal/unauthorized drugs to any student or allowing a student to consume alcohol or illegal/unauthorized drugs.

*Standard 5: Alcohol, Drug and Tobacco Use or Possession*

*An educator should refrain from the use of alcohol and/or tobacco during the course of professional practice and should never use illegal or unauthorized drugs.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Factually representing the dangers of alcohol, tobacco and illegal drug use and abuse to students during the course of professional practice.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Being under the influence of, possessing, using, or consuming illegal or unauthorized drugs.
- Being on school premises or at a school-related activity involving students while documented as being under the influence of, possessing, or consuming alcoholic beverages or using tobacco. A school-related activity includes, but is not limited to, any activity that is sponsored by a school or a school system or any activity designed to enhance the school curriculum such as club trips, etc., where students are involved.

*Standard 6: Public Funds and Property*

*An educator entrusted with public funds and property should honor that trust with a high level of honesty, accuracy, and responsibility.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Maximizing the positive effect of school funds through judicious use of said funds.
- Modeling for students and colleagues the responsible use of public property.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Misusing public or school-related funds.
- Failing to account for funds collected from students or parents.
- Submitting fraudulent requests for reimbursement of expenses or for pay.
- Co-mingling public or school-related funds with personal funds or checking accounts.
- Using school property without the approval of the local board of education/governing body.

*Standard 7: Remunerative Conduct*

*An educator should maintain integrity with students, colleagues, parents, patrons, or businesses when accepting gifts, gratuities, favors, and additional compensation.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Insuring that institutional privileges are not used for personal gain.
- Insuring that school policies or procedures are not impacted by gifts or gratuities from any person or organization.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Soliciting students or parents of students to purchase equipment, supplies, or services from the educator or to participate in activities that financially benefit the educator unless approved by the local governing body.
- Accepting gifts from vendors or potential vendors for personal use or gain where there appears to be a conflict of interest.
- Tutoring students assigned to the educator for remuneration unless approved by the local board of education.

*Standard 8: Maintenance of Confidentiality*

*An educator should comply with state and federal laws and local school board policies relating to confidentiality of student and personnel records, standardized test material, and other information covered by confidentiality agreements.*

Ethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Keeping in confidence information about students that has been obtained in the course of professional service unless disclosure serves professional purposes or is required by law.
- Maintaining diligently the security of standardized test supplies and resources.

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Sharing confidential information concerning student academic and disciplinary records, health and medical information, family status/income, and assessment/testing results unless disclosure is required or permitted by law.
- Violating confidentiality agreements related to standardized testing including copying or teaching identified test items, publishing or distributing test items or answers, discussing test items, and violating local school system or state directions for the use of tests or test items.
- Violating other confidentiality agreements required by state or local policy.

*Standard 9: Abandonment of Contract*

*An educator should fulfill all of the terms and obligations detailed in the contract with the local board of education or educational agency for the duration of the contract.*

Unethical conduct includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Abandoning the contract for professional services without prior release from the contract by the employer;
- Refusing to perform services required by the contract.

suspended may not be employed as an educator, paraprofessional, aide, or substitute teacher during the period of his or her revocation, suspension, or denial.

### **Reporting**

Educators are required to report a breach of one or more of the Standards in the Alabama Educator Code of Ethics as soon as possible, but no later than sixty (60) days from the date the educator became aware of the alleged breach, unless the law or local procedures require reporting sooner. Educators should be aware of their local school board policies and procedures and/or chain of command for reporting unethical conduct. Complaints filed with the local or state school boards, or with the State Department of Education Teacher Certification Section, must be filed in writing and must include the original signature of the complainant.

#### *Alabama Administrative Code 290-3-2-.05*

(1)-5-c Each Superintendent shall submit to the State Superintendent of Education within ten calendar days of the decision, the name and social security number of each employee holding an Alabama certificate or license who is terminated, or nonrenewed, resigns, or is placed on administrative leave for cause, and shall indicate the reason for such action.

### **Disciplinary Action**

Disciplinary action shall be defined as the issuance of a reprimand or warning, or the suspension, revocation, or denial of certificates. "Certificate" refers to any teaching, service, or leadership certificate issued by the authority of the Alabama State Department of Education.

#### *Alabama Administrative Code 290-3-2-.05*

(1) Authority of the State Superintendent of Education

- (a) The Superintendent shall have the authority under existing legal standards to:
1. Revoke any certificate held by a person who has been proven guilty of immoral conduct or unbecoming or indecent behavior in Alabama or any other state or nation in accordance with Ala. Code 16-23-5 (1975).
  2. Refuse to issue a certificate to an applicant whose certificate has been subject to adverse action by another state until after the adverse action has been resolved by that state.
  3. Suspend or revoke an individual's certificate issued by the Superintendent when a certificate or license issued by another state is subject to adverse action.
  4. Refuse to issue, suspend, or recall a certificate for just cause.

Any of the following grounds shall also be considered cause for disciplinary action:

- Unethical conduct as outlined in the Alabama Educator Code of Ethics, Standards 1-9.
- Order from a court of competent jurisdiction.
- Violation of any other laws or rules applicable to the profession.



- Any other good and sufficient cause.

An individual whose certificate has been revoked, denied, or suspended may not be employed as an educator, paraprofessional, aide, or substitute teacher during the period of his or her revocation, suspension, or denial.