JEEL

PROMOTING ETHICAL BEHAVIOR FOR
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Beverly J. Irby
Texas A&M University
Fred C. Lunenburg
Sam Houston State University

Abstract

Ethics is not unique to the profession of education. All professionals, from doctors and lawyers to carpenters to fry cooks are expected to perform their jobs ethically. School administrators perform their jobs ethically when they promote procedures that seek to enhance student learning by addressing the intellectual, emotional, and physical safety needs of students and staff. Ethical school administrators promote campus values in which all students receive a quality education that incorporates the teaching of respect for others and self, integrity, citizenship, and sense of commitment and obligation to the school and community—critical components for developing a safe and productive environment in which all students can learn and for contributing to the vitality of modern society.

INTRODUCTION

The unparalleled events at the turn of the 21st Century cry out for ethical leaders worldwide. Some of those events have revealed leadership full of hate that has annihilated thousands with no remorse, leadership full of greed that has wrecked families with no guilt, leadership full of infidelity that has undermined the public's faith with no shame, and leadership full of desire for power that has stirred fear among innocents with no retraction.

When this type of leadership is witnessed 24/7 on the television, what greater calling is there for a school administrator than to step forward and lead future generations to a better life, a better world? Darley, Messick, and Tyler (2013) reminded school administrators of the importance for their leaders to demonstrate ethical behavior as a life's work in progress and action when he said, "Ethical behavior is a lifelong education" (p. 135). Society today is screaming for leaders who demonstrate integrity; who model ethical, moral, and caring behavior; and who can help others along their own life's journey (Sreedharan & Wakhu, 2010). Although the cry is for ethical leadership, there is a paucity of research regarding whether school administrators, in particular, exhibit such ethical behavior (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2010).

The Ethical School Administrator

How is an ethical school administrator defined? The ethical administrator is one who, in the face of adversity, ambiguity, and challenge, reflects on what is right by some set standard or code and acts in a rational and caring manner to resolve problems and conduct business (Watson, 2013). An ethical administrator must know his/her own values and goals and how those are aligned with the campus and district's vision, mission, and goals. Additionally, an ethical school administrator will have already asked him/herself, "What is important? What is the purpose of my being here? What do I stand for?" The answers from the administrator during a challenging situation, and during these uncertain times in our world, can help in providing stability to students and their parents, teachers, and the community.

The ethical school administrator acts in genuine ways and is not ostentatious. This administrator has to "face into the wind" as decisions are made, and he/she must be able to stand firm during such confrontations while remaining true to his or her moral compass. Marshall (1992) determined that what controls the moral compass in the face of ethical dilemmas are the moral principles instilled by the school administrator's church and family; she found school administrators were not guided by school policies or professional codes. Marshall indicated that school administrators must be trained in ethics in order to confront the issues of poverty, racism, sexism, and inequities. Appleton (2013), who studied values development for over twenty years, indicated that skill development is necessary but not sufficient for ethical growth. Appleton was not saying that skill development was not necessary; rather, he was indicating that practice was also needed for growth to occur (Jones, 2012).

Kidder (1995) instructed that "ethics defines the way we participate in the community around us. Yet it's also a deeply personal construct, developing powerful standards and practices in each of us" (p. 219). McKerrow (1997) extended Kidder's

comments and wrote, "How one thinks and what one believes about leadership are translated into institutional values and practices" (p. 214).

Czaja and Lowe (2000) stated:

> If educational leaders cannot lead by example and do not know how to practice ethics, there is great cause for the "doom and gloom" mentality that has been evidenced in much of the press about public schools and the leadership. On the other hand, even the light from a small candle can banish the darkness. Preparing ethical leaders will do much the same.
> (p. 11)

Ethical school administrators are able to motivate followers to use many of their innate talents in pursuing the school's goals and mission. As Fairholm (2000) discussed, school administrators become moral leaders as they:

> train, educate, and coach followers, provide motivation, involve them in appropriate networks, and then free them from situational constraints that may hamper their growth or transformation toward full effectiveness. They endow followers with the capacity to lead themselves in accomplishing the organization's ends. (p. 52)

Rebore (2000) captured the essence of the ethical school administrator by stating,

> the ethical administrator is a person who makes decisions with the dignity of each person in mind, who empowers others, who has a sense of solidarity with at-risk students, who promotes equality in all aspects of education, and who is a responsible steward of school districts assets.
> (p. 275).

School Administrators and Philosophical Concepts of Ethics

According to Beckner (2004, pp. 25–40), ethical school administrators must be concerned with the following six philosophical concepts: (a) rights, (b) freedom, (c) responsibility, (d) duty, (e) justice, and (f) equity. Kimbrough (1995) listed several other practical concepts related to ethics for school administrators: (a) authority, (b) caring, (c) character, (d) commitment, (e) conflict of interest, (f) formality, (g) loyalty, and (h) prudence. Shapiro and Stefkovich (2010) noted four paradigms: (a) justice, (b) critique, (c) care, and (d) the profession. They suggested that school administrators can become more aware of their own perspectives, and with such principles or paradigms, school administrators can be better equipped to solve the daily, complex dilemmas they encounter on their campuses.

Lunenburg and Irby (2006) add the following philosophical concepts: rights, freedom, responsibility and authority; duty; justice; equity; caring; character, commitment, and formality; conflict of interest; loyalty; prudence; critique; profession; and moral imperative. All of these principles, concepts, and paradigms reflect personal

character traits, behaviors, and incidences involving ethical leadership and decision making.

Rights

Ethical school administrators have a responsibility to respect the rights of others, as moral decision makers and as role models. But disagreement occurs about what rights should apply in a given situation or what constitutes violation of another person's rights. Those are rights which:

> God and nature have established, and are therefore called natural rights, such as are life, and liberty, need not the bid of human laws to be more effectual than they are . . . no human legislature has power to abridge or destroy them, unless their owner shall himself commit some act that amounts to forfeiture. (Blackstone, 1941, p. 21)

Absolute rights of individuals have withstood the test of time, and rights related to school administrators would include those indicated by Blackstone (1941) of personal security, personal liberty, and private property. The school administrator is responsible to all individuals on the campus to ensure the right of personal security. An example of personal security responsibility was published in September 2004 in the report, *Preparedness in America's Schools: A Comprehensive Look at Terrorism Preparedness in America's Twenty Largest School Districts*. In that report, Phinney (2004) equated school administrators as public officials who are accountable and responsible for the security of our children. She stated that, "in light of the conclusions of the 9/11 Commission, it benefits none of us if we mince words about how the nation's school officials are fulfilling, or not fulfilling, their responsibility to protect our children from another terrorist attack" (p. 4).

Beckner (2004) recognized that absolute rights prevail in all circumstances; however, he indicated that if justified by circumstances, prima facie rights—such as the right to freedom of speech within the classroom or freedom of dress on the campus—may be overridden. Personal liberty is seen as an absolute right; but in the case of schools, it may become a prima facie right because it would be overridden if, within the personal liberty, there is potential for harm or harassment to others or for endangerment of the equal rights of others. Because "school" is a public property, the personal liberty of individuals is subject to the scrutiny of the law. The function of civil law is to protect the natural liberty of individuals, not to punish them for their sins.

Another right indicated by Beckner (2004) as an essential concern of school administrators is *negative rights*. This concept extends the right to be left alone, to not be interfered with when one wants to do something (i.e., teachers moonlighting after contract hours). Negative rights also relate to safety issues to which the school administrator must attend in the school; these issues are within the arenas of counseling, curriculum, and crisis management. For example, Wellman (1999) stated that an example of negative rights would be "one's right not to be killed, which imposes a duty upon others not to kill one" (p. 24).

Beckner (2004) related that *positive rights* require others to assist in their exercise, usually through some governmental entity (i.e., equal opportunity through affirmative action). These rights operate in a positive sense, in that they declare the right of an individual to have something (e.g., a humane standard of living; the right to an appropriate education). "In order to protect positive rights, the state must do or give something to improve the individual's life" (Devine & Hansen, 1999, p. 67). Therefore, it is the school administrator's ethical duty to ensure that each child is educated in the best possible way.

Another set of rights that Beckner (2004) included were *human rights,* which are obtained because one is human. Negative human rights are life, physical property, due process, privacy, autonomy, and freedom of thought and expression. Positive human rights include food, adequate housing, competent medical care, employment at a living wage, and education. Finally, Beckner reported that "particular rights" are dependent upon specific circumstances; for example, a person who is promised a specific thing has the right to receive it. If a child who has a learning deficit that must be addressed by a variety of instructional techniques, is promised an education—meaning, in the basic sense, the ability to read, write, and do arithmetic—then the principal could be called into question regarding her responsibility and ethical obligation to protect and ensure the child's particular rights if he/she cannot function at a basic level of education.

Freedom

Beckner (2004) suggested that the concept of freedom is related closely to that of rights, and it is aligned in Americans' minds with the notions of liberty, independence, and individuality. The *Washington Times* recently published an article that is related to freedom and how principals must engage in ensuring the freedom of all students. The article described the Civic Mission of Schools, a study from the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the University of Maryland's Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, which revealed that most formal civic education today comprises only a single course on government, with little emphasis on the rights and responsibilities of citizens and ways that they could work together and relate to government. However, the report cited research that children start to develop social responsibility and interest in politics before the age of nine (Gould, 2003).

These are critical teaching and learning principles for school principals to consider when dialoguing with their teachers. For example, the same *Washington Times* article reported increased class discussions and debates in some schools on the justification for forcibly disarming Saddam Hussein. Some principals have had to warn teachers to ensure that all sides are given equal opportunity to be heard.

Despite the fact that freedom of speech in class debates has to be pointed out to teachers, the newspaper reported that the teaching of our constitutional history has been sorely lacking. The newspaper reported that Charles Haynes, a senior scholar at the Freedom Forum First Amendment Center, said that this generation has been called upon to defend freedom at home and around the world. Our task is to ensure that they understand what they are defending and why ("Bringing the Constitution to Life," 2003, p. A23). Infusing an understanding of various freedoms into the curriculum and

establishing such an understanding with teachers and students is an ethical responsibility of the principal.

Responsibility and Authority

Rights and freedom carry with them responsibility. There is responsibility for the consequences of actions that may result from exercising various rights and freedoms. One major freedom enjoyed by all United States citizens is the freedom of speech. In relation to that freedom, the principal must consider consequences involving this right. Consequently, the principal's role in freedom of speech issues is one that has been scrutinized. As Sybouts and Wendel (1994) stated, principals are often viewed as public figures, and as such, both enjoy and suffer from their status. They reported that the Georgia Supreme Court determined that high school principals were not public officials and as such did not need to prove malice on the part of a defendant in a libel suit. In Maryland and Mississippi, principals are held to be public officials, whereas the law in Illinois grants principals the same protections that private citizens enjoy. In general, principals do not stand in a confidential relationship with others, as do a husband and wife or attorney and client. Thus, principals have the responsibility to limit their negative comments about students and staff members to those they have personally observed. Also, principals should report any statements that are possibly defamatory only to those who have a need to know (Sybouts & Wendel, p. 75).

Kimbrough (1995) indicated that responsibility has two dimensions: (a) objective responsibility and (b) subjective responsibility. Cooper (2012) defined *objective responsibility* as the obligation to someone else for a particular standard or category of performance, and he contrasted objective and *subjective responsibility* as follows:

> Objective responsibility arises from legal, organizational, and societal demands upon our role as public administrator, but subjective responsibility is rooted in experience like loyalty, conscience, and identification. We feel inclined, or even compelled, to act in a particular way, not because we are required to do so by a supervisor or the law but because of an inner drive. (p. 51)

Related to responsibility is authority. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012) defined *authority* as the power to influence the behavior of others. They said that excess in the arbitrary use of authority, and the failure to exercise authority effectively, both represent failure to meet acceptable ethical standards.

Duty

According to Beckner (2004), sometimes duty and responsibility are considered to be synonymous. However, duty tends to regard demands that override other values. The administrator must perform duties that come with rules and regulations. Some of the prima facie duties are (a) fidelity, (b) reparation, (c) gratitude, (d) justice, (e) beneficence, (f) self-improvement, and (g) non-maleficence. Other duties that may take precedence in the school arena over the prima facie duties are (a) duty to students, (b) duty to

colleagues, (c) duty to discipline, (d) duty to the school team, (e) duty to the profession, (f) duty to funding sources, (g) duty to parents, and (h) duty to community.

Justice

There are concerns for principals in dealing with justice—one concern is the equal treatment of non-equals or the unequal treatment of equals. Shapiro and Stefkovich (2010) indicated that the ethic of justice "focuses on rights and law and is part of a liberal democratic tradition" (p. 11). Many have defined justice, but Beckner (2004) defined justice using the term *fairness,* which implies that individuals could be just and fair if they would see clearly and think rationally and act in an uninterested and benevolent manner. Beckner shared from the literature five types of justice: (a) *procedural justice*—treatment people should receive in connection with the application of rules; (b) *substantive justice*—examines the "rightness" of rules and procedures and protects ownership of property, compensation for work, freedom, privacy, bodily safety, truth telling, citizenship, and copyright; (c) *retributive justice*—involves punishment for wrongdoing; (d) *remedial justice* or compensatory justice—involves wrongdoing in relation to the victim, not the perpetrator, and involves making amends; and (e) *distributive justice*—does not necessarily deal with a wrongdoing, but relates to benefits and burdens shared equally among people.

Equity

The words *justice* and *equity* are sometimes used interchangeably. *Equity* refers to the bending of rules to fit a situation. This implies treating equals equally and non-equals unequally to level the playing fields, but not to the point of being unfair. Beckner (2004) provided an excellent example: Applying the same standardized test score requirements for admission to a university or consideration for scholarships may be unfair to one whose native language is not English or to one whose cultural background is different from that on which the test is based. To do so may also create inaccurate results (prediction of academic success). Therefore, certain individuals would not have an equal opportunity to succeed in life. Recently, a large university changed its rules of providing extra points on its admissions criteria to those whose parents attended the university. This may not have been a popular decision to former students, but it was a decision in favor of justice and equity.

Over two decades ago, Murphy (1993) spoke of a renewed interest in an extension of the need to prepare educational leaders to deal with equity issues due to the substantial demographic changes occurring in the United States. At about the same time, Beck and Murphy (1994) stated:

> As educators seek—at times frantically—to identify their role in the reconstruction of society, and, at the same time, to discover functional ways to deal with rapidly changing populations of students, they find themselves confronted with fundamental questions about equity, freedom, character, justice, and the like. (pp. 45-46)

Caring

Noddings (2013) noted that "an ethic of care starts with a study of relations. It is fundamentally concerned with how human beings meet and treat one another" (p. 45). Caring principals develop meaningful relationships and inspire others to excellence. Generally thoughtful and sensitive, they recognize the diverse and individual talents in people. Whereas bureaucrats emphasize compliance with rules and regulations, caring instructional leaders above all else are uncritical, collegial, and supportive. Caring principals put people first and policy second (Glanz, 1998, p. 34). Kimbrough (1995) suggested that caring includes such actions as commitment, patience, knowledge of the needs and wants of others, tolerance, trust, hope, courage, and the ability to listen. He said that a caring school is where everyone counts, where all are heard, and where the principal works to ensure the personal growth and development of all.

Character, Commitment, and Formality

According to Palmour (1986), Aristotle defined *good character* as the life of right conduct—right conduct in relation to other persons and in relation to one's self. Character is closely associated with caring; if a principal is perceived to have a good character, then he/she has exhibited behavior such as honesty, courage, dependability, generosity, and acceptable motivations. The principal should be of honorable repute in the eyes of the teachers and community (Kimbrough, 1995).

Commitment is related to character in that the principal must be committed to doing the right thing. Commitment is related to dependability. For example, if the principal is constantly late to meetings with the teachers, who always arrive on time, then his/her commitment, as well as his/her dependability, come into question. The teachers begin to question the principal's ethics. If the principal is not faithful or committed, then teachers begin to question the leader.

Formality relates to commitment, and according to Kimbrough (1995), refers to being in compliance with accepted norms of behavior and ceremonies. Formality includes keeping personal appointments, promptness, courtesy, language, manners, and attention to individuals or ceremonies. Public display of professional, ethical behavior is at the center of formality.

Conflict of Interest

A conflict of interest is a situation in which the principal would have a competing professional or personal interest that would make it difficult to fulfill his duties fairly. In cases of a conflict of interest, the principal should recuse himself from the matter—not take part in, or influence in any way, the process. For example, if the principal's wife is hired and the principal is the evaluator who may or may not recommend her for a merit raise or job security, then the principal should recuse himself to avoid a conflict of interest.

At times, principals may be involved in situations with companies or private interests that promote student learning. An example situation occurs with the Channel One news program for teenagers, as described by Stark (2001). Stark stated that

principals who engage in Channel One, which advertises commercial products, have put themselves into a kind of conflict of interest. Considering that principals and teachers are public officials, it stands to reason that teachers should make their official decisions—including those about allocating curricular time and classroom space—on their merits, according to the public interest, and not based on the school's need for private support. The Channel One example is not the most serious kind of conflict of interest. That would be the case when an official has the capacity to use her public role to benefit a private company in return for a personal payment. Instead, the Channel One arrangement resembles the milder form of conflict (but one still statutorily regulated at the federal level) in which officials take something of value from a private company not for themselves personally, but to help serve the purposes of their cash-strapped public school (Stark, 2001, p. 59). The following are the most common forms of conflicts of interests:

1. Self-dealing, in which public and private interests collide; for example, issues involving family, or privately held business interests.
2. Outside employment, in which the interests of one job contradicts another.
3. Accepting of benefits, including bribes and other gifts accepted to curry favor.
4. Influence peddling—using one's position to influence other realms.
5. Use of government, corporate, or legal property for personal reasons.
6. Unauthorized distribution of confidential information.

There are two kinds of conflicts of interests. In a *real conflict*, which is the type mentioned earlier, the competing interests are exploited for personal gain. In an *apparent conflict*, the parties involved acknowledge the conflict of interests and deal with it accordingly ("Conflict of Interest," 2004).

Loyalty

Loyalty generally refers to faithfulness; devotion; allegiance to a leader, person, group, ideal, cause, or duty. A supervisor may ask the school principal to do something that the principal believes to be unethical. For example, the principal may be asked to place the superintendent's son in the gifted education program when in fact the child does not meet the criteria for placement. Of course, blind loyalty is extreme and produces negative results leading to unethical behavior. Principals who have blind loyalty may be viewed as "yes people."

Loyalty runs in both directions—to the supervisors as well as the supervised. Loyalty is developed and earned over time (Kimbrough, 1995). Is whistle-blowing an act of disloyalty? Kimbrough (1995) suggested that whether a whistle-blower acts from personal interest or from moral conscience, the principal must see that justice is done and consider the reported wrong, regardless of the source. Loyalty also implies openness and the feeling that one can share with the principal any serious violations that are observed.

Prudence

Prudence refers to the exercise of good judgment, common sense, and even caution, especially in the conduct of practical matters. Principals must remember that their actions have influence on people (Kimbrough, 1995). Prudence implies consequential thinking by the principal. If the principal does not think with prudence or consequentially, then the result may be harmful to the students and teachers. For example, during the budgeting process a principal may ask the superintendent for only one additional faculty member when, in fact, three faculty members are needed to handle the foreseen increase in students. If the principal is thus granted one faculty member, the principal will have to hire uncertified long-term substitutes to cover two classrooms. This outcome is ultimately injurious not only to student learning but also to continuous school improvement, due to the lack of permanent faculty members to plan, develop, and implement programs and carry out the mission and goals of the school.

Critique

According to Shapiro and Stefkovich (2010), "the ethic of critique is based on critical theory, which has, at its heart, an analysis of social class and its inequities," and it is "linked to critical pedagogy" (p. 14). They further claimed that critique is:

> aimed at awakening educators to inequities in society and, in particular, in the schools. This ethic asks educators to deal with the hard questions regarding social class, race, gender, and other areas of difference, such as: Who makes the laws? Who benefits from the law, rule, or policy? Who has the power? Who are the silenced voices? This approach to ethical dilemmas then asks educators to go beyond questioning and critical analysis to examine and grapple with those possibilities that could enable all children, whatever their social class, race, or gender to have opportunities to grow, learn, and achieve. Such a process should lead to the development of options related to important concepts such as oppression, power, privilege, authority, voice, language, and empowerment. (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2010, p. 15)

Profession

Shapiro and Stefkovich (2010) described a paradigm for the profession. The ethic of the profession requires that principals develop and examine their own professional codes of ethics, which considers their own "individual personal codes of ethics, as well as standards set forth by the profession, and then calls on them to place students at the center of the ethical decision-making process" (p. 23). The authors stated that the ethic of the profession is "dynamic—not static—and multidimensional, recognizing the complexities of being an educational leader in today's society" (p. 23). In their model (Figure 1) for the ethic of the profession, Shapiro and Stefkovich (2010) demonstrate that all factors converge to create the professional paradigm. The circles depict (a) standards of the profession, (b) professional code of ethics, (c) ethics of the community, (d) personal codes of ethics, (e) individual professional codes, and (f) best interests of the

student. The figure also demonstrates that the ethic is affected by other factors, like clashing codes, professional judgment, and professional decision-making. The authors' ethic of the profession raises questions to the principal posed by the other ethical paradigms or principles, but the principal must move further and "ask what the profession would expect and what is in the best interests of the students taking into account the fact that they may represent highly diverse populations" (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2010, p. 25).
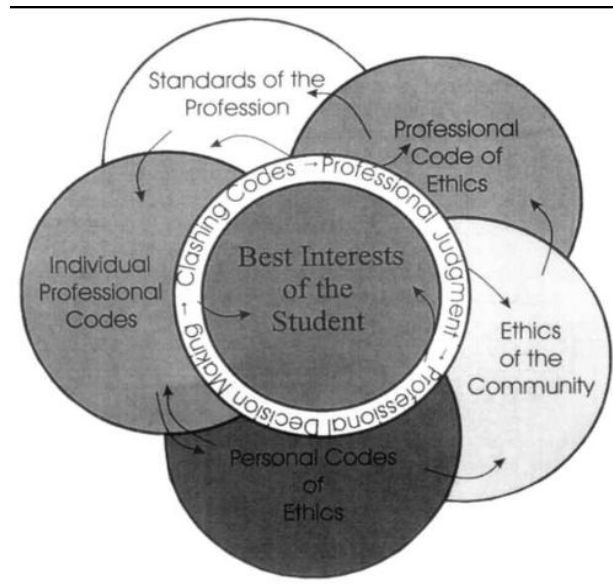

Figure 1. Shapiro and Stefkovich's Model of the Ethic of the Profession
Note. Adapted from *Ethical Leadership and Decision Making in Education: Applying Theoretical Perspectives to Complex Issues* (p. 23), by J. P. Shapiro & J. A. Stefkovich, 2010, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Moral Imperative

The moral imperative is an outward demonstration of morality that includes making hard choices when public opinion may be opposite, disturbing the status quo, and self-discipline. The worse situations become in schools, the greater the need for principals to exhibit this moral imperative. Moral leadership is not only about ethical decision making; it is about elements of the moral leadership process that are not directly covered in decision making (Covrig, 2000). The moral decision-making and actions of a principal are strongly influenced by personal values (Begley & Johansson, 1998; Irby, Brown, Duffy, & Trautman, 2002; Willower & Licata, 1997).

Sergiovanni (1996) also noted the influence of values, by including more characteristics of moral leadership that are akin to the spirit. He indicated that principals must appeal to their followers' sense of righteousness, obligation, and goodness as motivations for action and work. Additionally, principals must possess a personal sense of righteousness, obligation, and goodness. If the principal does not demonstrate these qualities, the question is, how could his followers be motivated to follow a moral path? Therefore, Sergiovanni said that the principal must have a moral position—a moral imperative.

School Administrators and Ethical Behavior in Schools

In the following section, we outline some of the most controversial ethical components principals have to confront in schools. We also describe some specific school situations in which principals model and promote ethical behavior in schools.

School Administrators Promoting Ethical Behavior in Athletic Programs

Conn and Gerdes (1998) stated that "ethical standards or principles are immutable, regardless of the environment or circumstance in which they are implemented. As such, ethical decisions shape the nature of the sport experience for all participants, to include administrators, coaches, athletes, and parents" (p. 121). The community looks to school administrators to monitor the ethical behavior of the coaches and players on their campuses. Principals as well as assistant principals supervise games, where they monitor ethical behavior not only in the game but also on the sidelines and in the stands from the fans.

Why do campus principals need to monitor ethical behavior in athletics? According to Conn and Foshee (1993), there are coaches who (a) have students playing who are not eligible, (b) conduct out-of-season practices, (c) illegally recruit out-of-district players, (d) play injured players in order to win "championships," (e) leave players stranded on buses in a desert, (f) molest players, and (g) improperly desensitize (moderating the intense emotions and actions of competition) athletes post-contest and then re-socialize them back into the mainstream.

Several ethical principles are undeniably linked to numerous core values upon which sports were founded several thousand years ago. Such principles are connected to character development or sportsmanship and not so much to the number of wins. Specific principles identified and linked to modern sports are that (a) athletes must always be considered ends and not means (Merriman & Hill, 1992); (b) the competition must be fair (Jones, Wells, Peters, & Johnson, 1988); (c) participation, leadership, resources, and rewards must be based on achievement rather than ascribed characteristics (Coakley, 1994); and (d) the activity must provide for the relative safety of the participants. Each principle sustains the inherent and traditional values of sport, reinforcing the "goodness" of the sports experience for players and coaches alike.

The National Federation of State High School Associations (2003) posts on its website an established code of ethics that is a valuable tool for principals and coaches. This code of ethics establishes mutually beneficial systems of conduct among members of the sports community such as coaches, players, spectators (fans), and vendors. Moreover, the code of ethics provides a publicly acceptable justification for actions and policies and serves as a benchmark for principals in assessing the actions and decision-making behavior of the coaches. The National Federation's code is based on the following statement: Each student-athlete should be treated as though he or she were the coaches' own, and his or her welfare should be uppermost at all times.

The principal can influence the coach; and discussing the principles of the code is as critical as observing what is happening in the coach's classroom. As the code indicates, the coach has a tremendous influence, for either good or ill, on the student-athletes' education and thus must never place the value of winning above the value of

instilling the highest ideals of character. Coaches have great influence not only on athletes, but the entire student body. In all personal contact with student-athletes, officials, athletic directors, school administrators, the state high school athletic association, the media, and the public, the coach must strive to set an example of the highest ethical and moral conduct (*Coaches Code of Ethics,* National Federation of State High School Associations, 2003).

Principals Promoting Ethical Behavior through Character Education

Principals have encouraged character education for three reasons. According to Lickona (1996), good character helps people become fully human and more capable of work and love by building strength of mind, heart, and will. Next, schools are better places "when they are civil and caring human communities that promulgate, teach, celebrate and hold students and staff accountable to the values on which good character is based" (p. 93). Finally, teaching character education is essential to the task of building a moral society. According to McBrien and Brandt (1997), character education involves teaching children about basic human values including honesty, kindness, generosity, courage, freedom, equality, and respect. The goal is to raise children to become morally responsible, self-disciplined citizens. Problem solving, decision-making, and conflict resolution are important parts of developing moral character. Through role-playing and discussions, students can see that their decisions affect other people and things. Principals can promote such activities within the curriculum that could enhance ethical behavior among teachers, staff, and students. Principals who facilitate parents, students, and community organizations make character education an integral part of the education process and teach students methods of critical reflection about situations and other moral dilemmas.

It is important to recognize that over the past two decades, character education has undergone some criticism. For example, Kohn (1997) stated, "What goes by the name of character education nowadays is, for the most part, a collection of exhortations and extrinsic inducements designed to make children work harder and do what they're told" (p. 429). In his *Letter to Character Educators,* Lockwood (1993) advised that "Any program that intends to promote good behavior by teaching values rests on a shaky foundation" (p. 73). As for Kohn's attack on character education, Lickona (1996) indicated that it was not complex enough to be justified to guide the field, because it did not thoroughly discuss theories and accurately describe character education in schools.

On the other hand, character education is still promoted through national and state initiatives. Rod Paige, Secretary of Education, 2000–2004, said, "We have invested nearly \$24 million in character education in FY 2003 because we believe that building strong character is as essential as reading, math and science" (Character Education Grants Awarded, 2003). The Partnerships in Character Education Program awards grants to eligible organizations to design and implement character education programs in areas such as citizenship, justice, respect and responsibility for grades K–12. Grant recipients must show how they have integrated character education into classroom instruction and teacher training; and that they have involved parents, students, and the community in the process.

Since 1995, a total of ninety-three state and local education agencies have received character education grants. Character education is a key feature of *No Child Left Behind*, the landmark education reform law designed to change the culture of America's schools by closing the achievement gap, offering more flexibility, giving parents more options, and teaching students based on what works. Under the act's strong accountability provisions, states must describe how they will close the achievement gap and ensure that all students, including those who are disadvantaged, achieve academic proficiency. In addition, states must produce annual state and school district report cards informing parents and communities about state and school progress. Schools that do not make progress must provide supplemental services, such as free tutoring or after-school assistance; take corrective actions; and, if still not making adequate yearly progress after five years, dramatically change the way their school is run.

As indicated by grants and legislation, in the latter part of the 1990's, character education has become a prominent curriculum concern. For example, in 1996, one year after grant funds began to be applied to character education model programs, governors from Colorado, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Utah endorsed the *Character Education Manifesto* (Center for the Advancement of Ethics and Character Education, 2003), written by Kevin Ryan, Karen E. Bohlin, and Judith O. Thayer. The *Manifesto* was the first document of its kind to define character education and to present to administrators, teachers, and parents seven guiding principles for school reform and to build character education (Center for the Advancement of Ethics and Character, 2003). The *Character Education Manifesto* principles could serve as a guide or map for principals and teachers to develop a campus manifesto on character education.

> *Principle 1: Education Is an Inescapable Moral Enterprise*. Education in its fullest sense is inescapably a moral enterprise—a continuous and conscious effort to guide students to know and pursue what is good and what is worthwhile.

> *Principle 2: Parents*. Parents [are] the primary moral educators of their children and schools should build a partnership with the home. . . . [A]ll schools have the obligation to foster in their students personal and civic virtues such as integrity, courage, responsibility, diligence, service, and respect for the dignity of all persons.

> *Principle 3: Virtue*. Character education is about developing virtues—good habits and dispositions, which lead students to responsible and mature adulthood.

> *Principle 4: Teachers, Principals, Staff*. The teacher and the school principal are central to this enterprise and must be educated, selected, and encouraged with this mission in mind. In truth, all of the adults in the school must embody and reflect the moral authority which has been invested in them by the parents and the community.

> *Principle 5: Community*. Character education is not a single course, a quick-fix program, or a slogan posted on the wall; it is an integral part of school life. The

school must become a community of virtue in which responsibility, hard work, honesty, and kindness are modeled, taught, expected, celebrated, and continually practiced. From the classroom to the playground, from the cafeteria to the faculty room, the formation of good character must be the central concern.

Principle 6: Curriculum. The human community has a reservoir of moral wisdom, much of which exists in our great stories, works of art, literature, history, and biography. Teachers and students must together draw from this reservoir both within and beyond the academic curriculum.

Principle 7: Students. Finally, young people need to realize that forging their own characters is an essential and demanding life task. And the sum of their school experiences—in successes and failures, academic and athletic, intellectual and social—provides much of the raw material for this personal undertaking.

This work is an example of the kinds of resources available to principals who are seeking to design or select curriculum to implement character education in their schools.

Policies and Procedures That Promote Ethical Behavior in Schools

The school administrator is the most important person on the campus to promote and model ethical behavior and to implement policies that support an appropriate standard of conduct. As the principal goes, so goes the school. Principals can promote procedures that seek to enhance student learning by addressing the intellectual, emotional, and physical safety needs of students and staff. Principals can promote campus values in which all students receive a quality education that incorporates the teaching of respect for others and self, integrity, citizenship, and sense of commitment and obligation to the school and community—critical components for developing a safe and productive environment in which all students can learn and for contributing to the vitality of modern society. Principals and teachers should advance curricular activities that provide all students with an understanding of the necessity of ethical and legal conduct and a balancing of individual rights with the common good.

It is first necessary for principals to work with teachers to advance moral and ethical leadership on the campus. "To be guides for the young in morality and ethics, teachers must understand the complex moral role that they occupy as ethical professionals and appreciate the significance of their own actions and decisions on the students in their care" (Campbell, 1997). It is important for the principal to ensure that all school personnel, board members, parents, students, and community agencies share a role in creating a safe and nurturing learning environment for all students and in helping to raise a generation of individuals who are respectful and responsible not only to themselves, but to others within their school and community.

Superintendents and School Boards

Principals can work with the superintendent and local school board in developing ethical policies and subsequent procedures that assist all teachers and administrators in creating a safe learning environment that addresses every child's needs and embodies the belief that schools are designed to educate all young people. Specifically, principals can promote certain concepts with the superintendent and school board. It is crucial for superintendents and school boards to value the school climate as a critical component of effective learning and to provide resources to establish supportive, healthy school climates. Superintendents and school boards, with the principal, can review all disciplinary policies to ensure that they encourage children to stay in school rather than exclude them from school. Principals must ask superintendents and school boards to provide appropriate resources for a broad array of after-school activities to maximize the number of students involved in constructive, adult-supervised activities. Superintendents and school boards, along with the principal, must ensure compliance with all health, safety, and equity standards pertaining to the school buildings, outdoor facilities, and curriculum so that every student has the maximum opportunity to learn in a healthy, safe, equitable, and non-hostile school environment.

School Actions

Schools can take action to promote and teach ethical behavior and work toward better citizenship and the common good of the society. Some of those activities include engaging students in clubs, leadership activities, service learning, and peer mentoring. Additionally, the campus staff should monitor and supervise all areas of the school (e.g., classrooms, hallways and stairwells, cafeterias, playgrounds, shop areas, lavatories, and locker rooms) to ensure the safety of all students at all times. All members of the school community must identify acts of name-calling, teasing, bullying, exclusion, and harassment and take immediate action, based on a previously developed intervention plan, to intervene in those situations that are detrimental to students and the learning environment.

Other actions that schools can take to support ethical behavior revolve around the components of family involvement, mentors, volunteers, and curriculum. Schools can support families to identify and address their critical role of assisting the school in providing a safe and productive learning environment. Mentors or buddies can be assigned to ensure that all students share a caring relationship with at least one adult in the school, in which regular, ongoing interactions occur. Each adult, including volunteers (this means training of volunteers is necessary) must (a) send a clear and consistent message to students that each has a duty to behave responsibly and respectfully toward others, (b) model the positive behaviors they hope to instill in their students, and (c) consistently enforce rules and provide opportunities to develop and foster ethical reasoning, self-control, and a generalized respect for others. Schools can incorporate the examination of and reflection upon ethical issues into the curriculum; they can teach conflict resolution skills to provide students with the capacity and commitment to solve conflicts in fair, nonviolent ways (an example of this is to train students as conflict

managers, so they can assist with conflicts that arise between students during the lunch period).

Parents and Families

Parents and families are a child's first and most important teacher; therefore, family involvement is crucial in developing a child's sense of personal responsibility to others, or ethical behavior. Principals can facilitate parent-family involvement programs that focus on working with families to instill a sense of responsibility and empathy in every student. Concepts taught in involvement programs include (a) modeling and integrating ethical behavior into the everyday lives of the children; (b) providing consistent care and modeling pro-social behaviors; (c) setting strong examples; (d) correcting inappropriate actions (e.g., resolving conflicts peacefully, demonstrating tolerance and respect for individual differences, and encouraging lifelong learning); (e) becoming involved in school, community, and state events; and (f) taking an interest in national and global events.

Curriculum policies are also critical to the principal's ability to promote and ensure ethical behavior and decision making. When these policies are in place, principals have a foundation upon which to defend or enforce, if need be, the curriculum goals related to student respect and responsibility.

Curriculum

Principals must facilitate a curriculum that teaches students to take responsibility for observing state and national laws, campus and district policies and procedures, and school and classroom rules. It is critical to teach students to appreciate differences and to have respect for all other persons. Students, themselves, have a responsibility to contribute to a safe, productive school climate and to serve as positive role models in their school community as well as their local communities.

National Codes of Ethics for Principals

As Burns (2001) so aptly stated:

> Ethics are not unique to the profession of education. All professionals, from doctors and lawyers to carpenters to fry cooks are expected to complete the duties of their jobs ethically. In order to ensure consistency of interpretation and understanding, many professions subscribe to a code of ethics. It is important to understand that a code of ethics in no way insures the ethical aptitude of school leaders. Much like a school vision or mission statement, a code of ethics is merely as strong as the commitment of the schools' leaders. (p. 19)

Walker (1999) indicated that a code of ethics is a simple map for professionals to follow that actually delineates a profession from a job. To truly constitute a profession, some type of effort must exist that seeks to enforce the code.

Arterbury, Crawford, and Moore (2001) reported three distinct reasons for a code of ethics:

1. Codes provide broad general guidelines and principles of conduct. They serve to educate the profession about sound practice and offer guidance. As a result of the code, educators should consider the ethical dimension of their actions and decisions.
2. Codes establish accountability and protect those served by the profession. In our profession this includes all of the stakeholders in public education.
3. Codes develop the aspiration dimension of the profession and serve as a catalyst to improve practice. The aspiration nature of the code means that ethical decision-making is a continual process and that there are no pat answers. The professionals must be engaged in continual dialogue about what is ethical practice and informed judgment. (p. 13)

American Association of School Administrators

In 1962, the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) created the AASA Code of Ethics to govern actions and behaviors of school administrators. Although AASA is an organization composed primarily of school superintendents, the code was designated for all administrators, from the assistant principal to the superintendent. Of course, in joining AASA or one of its state affiliates, one is expected to uphold the AASA Code of Ethics. The code states:

> Every member of a profession carries a responsibility to act in a manner becoming a professional person. This implies that each school administrator has an inescapable obligation to abide by the ethical standards of his profession. The behavior of each is the concern of all. The conduct of any administrator influences the attitude of the public toward the profession and education in general (AASA, 1966, p. 16).

This AASA Code of Ethics was revised in 1976 and again in 1981, as follows:

> An educational administrator's professional behavior must conform to an ethical code. The code must be idealistic and at the same time practical so that it can apply reasonably to all educational administrators.
>
> The administrator acknowledges that the schools belong to the public they serve for the purpose of providing educational opportunities to all. However, the administrator assumes responsibility for providing professional leadership in the school and community. The responsibility requires the administrator to maintain standards of exemplary professional conduct. It must be recognized that the administrator's actions will be viewed and appraised by the community, professional associates, and students.
>
> To these ends, the administrator subscribes to the following statements of standards:

1. Makes the well-being of students the fundamental value of all decision-making and actions.
2. Fulfills professional responsibilities with honesty and integrity.
3. Supports the principle of due process and protects the civil and human rights of all individuals.
4. Obeys local, state, and national laws and does not knowingly join or support organizations that advocate, directly or indirectly, the overthrow of the government.
5. Implements the governing board of education's policies and administrative rules and regulations.
6. Pursues appropriate measures to correct those laws, policies and regulations that are not consistent with sound educational goals.
7. Avoids using positions for personal gain through political, social, religious, economic or other influences.
8. Accepts academic degrees or professional certification only from duly accredited institutions.
9. Maintains the standards and seeks to improve the effectiveness of the profession through research and continuing professional development.
10. Honors all contracts until fulfillment, release or dissolution mutually agreed upon by all parties to contract (American Association of School Administrators, 1981).

National Association of Elementary School Principals and the National Association of Secondary School Principals

The National Association of Elementary School Principals adopted the same code of ethics as did AASA in 1976. The National Association of Secondary School Principals also adheres to the same code; it was approved in 1973 and revised in 2001. Revisions are slight, with the body and meaning of the text remaining the same.

Polnick, Edmonson, and Fisher (2003) suggested a way to use such ethical codes in principal self-assessment and in faculty assessment of the principal. These authors suggested three tools for a principal to use in examining ethical behavior. One instrument, as seen in Figure 2, is a survey that examines ethical behaviors as they relate to: faculty and staff; students, parents, and community members; communication; and general ethical characteristics. This tool can be used to compare staff perceptions with principal perceptions of which behaviors are valued with respect to ethical behavior. In a pilot of this tool with the same purposive sample of fifteen school administrators, we determined that ethical school leaders exhibit the following top ten characteristics: (1) trustworthiness and reliability, (2) professional behavior, (3) honesty (4) fairness and consistency in interactions with all students, (5) does not talk about others, share gossip, or use others' names in discussions, (6) fairness and consistency in interactions with all teachers and staff, (7) develops trust and confidence in teachers and staff, (8) does not allow political pressure to negatively influence decisions, (9) fairness and consistency in interactions with all parents and community members, and (10) models and displays the characteristics you want to see in others.

Therefore, it appears that modeling of professional behavior, honesty, trustworthiness, reliability, fairness, and an unwillingness to bow to political pressure are the general concepts promoted among this pilot group of administrators. The items least impactful for an ethical principal, in this sample, include: (1) effective communication of personal values and beliefs, (2) open-mindedness, (3) listening to others before speaking, and (4) displaying confidence. The face validity of the tool appears to be adequate as each item was marked at least once.

Portrait of an Ethical Principal	
The following questionnaire is designed to assess faculty and staff perceptions of what behaviors and characteristics best exemplify an **ethical principal**. *Directions: Please respond by selecting 10 items that most represent your perceptions of what an ethical principal should possess or exhibit.*	
I think an ethical principal…	Please place a check by only 10 items.
INTERACTIONS WITH FACULTY AND STAFF	
is fair and consistent in his/her interactions with all teachers and staff	
treats all teachers and staff as professionals	
facilitates and offers assistance to others to enhance their knowledge and skills	
develops trust and confidence in teachers and staff	
shows respect for peers	
demonstrates high expectations and standards	
INTERACTIONS WITH STUDENTS, PARENTS AND COMMUNITY MEMBERS	
is fair and consistent in his/her interactions with all students	
shows respect for students	
keeps students in mind as a priority	
is open to suggestions from everyone	
does not allow political pressure to negatively influence decisions	
is fair and consistent in his/her interactions with all parents and community members	
COMMUNICATION	
listens to others before speaking	
models and displays the characteristics you want to see in others	
does not talk about others or share gossip or use other people's names in discussions with other people	
effectively communicates personal values and beliefs	
effectively communicates values and beliefs of the school	
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS	
displays confidence	
is open-minded	
is honest	
is knowledgeable	
is trustworthy and reliable	
exhibits professional behavior	

Figure 2. Adapted from *The Ethical Administrator,* a paper presented by B. Polnick, S. Edmonson, & A. Fisher at the NCPEA Conference within a Conference, American Association of School Administrators, New Orleans, LA, 2002.

Figure 3 presents another tool that the principal can use to self-assess his own behaviors. This tool may also be used to build awareness of ethical standards and as a dialogue for discussion about what is ethical behavior by school principals and what is not. We asked the same pilot group to self-assess their behavior. The administrators indicated "no" on all items except Item 18 (shared details about a student's record with your family, Item 8 (overestimated the amount you should receive for reimbursement or expenses, since you did not get reimbursed for a lost receipt last month), Item 10 (knowingly ran a red light on a deserted highway), and Item 14 (knowingly gave a student with authorization an aspirin because he/she had a headache). The responses indicated that among the group of administrators, all ethical areas, except the area of personnel, had been violated.

Self-check for Ethical Behavior

The purpose of this inventory is for the principal to self-assess his/her own ethical behavior.

Have you ever…	YES	NO
1. given your son or daughter supplies bought with school funds?		
2. excluded a student from participating in a program because of their sex?		
3. refused to appoint someone for an honor because they filed a complaint against you?		
4. accepted the contract for a new assessment item bank from a friend who's represents a new software company?		
5. created a special assignment for a young male teacher in the summer because he needed the money for his family?		
6. knowingly let your church group use the baseball equipment one Saturday without following district policy and procedures?		
7. recorded that a student who dropped out of school was being home-schooled when you had no official documentation that this was true?		
8. over-estimated the amount you should receive for reimbursement or expenses (since you did not get reimbursed for a lost receipt last month)?		
9. offered a position to a friend even though you knew they weren't as qualified as another candidate?		
10. knowingly ran a red light on a deserted highway?		
11. not selected a person for an opportunity or a position because they were grossly overweight?		
12. misrepresented the facts regarding a student?		
13. won a $570.00 deer rifle from a Rotary Club raffle ($5.00 ticket) and did not report it to the IRS		
14. knowingly gave a student (with no authorization) an aspirin because he had a headache		
15. knowingly recorded incorrect information on a student's records?		
16. used a friend's identification card to get your child into a game or access to an activity		
17. allowed a student to consume alcohol in the presence of his uncle who was an educator?		
18. shared details about a student's record with your family?		
19. taken advantage of your position as principal to get a discount?		
20. promised a co-worker dinner if they would go along with you regarding a professional decision?		

Scoring Rubric

If you marked:	*The following ethical areas were violated:*
1, 4, 8, 9, 19	*Financial Gain and Personal Benefit*
6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16	*Official Records and Policies*
2, 14, 17, 18	*Student Rights*
3, 5, 11, 20	*Personnel (Colleagues and Staff)*

Figure 3. Adapted from *The Ethical Administrator,* a paper presented by B. Polnick, S. Edmonson, & A. Fisher at the NCPEA Conference within a Conference, American Association of School Administrators, New Orleans, LA, 2002.

Ethical school administrators, by personality or by standards, make conscious efforts to do what is beneficial to the students and the people. We are reminded of the

movie, *Hotel Rwanda*, which provides the story of Paul Rusesabagina, a hotel manager who housed over a thousand Tutsis refugees during their struggle against the Hutu militia in Rwanda in 1994. This manager displayed unethical behavior in the initiation of the movie by making bribes to officials; however, in the face of true adversity, he put his life on the line to save his family and over 1000 helpless refugees by being persistent, by displaying character, and by putting others before himself. He states in the pre-movie message that the outcome of freedom rests with us— he is asking us to consider the ethical thing to do regarding unspeakable acts of violence toward others. We can transpose this to the school, as we ask ourselves to consider the ethical thing to do regarding the many inequitable treatments of our students. We, as school administrators, must be the ones to rise to the occasion to right the wrongs. That is, to act ethically.

CONCLUSION

Ethics is not unique to the profession of education. All professionals, from doctors and lawyers to carpenters to fry cooks are expected to perform their jobs ethically. School administrators perform their jobs ethically when they promote procedures that seek to enhance student learning by addressing the intellectual, emotional, and physical safety needs of students and staff. Ethical school administrators promote campus values in which all students receive a quality education that incorporates the teaching of respect for others and self, integrity, citizenship, and a sense of commitment and obligation to the school and community. These are the critical components for developing a safe and productive environment in which all students can learn, and for contributing to the vitality of modern society.

REFERENCES

American Association of School Administrators (AASA) (1981). *AASA's statement of ethics for school administrators*. Retrieved from http://www.aasa.org/about/ethics.htm

Appleton, J. (2013). *Values in sustainable development*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Arterbury, E., Crawford, C., & Moore, D. (2001). Is there an ethic complaint in your future? *Insight, 15(1)*, 13-41.

Beck, L. G. & Murphy, J. (1994). *Ethics in educational leadership programs: An expanding role* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Beckner, W. (2004). *Ethics for educational leaders*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Begley, P.T., & Johansson O. (1998). The values of school administration: Preferences, ethics, and conflicts. *Journal of School Leadership*, *9*(4), 399-422.

Blackstone, W. (1941). *Commentaries on the laws of England* (1765-1769)*,* B. C. Gavit (Ed.). Washington DC: Washington Law Book Co.

Bringing the Constitution to life; now is a good time to teach the hows and whys of liberty. (2003, March 24). *The Washington Times*, p. A23. Retrieved from Questia database, http://www.questia.com.

Burns, H. (2001). *Decision making and ethics: A study of Texas superintendents*. (Doctoral Dissertation, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX) UMI Dissertation Services DAI, 62, no. 07A (2001), p. 2294.

Campbell, E. (1997). Connecting the ethics of teaching and moral education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 48 (4)*, 255-267. Retrieved from Questia

Center for the Advancement of Ethics and Character Education (2003). *Character Education Manifesto*. http://www.bu.edu/education/caec/files/manifesto.htm

Character education grants awarded. (2003, September 29). Retrieved from http://www.ed.gov/news/pressrelease/2003/09/09292003.html

Coakley, J. J. (1994). *Sport in society: Issues and controversies* (5th ed.). St. Louis, MO: Times/Mirror/Mosby.

Conflict of interest. (2004). Retrieved on from http://www.worldhistory.com/wiki/c/conflict-of-interest.htm.

Conn, J. H., & Foshee, D. (1993). Artificial turf injuries, economics, emotion, and ethics. In P. J. Graham (Ed.), *Sports business: operational and theoretical aspects* (pp. 132-142). Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown.

Conn, J. H., & Gerdes, D. A (1998).Ethical decision making: Issues and applications to American sport. *Physical Educator, 55*(3), 121-126.

Cooper, T.L. (2012). *The responsible administrator: An approach to ethics for the administrative role*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Covrig, D. M. (2000). The Organizational Context of Moral Dilemmas: The Role of Moral Leadership in Administration in Making and Breaking Dilemmas. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 7*(1), 40. Retrieved from Questia database, http://www.questia.com.

Czaja, M., & Lowe, J. (2000). Preparing ethical leaders. *The AASA Professor*, 24(1), 7-12.

Darley, J. M., Messick, D. M., & Tyler, T. R. (2013). *Social influences on ethical behavior in organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Taylor & Francis.

Devine, C., & Hansen, C. R. (1999). *Human rights: The essential reference*. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.

Fairholm, G.W. (2000). *Capturing the heart of leadership spirituality and community in the new American workplace*. Wesport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Glanz, J. (1998, October). Autocrats, bureaucrats, and buffoons: Images of principals. *The School Administrator*. Retrieved from http://www.aasa.org/publications/sa/1998-10/Glanz.htm

Gould, J. (2003). Guardian of democracy: The civic mission of schools. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Irby, B.J., Brown, G., Duffy, J., & Trautman, D. (2002). The synergistic leadership theory. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *40*(4), 304-322.

Jones, L. M. (2012). *Values chains in development*. Bourton on Dunsmore, Rugby, UK: Practical Action Publishing.

Jones, B., Wells, L., Peters, R., & Johnson, D. (1988). *Guide to effective coaching Principles and practice*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Kidder, R. M. (1995). *How good people make tough choices*. New York, NY: Fireside, Simon & Schuster.

Kimbrough, R.B. (1995). *Ethics*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

Kohn, A. (1997). How not to teach values: A critical look at character education. *Phi Delta Kappan, 78*(6), 429-437.

Lickona, T. (1996). Eleven principles of effective character education. *Journal of Moral Education, 25*(1), 93-100.

Lockwood, A. L. (1993). A letter to character educators. *Educational Leadership, 51*, 72-75.

Lunenburg, F. C., & Irby, B. J. (2006). *The principalship: Vision to action*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.

Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. O. (2012). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.

Marshall, C. (1992, August). School administrators' values: A focus on atypicals. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 28(3), 368-386.

McBrien, J. L., & Brandt, R. S. (1997). *The Language of Learning: A Guide to Education Terms.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McKerrow, K. (1997). Ethical administration: An oxymoron? J*ournal of School Leadership, 7*, 210-225.

Merriman, J., & Hill, J. (1992). Ethics, law, and sport. *Journal of Legal Aspect of Sport*, 2(2), 56-63.

Michel, G. (1995). Ethical and legal responsibilities of principals. In J.S. Kaiser (Ed.) *The 21st century principal*. Mequon, WI: Stylex Publishing Company. 125-170.

Murphy, J. (1993). Restructuring schooling: The equity infrastructure. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 4*(2), 111-130.

National Federation of State High School Associations (2003). *Coaches code of ethics*. Retrieved from http://www.dfhs.org

Noddings, N. (2013). *Caring: A feminist approach to ethics and moral education*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Palmour, J. (1986). On moral character: A practical guide to Aristotle's virtues and vices. Washington, D.C.: The Archon Institute for Leadership Development.

Phinney, A. (2004, September). *Preparedness in America's schools: A comprehensive look at terrorism preparedness in America's twenty largest school districts*. America Prepared Campaign. Retrieved from http://www.americaprepared.org/pdf/SchoolsAssessment_0904.pdf.

Polnick, B., Edmonson, S., & Fisher, A. (2003, March). *The ethical administrator*. Paper presented at the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration-American Association of School Administrators Conference within a Conference, New Orleans, LA.

Rebore, R.W. (2000). *The ethics of educational leadership*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1996). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Shapiro, J. P., & Stefkovich, J. A. (2010). *Ethical leadership and decision making in education: Applying theoretical perspectives to complex issues* (3rd edition). New York: Routledge.

Sreedharan, E., & Wakhu, B. (2010). *Restoring values: Keys to integrity, ethical behavior and governance*. New Delhi, India: Sage Publications India.

Stark, A. (2001, August, September). Pizza Hut, Domino's, and the public schools. *Policy Review Online, 108*. Retrieved from http://policyreview.org/AUG01/srark.html

Sybouts, W., & Wendel, F. C. (1994). *The training and development of school principals: A handbook*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Walker, K. S. (1999) *Decision making and ethics. A study of California superintendents* (Doctoral Dissertation, University of La Verne, 1999). *UMI Dissertation Services, 9944527*.

Watson, G. W. (2013). *Organizational ethical behavior*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Wellman, C. (1999). *The proliferation of rights: Moral progress or empty rhetoric*? Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Willower D. J., & Licata J. W. (1997). *Values and valuation in the practice of educational administration*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Beverly J. Irby, Ed.D. is currently Program Chair and Associate Department Head for Educational Administration and Human Resource Development at Texas A&M University. She is also the Director of the Educational Leadership Research Center. She has a B.S. in Education degree with a double minor in math and science and master's and doctoral degrees from The University of Mississippi. Her primary research interests center on issues of social responsibility, including women's leadership issues, bilingual and ESL education administrative structures, curriculum, and instructional strategies. She is the author of more than 100 refereed articles, chapters, and books. Dr. Irby has also written curricular materials for Spanish-speaking children. Her work is published in prestigious research and instructional journals and she has also contributed science components to SRA McGraw-Hill's early childhood curriculum. She is the recipient of the AERA and RWE Willystine Goodsell Award, the Texas Council of Women School Executives Margaret Montgomery Leadership Award, the Diana Marion-Garcia Houston Area Bilingual Advocacy Award, the National Association of Bilingual Education and AERA Educational Research Reviewer of the Year Award, the Texas Association of Bilingual Education Higher Education Honoree 2013, and the TAMU Administrator Women's Progress Award 2014. She is on the Executive Boards of Research on the Superintendency, Special Interest Group, and the Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership SIGs for the American Educational Research Association. She is the co-developer of a 21st century leadership theory, *The Synergistic Leadership Theory*, one of the only leadership theories that purposefully included women in the development and validation of the theory. She has garnered funding for grants and contracts in access of $20,000,000 awarded by the U.S. Department of Education, OSERS, TRIO, and IES via the TAMU Research Foundation and NSF. She has held the title of the Texas State University System Regents' Distinguished Professor during her tenure with the System.

Fred C. Lunenburg, Ph.D. is the Jimmy N. Merchant Professor of Education at Sam Houston State University, where he teaches graduate courses in educational leadership. He has taught at the University of Louisville and Loyola University Chicago. In addition, he has served as a high school English teacher, principal, superintendent of schools, and university dean. He has authored or co-authored 25 books and more than 200 journal articles. His best known books include: *Educational Administration: Concepts and Practices* (Wadsworth/Cengage Learning, 1991, 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012), *Creating a Culture for High-Performing Schools* (Rowman & Littlefield, 2008, 2012), *Writing a Successful Thesis or Dissertation* (Corwin, 2008), *The Principalship: Vision to Action* (Wadsworth/Cengage Learning, 2006), *Shaping the Future* (Rowman & Littlefield, 2003), *The Changing World of School Administration* (Rowman & Littlefield, 2002), and *High Expectations: An Action Plan for Implementing Goals 2000* (Sage, 2000).

PREFERRED CITATION

Irby, B. J. & Lunenburg, F. C. (2014). Promoting ethical behavior for school administrators. *Journal of Ethical Educational Leadership, 1*(4), 1-28. Retrieved from: http://www.cojeel.org.