

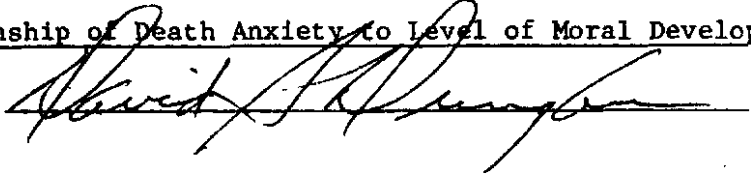
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: The Relationship of Death Anxiety to Level of Moral Development

Abstract approved:



The purpose of the present study was to investigate what relationship, if any, exists between death anxiety and level of moral development. It was hypothesized that the higher the index of moral development (as measured by Rest's Defining Issues Test - DIT) the higher the level of death anxiety reported as measured by Templer's Death Anxiety Scale (DAS). In addition, comparisons were made between males and females to determine if a significant difference exists between their DAS and DIT scores.

The sample consisted of 106 male and 241 female undergraduate students currently enrolled in psychology courses at two midwestern universities. The subjects ranged from 17 to 52 years of age with a mean age of 20.33 for the male subjects and 21.46 years for the female subjects. Each subject completed the DIT and DAS during a regular classroom period. The DIT scores were assigned to three categories which reflected clustering determined by visual inspection of the data.

The results indicated a correlation of $-.67$ ($p < .01$) between level of moral development and death anxiety. Further analysis revealed that the lowest DIT category had DAS scores that were significantly ($p < .01$)

higher than the DAS scores of the highest DIT category. The DAS scores of the lowest DIT category were also significantly ($p < .05$) higher than those of the middle DIT category. The DAS scores of the middle and highest DIT categories did not differ. In addition, females had significantly ($p < .01$) higher death anxiety than males. There was no difference found in DAS scores as a function of age level. The last finding indicated that the females were significantly ($p < .05$) more developed in moral reasoning than the males.

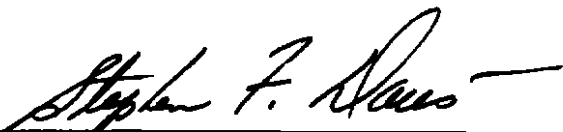
The Relationship of Death Anxiety
to Level of Moral Development

A Thesis
Presented to
The Department of Psychology
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In Partial Fulfillment
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Master of Science

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For many years man has questioned how individuals acquire the moral dimension present within their personality, if indeed they do possess such a moral dimension. Is morality innate, learned, or a combination of both? John Dewey (1964) was the first to state that the acquisition of moral judgment follows a cognitive-developmental approach. This approach was labelled cognitive because it recognizes that moral judgment has its basis in stimulating the active thinking of the individual about moral issues and decisions. Through research, Dewey (1930) postulated that three levels of moral development exist for man: (1) the premoral or preconventional level of behavior, which is motivated by biological and social impulses; (2) the conventional level of behavior, in which the individual accepts the standards of the group with very few questions asked; and (3) the autonomous level, in which the individual thinks and judges for himself whether a purpose is good and does not accept the standards of a group without first reflecting upon them.

Since Dewey's level of moral development were only theoretical statements, Piaget (1948) attempted to go one step further by actually defining stages of moral judgment in children by actual interviews with children and observations of children playing games. From the interview and observation material, Piaget redefined Dewey's three levels of moral development as follows: (1) the premoral stage, where the child had no

sense of obligation to rules; (2) the heteronomous stage, where the right was literal obedience to rules and an equation of obligation with submission to power and punishment; and (3) the autonomous stage, where the purpose and consequences of following rules are considered and obligation is based on reciprocity and exchange.

Little concern was given to the correctness of the Dewey-Piaget levels and stages of moral development until the mid 1950's when Kohlberg (1958) began redefining and validating these stages through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. Kohlberg's original study of moral development began with his doctoral dissertation. His basic study was of seventy-five boys, who ranged in age from ten to sixteen years (Kohlberg, 1958). Kohlberg followed their development for twelve years at three year intervals. In addition to his longitudinal study of the seventy-five boys, Kohlberg explored moral development in such cultures as Great Britian, Canada, Taiwan, Mexico, and Turkey. As a result of these studies, Kohlberg developed three levels of moral development. Further, he delineated two distinct stages within each level. Kohlberg's (1975) levels and stages are as follows: (I) Preconventional level -- where the child responds to rules and labels of good and bad, but interprets these labels in terms of the physical consequences of the action; Stage 1 -- the punishment and obedience orientation, Stage 2 -- the instrumental-relativist orientation; (II) Conventional level -- where maintaining the expectations of the individual's family, group, or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right, regardless of immediate and obvious consequences;

Stage 3 -- the interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation, Stage 4 -- the law and order orientation; (III) Post-Conventional, autonomous or principled level -- where there is a clear effort to define moral values and principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups or persons holding these principles and apart from the individual's own identification with these groups; Stage 5 -- the social-contract, legalistic orientation, Stage 6 -- the universal-ethical principle orientation.

Because Kohlberg validated his stages through the use of longitudinal studies, it is implied that each stage has certain unique, empirical characteristics. Further, Kohlberg's theory states that each individual passes from one stage of development to the next through an invariant sequence. Rest, Turiel, and Kohlberg (1969) defined an invariant sequence as one "in which attainment of an advanced stage is dependent on the attainment of each of the preceding stages. It is further assumed that a more advanced stage is not simply an addition to a less advanced stage, but represents a reorganization of less advanced levels" (p. 226). In other words, everyone begins with Stage 1 and progressively works their way through the more advanced stages without omitting any stage of morality. However, individuals will move through these stages at varying speeds, and at times may be found half in and half out of a particular stage (Kohlberg, 1968). Additionally, each stage also implies a qualitative difference in the mode of thinking of cognition. This characteristic of moral stages can be compared to Piaget's transition to abstract reflective thought,

it is the transition from logical inference as a set of concrete operations to a logical inference as a set of formal operations or "operations upon operations." "Operations upon operations" imply that the adolescent can classify classification, that he can combine combinations, that he can relate relationships. It implies that he can think about thought, and create thought systems or "hypothetico-deductive" theories (as presented by Kohlberg and Gilligan, 1971).

A third characteristic of moral stages is that each of these different and sequential modes of thought forms a "structured whole", or an underlying thought-organization. The last characteristic found by Kohlberg is that the stages are hierarchially integrated. More specifically, thinking at a higher stage allows an individual to comprehend lower-stage thinking. Thus, by hierarchially integrating the different modes of thought, each stage of moral development becomes a better cognitive organization than the previous one. Every element present in the previous stage is reorganized into a more comprehensive structure which allows the individual to function more adequately when making moral decisions (Kohlberg, 1968). This specific characteristic of moral stages has been demonstrated by a series of studies (Turiel, 1966; Rest, Turiel & Kohlberg, 1969) which indicated that children and adolescents comprehend all stages up to their own and at times one stage beyond their own; but comprehension does not exceed this stage. More importantly, Kohlberg (1968) states that the prefer this next stage.

To provide further support for Kohlberg's theory, Turiel (1966) conducted a study designed to test the following two hypotheses: (a) the six stages of moral judgment form an invariant sequence, and (b) each stage represents a reorganization and displacement of the preceding

stages. In addition, Turiel predicted that subjects would be influenced more by reasoning one stage above their dominant stage than by reasoning two stages above; and since the stages are hierarchially integrated, subjects will tend to reject reasoning at a lower stage. The subjects used in Turiel's study were 44 boys ranging in age from 12 years 0 months to 13 years 7 months. All subjects were from a middle-class background.

In Turiel's study a pretest-posttest design was used. During the pretest, Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview (1958) was administered to determine the subject's dominant stage of moral reasoning. The experimental phase consisted of exposing the subject to moral reasoning either one stage below (-1), one stage above (+1), or two stages above (+2) his own dominant stage. In the final phase of the study, the Moral Judgment Interview was readministered in order to assess the influence of the experimental procedure upon moral reasoning. The results indicated that (+1) exposure was more effective than (+2) exposure, which supports Kohlberg's invariant sequential concept of moral development.

Kurtines and Greif (1974) reviewed and evaluated Turiel's study and discovered that his findings were not totally accurate. According to Turiel's hypothesis, those subjects in the (+1) exposure group should show a significantly greater treatment effect than the subjects in the (-1) and (+2) exposure groups. Once the mean scores of the (+1) and (+2) treatment groups were corrected, a significant difference was found ($t=3.55$, $p<.005$), suggesting that (+1) treatment was more effective than (+2) treatment. However, the one-tailed t test comparing the (+1) and

(-1) treatment groups was not significant ($t=1.43$, $p<.10$). According to Kurtines and Grief (1974), Turiel claimed that his hypothesis was supported because the results reached a "borderline level of significance", which in all actuality is not truly a significant difference.

Rest, Turiel, and Kohlberg (1969) replicated Turiel's (1966) findings and attempted to collect new data to support and explain his results. They studied the level of moral development of each subject as determined by preference and comprehension of moral judgments made by others. It was hypothesized: (a) that stages of thinking above a subjects predominant stage would be preferred to those below his stage if the subject were asked to choose among them; (b) that stages of thinking above a subject's predominant stage are increasingly more difficult to comprehend than stages below his own level and, therefore, they will not be as correctly reproduced as the lower stages; (c) that these two principles interact in such a way that subjects assimilate into their own thinking the one stage above their dominant stage more readily than one stage below or two stages above.

Rest et al. (1969) used 45 subjects, 11 males and 11 females between the ages of 10 years 6 months and 12 years 3 months; and 12 males and 11 females between the ages of 13 years 4 months and 14 years 6 months. All subjects were currently enrolled in a Catholic parochial school located in New York. The mean IQ as measured by the Otis was 119 with a range of 95 to 150. After determining each subject's dominant moral stage through the use of a pretest, each subject was presented with a series of moral statements which corresponded to one stage below,

one stage above, and two stages above their own dominant stage. The subjects were then allowed to use these moral statements in order to respond to moral dilemmas that were presented. The results indicated that the children generally preferred concepts above their own to concepts below their own stage. In addition, it was found that thinking two stages above their own dominant stage was more difficult to comprehend than thinking one stage above; and thinking one stage above was more difficult to comprehend than one stage below. Lastly, assimilation, the process whereby new concepts are incorporated into existing ones, is a result of both the subject's preference and the highest level of thinking comprehended (the current level of moral judgment). This study further supports Kohlberg's concept of hierarchical integration in moral judgment.

Rest (1973) continued to study the hierarchical nature of moral judgment by examining the patterns of comprehension and preference of the different moral stages. Rest, while working within Kohlberg's basic frame of reference, reasoned that each new moral stage is a transformation of the elements to produce a new mode of thinking. In other words, each moral stage is hierarchially related. It is usually assumed in most studies of moral judgment that a subject's decision is produced at the highest stage he is capable of comprehending. But, according to Rest, it is possible that a subject may not make a moral decision based upon his highest stage of comprehension. Rest (1973) examined the patterns of comprehension capacity and preference of the stages. More specifically, the following three hypotheses were tested: (a) state-

ments at stages above the subject's dominant stage are more difficult to comprehend than stages below his own stage; (b) as the subjects comprehend the various stages of thinking, they tend to prefer the highest stage comprehended; and (c) there should be a match between the subject's dominant stage as determined by the pretest interview and the highest stage that was comprehended of prototypic statements. Forty-seven twelfth grade students from a middle-class suburb of Chicago served as subjects. The first step in the experimental procedure was to pretest the subjects, by the use of Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview (1958), to determine their dominant stage of moral development. In the second phase of the study, each subject was presented with a set of prototypic statements and asked to give an equivalent recapitulation of each statement, to state how the statements compared with their own ideas, to evaluate or criticize the statements, to rate each statement on a scale from one to five on how convincing or persuasive an argument it presented, and to rank in order the statements on the basis of their comparative convincingness. The results of this study indicated four major findings with regard to patterns of comprehension capacity. The first finding was that the subjects tended to score all hits or all misses in comprehending each of the stages prototypic statements. Secondly, if a subject showed high comprehension at a given stage, there was also high comprehension of all the preceding stages. Third, there was a close relation of comprehension scores to the subject's own dominant stage of moral judgment as determined by the pretest. The fourth finding was that the highest stage used on the pretest, rather

than the dominant stage, was the best predictor of comprehension. There was also two preference findings of importance. In support of the hypothesis, it was found that as subjects comprehend the various stages, they tend to prefer the highest stage comprehended. The second preference finding was that virtually all subjects tended to prefer the highest stage statements in their developmental order; that is, they preferred Stage 6 prototypic statements the most, then Stage 5, and so on. Thus, this study provided further supportive evidence for the cognitive-developmental theory and its concept of hierarchial stages.

Kohlberg (1958) developed the Moral Judgment Interview to specifically assess the stage of moral development at which an individual was currently operating. This projective instrument consists of nine hypothetical moral dilemmas. The individual is asked to state what should be done in a particular situation and also to state the reasoning behind their decision. One of the weaknesses in this test is that it is subjectively scored. This fact, obviously, allows wide room for both scoring error and difference of opinion to occur and influence the evaluation.

Rest, who was very interested and involved in research concerning Kohlberg's stage theory, developed a more objective device for measuring moral development. Rest (1974) working within Kohlberg's basic frame of reference, also used hypothetical moral dilemmas to construct his assessment device, the Defining Issues Test. Through the development of this more objective test, much of the criticism concerning Kohlberg's instrument has been corrected. Hence, it is now possible to calculate an objective measurement of one's stage of moral development, and

further to make valid cross-subject comparisons of such scores. Concurrent with the development of the Defining Issues Test (DIT), Rest (1974) also developed a manual, and more recently has published Development In Judging Moral Issues (1979). These manuscripts include such information as test administration, scoring, and a number of published and unpublished studies relating to validity and reliability of the DIT. With the use of the Moral Judgment Interview, Kohlberg assigns a dominant stage, through stage scoring, to each subject. When Kohlberg states that a subject is "at" a given stage, it is only meant that the stage represents his most common way of reasoning about moral issues. People are not stages (Hersh, Paolitto, & Reimer, 1979). In contrast, Rest has chosen the P score as the most useful way to index moral development when comparing it with another variable (Rest, 1974). The P score or "Principled" morality score is a composite of the raw scores of Stages 5 and 6 (further defined in Chapter 2). Therefore, in this study the P score has been used as the index of moral development.

Alozie (1976) analyzed the interrelationship between Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) and Rest's DIT. It was hypothesized that since these two tests of moral development come from the same theoretical background the correlation between them should be fairly high. Also, since the tests use different methods in collecting and describing data, there should be differences in the stages of development assigned to the same subjects. Alozie (1976) used a sample population of 91 subjects; 31 college students (19 female, 18 males) and 54 junior high Caucasian males. Each subject was administered the MJI, then the DIT was completed.

The results indicated that a strong relationship existed between the two tests ($r=.75$). In addition, there was a systematic difference between the developmental stages assigned to the same subject by the two tests. The DIT rated subjects higher than the MJI by an average of 1.5 stages. These results suggest that the observed relationship between these two instruments is due to their common origin from the same theoretical background.

Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, and Anderson (1974) reported a study which attempted to answer the following five questions: (a) Are there differences in the way people choose the most important issues of moral dilemmas? (b) Do groups that can be presumed to be at different developmental levels show significant differences? Do the more advanced groups choose the higher stage statements? (c) Is preference for the higher stage statements showing a "blind" preference for complexity, or does appreciation go along with comprehension? (d) Does the way that a subject chooses the most important issue of hypothetical moral dilemmas relate to his stance on current real social-moral-political controversies? (e) What is the degree of correlation between Kohlberg's present scale and the DIT?

In this study 193 subjects were used; 73 ninth grade students, 40 twelfth grade students, 40 college and graduate school students with approximately equal males and females from each class, 25 seminary students and 15 doctoral students in moral philosophy and political science. Each student was asked to complete the DIT. A P score was determined for each subject. Other areas, such as intelligence, comprehension of social-moral concepts, socioeconomic status, and how they

effected the P scores, were also examined. The results yielded a .81 test-retest reliability coefficient (using the ninth grade students only). Lower stage items tended to be less important and the higher stage items more important to the more advanced students. Also, those students presumed to be at more advanced developmental levels had significantly higher scores. A significant relationship was shown between the P score and each of the following: comprehension of social-moral concepts, Differential Ability Tests, and Kohlberg's MJI. Rest et al. (1974) stated, "these correlations suggest that as subjects develop cognitively they come to define moral dilemmas more complexly and come to place greater importance on principled moral thinking than do the less cognitively advanced subjects" (p.498). The results also indicated that the P score was more closely related to cognitive development than to socioeconomic status. A substantial correlation was also found between the P score and stances on the current social-moral-political issues. As in the Alozie (1976) study, a correlation of .68 between Kohlberg's MJI and the P score indicated a high degree of similarity between these two instruments.

One of the implications of the cognitive-developmental theory is that subjects studied longitudinally should show directional change, or more specifically, movement into more advanced stages. In order to investigate this implication, Rest (1975) conducted a longitudinal study using as his potential sample population those subjects employed in the Rest et al. (1974) study. The sample for this study consisted of 88 subjects, 50 of whom were former junior high students and 38 were former senior high students. Of these 88 subjects, 47 were females and

41 were males. As in the Rest et al. (1974) study, each subject was given the DIT, the Comprehension of Social-Moral Concepts Test, and the Law and Order Attitude Test. In addition, life-experience questions were asked. The results of this study indicated that the P scores on the DIT had increased significantly over the two-year period. Looking at the life experiences of these subjects, formal education seemed to be strongly associated with the P score. There was also a significant increase in the Comprehension test scores, and a significant decrease in the Law and Order test scores, which indicated a shift in their value positions. In addition to the increased P score, the former junior high students showed movement from preconventional morality to conventional morality. The subjects also showed developmental changes over the two-year period on the Comprehension and Law and Order tests. In this study there was little evidence for characterizing the developmental changes as step-by-step progression. Changes existed as a more gradual upward shift in the distribution of responses.

White (1973) reported research designed to examine the possibility of objectively measuring Kohlberg's stages of moral development, the relationship between moral maturity and biographical data, and the relationship between year in school and moral judgment. The sample population consisted of 186 male college students (freshmen, sophomores and seniors). Each subject was administered the Kohlberg MJI (four moral dilemmas were presented) and an objective measure of moral development (an early form of the Defining Issues Test). During freshmen orientation, each subject had filled out biographical data forms which were also used in the study to divide them into five sub-groups. The

results indicated that there was no significant difference in moral maturity between the freshmen, sophomores, and senior, although being a senior was the most important predictor of highest moral maturity. There was also no significant difference between moral maturity and biographical data. By using the objective measure of moral development, the subjects tended to rate those items highest which corresponded with their dominant stage as measured by the MJI. The findings support the use of an objective measure of Kohlberg's stages and also add validity to the DIT.

Kohlberg (1969) proposed that sex role development is related to cognitive development. According to Kohlberg, once younger children attain gender constancy, they come to view conformity to their sex role as moral and selectively attend to and imitate either same-sex models or gender-stereotyped behavior. In view of this, Leahy and Eiter (1980) reasoned that ego and moral development stages would share structural similarities with sex role self-concepts. The first purpose of this study was to explore age-related differences in sex role self-concepts, with the expectation that older subjects would be more androgynous in their self-concepts. The second question under investigation was whether postconventional moral judgment is associated with real and ideal self-images that incorporate opposite-sex characteristics. The expectation was that the use of postconventional moral judgment would be associated with more androgynous real and ideal self-image. The subjects included in this study were 34 eighth graders, 44 high school juniors and seniors, and 38 college students. The mean ages for these three groups were 13.7 years, 17.2 years, and 20.6 years, respectively. There was an equal

number of males and females at each age. Each subject was tested on Rest's DIT and on Bem's (1974) Sexual Role Inventory, with both real and ideal self-image formats. The results indicated that 17-year-old and college-age males had more preference for feminine characteristics and less preference for masculine characteristics when compared with 13-year-old males. Also, college-age females had a greater preference for masculine characteristics as compared to feminine characteristics; however, younger females had no preference for sex-typed characteristics. A third finding was that subjects at higher stages of moral judgment (postconventional stages) were more likely to incorporate characteristics of the opposite sex in their self-image (both real and ideal). The findings of this study offer additional support for the cognitive developmental and ego developmental theories that claim that there is less sex typing in sex role images at higher developmental levels.

When examining the DIT, it can be seen that it is objectively scored and that each subject simply rates and ranks each statement. However, one disadvantage of this instrument is that the answers cannot be probed and it is possible for subjects to falsify their responses. With this question in mind, McGeorge (1975) investigated the susceptibility to faking on the DIT. In this study 146 first-year students enrolled at a teacher's college, 21 males and 125 females, with a mean age of 19.02 years, completed the DIT on two occasions 18 days apart. Each student was given instructions to either fake good, fake bad, or to record their own views (standard). Upon instructions each subject was placed in one of five treatment groups: (a) standard-standard, (b) standard-good, (c) good-standard, (d) standard-bad, (e) bad-standard.

After the completion of each questionnaire a P score was determined. The results indicated that the students were unable to fake high under the good-standard and standard-good conditions. Also, subjects in the bad-standard and standard-bad conditions scored significantly lower when asked to fake bad. No significant difference existed between the P scores of the standard-standard group. Once again, these results support the cognitive developmental theory of invariant sequence of stages of moral judgment. Therefore, the subject is able to respond appropriately when asked to fake bad because he can recognize the lower stages; whereas, the subject does not have access to, nor the ability to comprehend, the higher cognitive stages.

Davison, Robbins, and Swanson (1978) conducted a study to examine the hierarchial and stage-ordering theories of moral development. In this investigation the DIT was distributed to 40 junior high students, 40 senior high students, 40 college undergraduate students, and 40 graduate students which consisted of 25 male seminary students and 15 male doctoral students in moral philosophy. The study used the stage divisions: Stage 2 (I'll scratch your back if you'll scratch mine), Stage 3 (be considerate, nice, and kind, and you'll get along with people), Stage 4 (law and order), Stage 5A (morality of social contract-- even if the majority is wrong), Stage 5B (the majority determines morality for all), and Stage 6 ("the golden rule"). Intercorrelations were run between each of the different stages. It was found that correlations were higher between the adjacent stages than nonadjacent stages. This study adds further support to the cognitive developmental theory of hierarchial integration and invariant sequence.

Through the years attempts have been made to relate moral development to a variety of personality traits. In the present study an attempt will be made to examine what relationship, if any, exists between moral development and death anxiety. Several methods, such as interviews (Bromberg and Schilder, 1933; Chandler, 1950; Feifel, 1955; Jeffers, Nichols & Eisdorfer, 1961), projective techniques (Rhudick and Dibner, 1961; Shrut, 1958; McCully, 1963; Mauer, 1964), and questionnaires (Swenson, 1961; Kalish, 1963; Means, 1936; Stacey and Markin, 1952) have been used to assess death anxiety.

Lester (1967) attempted to review and summarize the various techniques used to measure fear of death in individuals and also the variables that could possibly effect death anxiety. The earliest technique utilized to assess death anxiety was the questionnaire. When using a questionnaire there is always the possibility that the responses provided are not representative of the individual. For this reason there are two possible ways of measuring death anxiety: the number of people answering a question in a particular way, and the number of people who fail to answer the question (Lester, 1967). Middleton (1936), for example, administered a 14-item questionnaire to 337 male college students and 488 female college students. Out of the 337 males, six failed to answer the questionnaire; however, 110 out of 488 females failed to answer. In this study Middleton failed to use the information gained from the second measure of death anxiety and concluded that there were no significant sex differences.

Projective techniques have also been used as a method for assessing death anxiety. Rhudick and Dibner (1961) utilized the Thematic

Apperception Test (Murray, 1943) to determine the degree of preoccupation with death, by analyzing the theme of each card presented to the subject. Shrut (1958) used a sentence completion test; and Caprio (1950) asked his subjects to recall by free association their reaction to the idea of death during their youth.

Fear of death has also been compared to many descriptive variables such as sex, occupation and education. Once again, in reference to the Middleton study (1936) it was concluded that no significant sex differences existed. However, a closer analysis of the data revealed some differences did exist between the sexes. One such difference was that females thought of their own death more and feared death more. Secondly, females avoided thoughts of death and contact with it more than males. Diggory and Rothman (1961) found that females feared the disintegration of their body significantly more than males. In addition, males seemed to be more concerned with the care of dependents while females feared more the pain of dying. In yet another study, Lowry (1965) concluded that when using TAT cards females emphasized themes of loss and mourning while males emphasized violence and frustration.

When examining the relationship between fear of death and education, Swenson (1961) found that the less educated elderly adults tended to avoid the issue of death more than those with a higher level of education; and those individual with a college education tended to express their thoughts on the issue of death more specifically even if they feared it. Jeffers, Nichols and Eisendorfer (1961) concluded that low IQ was associated with more death anxiety. Christ (1961) and Rhudick and Dibner (1961) found no effect with the amount of schooling. As can

be seen with the contrast in findings, further research is indicated in the area of education and fear of death.

Looking at occupational variables, Stacey and Markin (1952) found that engineering students showed less preoccupation with death and avoided contact with thoughts of death and death situations; in contrast, law students were more concerned with thoughts of death. Finally, prisoners were most preoccupied with death and were more depressed by death situations. Lester (1967) questioned Stacey and Markin's (1952) selection of occupations to investigate since there appeared to be no rationale in these choices. Instead, Lester argued that it would have been more appropriate to compare high risk occupations with those involving low risk.

Ford, Alexander, and Lester (1971) investigated fear of death of those employed as policemen. The subjects used in this study were 17 male policemen and 15 mailmen. The ages of these subjects ranged from 23 to 54 years, with a median age of 34 years for the policemen and 42 years for the mailmen. In this study the subjects were given two fear of death scales (one being Lester's FODS) and the semantic differential (utilizing five concepts to be rated on evaluative, potency, and activity scales, including the concepts of life and death) to complete. The results revealed no significant differences between the two groups on such issues as fear for death of self, death of others, dying of self, dying of others, and general fear of death. In addition, the two groups did not differ significantly in their ratings of the concepts of life and death as measured by the semantic differential. Ford et al. (1971)

felt that the policemen may have worked through their death anxiety because they were very cooperative in participating in the study and were less defensive than the mailmen. When approached, six out of 23 policemen refused to participate, while 22 out of 37 mailmen refused to volunteer for the study.

Alexander and Lester (1972) presented a study which examined the fear of death in those involved in parachute jumping. The subjects involved were 31 sky divers and 15 individuals training to sky dive. Of the 31 sky divers 10 were females; the subjects ranged in age from 18 to 49 years, with a median age of 21 years. Each subject was matched for age and sex with a college student who served as a control. Once again in this study, two fear of death scales and the semantic differential were administered to each subject. As in the previous study, no significant difference was found between the parachute jumpers and the control group. However, there was a significant differences found between the experienced and inexperienced jumpers. Experienced jumpers expressed significantly lower death anxiety. This significant difference may be a result of denial of death anxiety on the part of the experienced parachute jumpers.

In this study the Death Anxiety Scale (DAS) developed by Templer (1970) will be used to assess the level or degree of death anxiety. Templer's DAS is an objective instrument which consists of fifteen true-false items regarding fears about death and illness. The DAS scores obtained are based on the number of statements the subject agrees are true about himself. When the Death Anxiety Scale was being developed, 40 items were devised and related for face validity by seven judges -- a

clinical psychologist, two graduate students in clinical psychology, and four chaplains in a state mental hospital. Nine of the items were discarded and the remaining 31 items were embedded in the last 200 items of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). During item analysis it was decided that the 15 items which had point biserial coefficients significant at the .10 level in two out of three analyses would be retained. After a three week interval the DAS was readministered which resulted in a test-retest reliability of .83. In order to validate the DAS, the questionnaire was administered to mentally ill patients who had verbalized a high degree of death anxiety and to a control group at a state mental hospital. It was found that psychiatric patients who had verbalized a high fear of death had significantly higher DAS scores than the control group of patients. The DAS, Boyar's (1964) Fear of Death Scale (FODS), a sequential word association task and the MMPI were administered to 77 advanced undergraduates for the purpose of additional validation. The results indicated a significant correlation between Templer's DAS, Boyar's FODS scale, and the word association task. Additionally, the DAS was also significantly correlated with the Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Welsh Anxiety Scale on the MMPI, and highly, though not significantly, with the Welsh Anxiety Index on the MMPI.

To determine if embedding of the items has an effect on the DAS score, Templer and Ruff (1971) administered the DAS to 158 community college students. The DAS items were embedded in the last 200 items of the MMPI for 78 subjects, 30 males and 48 females; and not embedded for 80 subjects, 32 males and 48 females. The DAS means were 7.08 and 7.30

for the embedded and nonembedded groups, respectively. These differences were not significant. The standard deviations of 3.36 and 2.75 did not differ significantly. However, the variances of 11.29 and 7.58 were found to be significantly different. Due to the significant differences in variances, a replication of the first study was also included to rule out Type I error. The DAS was administered in a similar fashion to 186 different students. No significant differences were found in this study. The authors concluded that embedding of the items apparently had little or no effect upon DAS scores.

Templer and Ruff (1971) also concluded that psychiatric patients obtain higher death anxiety scores than normals; and that females consistently have higher DAS scores than males. On the other hand, in a study involving over 2500 subjects ranging in age from 19 to 85 years, Templer, Ruff, and Franks (1971) found no significant relationship between age and DAS scores.

Templer, Lester, and Ruff (1974) directly investigated fear of death and its relationship to femininity. Twenty female and 35 male undergraduate students were administered two fear of death scales and four weeks later were given the Femininity Scale of Gough (1952) to complete. The results indicated significant correlations between the females' scores on the Femininity Scale with fear of others dying, the males' scores on the Femininity Scale with fear of own death and with fear of others dying. In the second phase of this study, Templer et al. (1974) conducted an investigation to determine whether there were positive correlations between femininity and Templer's Death Anxiety

scale and whether such correlations could be attributed to both femininity and death anxiety being associated with general anxiety. In this study 72 female and 29 male undergraduate were administered the DAS, the Femininity Scale, and the Costello and Comrey Anxiety Scale (1967). The results of the Death Anxiety-Femininity correlations were .22 ($p < .05$) for the females and .42 ($p < .025$) for the males. Anxiety-Femininity correlations were .58 ($p < .005$) for the females and .04 for the males. Death Anxiety-Anxiety correlations were .25 ($p < .025$) for the females and .42 ($p < .025$) for the males. These results suggested that for the females most of variance reflected by the death anxiety-femininity correlation was a function of general anxiety.

Koob and Davis (1977) investigated fear of death in military officers and their wives. Based on the results of the Templer et al. (1974) study, it was predicted that the wives would have higher death anxiety scores than their husbands. The DAS was administered to 72 military officers serving on active duty and their wives. In support of the Templer et al. (1974) results, the wives in the Koob and Davis (1977) study had significantly higher death anxiety than their husbands. As Templer and Ruff (1971) provided the means and standard deviations for various samples, it was possible for Koob and Davis to make comparisons between the officers and their wives and various other groups. It was found that the officers and their wives had lower fear of death than a number of other groups, and the fear of death in the officers was similar to that shown by those employed in low-risk occupations.

Tolor and Reznikoff (1967) examined the relations between insight, depression-sensitization, internal-external control, and death anxiety.

In this study, the following statements were hypothesized: (a) Subjects who sensitize (a reaction tendency in the face of potentially threatening stimuli) tend to be more insightful than those who repress; (b) Subjects who expect internal controls tend to be more insightful than those who anticipate external controls; (c) Subjects who sensitize tend to experience more overt death anxiety than those who repress; and (d) Subjects who believe in external controls tend to have more overt death anxiety than those who feel less subject to environmental forces. The subjects were 79 students enrolled in an introductory psychology class at a men's liberal arts college. The subjects ranged in age from 18 to 22 years. Each subject was seen in two sessions with a one week interval between sessions. In the first session the subjects were administered the Tolor-Reznikoff Test of Insight (1960), the I-E scale (Rotter, 1966) and the Death Anxiety scale (Livingston and Zimet, 1965). The subjects' Verbal score from the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) was also obtained to use as an estimate of intellectual status. The following week, the subjects were given the R-S scale, which is composed of selected items from the MMPI. The results supported three of the four hypotheses: (a) the subject's expectation of internal control of reinforcement was significantly related to insight; (b) sensitizing tendencies of individuals and overt death anxiety were significantly related; and (c) a belief in external controls was significantly related to overt death anxiety. Although not hypothesized, it was found that a subject's expectation of external control was significantly related to repression.

Sadowski, Davis, and Loftus-Vergari (1980) reexamined the relationship between locus of control and death anxiety in an attempt to reconcile inconsistencies in the literature. To avoid restrictions due to age or sample homogeneity, a sample with a broad age range was employed, and age was also included as a factor in the analyses. The DAS was used as the measure of death anxiety. The Reid-Ware (1973, 1974) Three Factor Locus of Control Scale was employed. This instrument contains two subscales from Rotter's I-E scale (1966), the Fatalism and Social System Control scales, as well as a third scale, Self-control. Finally, separate regression analyses were conducted on the data from the subscales for each gender. The subjects who participated in this study were 164 males and 211 female undergraduate students enrolled in lower division psychology and sociology classes. The males ranged in age from 18 to 49 years, with a mean age of 24.07. The females ranged from 17 to 39 years of age, with a mean age of 20.32 years. Both scales used in this study were administered during regular class periods. Separate regression analyses indicated that, for males, death anxiety was significantly related to the Fatalism dimension of the Reid-Ware scale. For the females, a significant relationship was found between death anxiety and the Social System Control dimension. The Self-control factor was significantly related to death anxiety for both genders. It was also found that women expressed greater death anxiety than males.

Combining the two lines of research reviewed above, it would appear that an investigation relating moral development to death anxiety has not been conducted. The present study was conducted to remedy this situation. It was hypothesized that the higher the index of moral

development (P score as measured by Rest's DIT) the higher the level of death anxiety reported as measured by Templer's DAS. Of further interest will be a comparison between the males and females to determine if a significant difference exists between their DAS scores. Based upon previous data (Templer and Ruff, 1971), it would be expected that the females will have significantly higher DAS scores than the males. Another purpose of the present study was to compare the P scores of the males and females to determine if a significant difference exists between the two groups. As Holstein (1972) found females to be less morally mature than males, it might be expected that the females would have lower P scores than the males.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Subjects

The population sample for this study was drawn from Emporia State University and Wichita State University. The sample consisted of 106 male and 241 female undergraduate students currently enrolled in psychology courses. The subjects ranged from 17 to 52 years of age, with a mean age of 20.33 years for the male subjects and 21.46 years for the female subjects. A total of 121 subjects (54 males, 67 females) who participated in this study were eliminated because they failed to complete the tests or because the responses given did not meet the requirements for internal consistency on the DIT.

Testing Instruments

Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT) -- This test consists of six hypothetical stories in which the subject is asked to make a moral decision. However, these decisions are not what is scored. The moral judgment score is derived from a list of twelve statements which have each been rated by Rest as representing one of the six stages of moral development. Actually, in this test of moral development there are no Stage 1 type statements; there are two Stage 5 type statements, labelled 5A and 5B; there is a Stage A type statement which has been compared to a Stage 4½ (Colby, 1978) type statement or an anti-establishment type statement; and a Stage M type statement, which is meaningless but sounds impressive. Each subject is asked to rate all twelve statements as great, much, some, little or no importance to the decision making process

of each dilemma. Then the subject is asked to rank the four most important statements (from greatest to least) which helped them in the decision making process.

Instead of using Kohlberg's method of stage scoring, Rest developed the P score as the most useful way to index moral development (Rest, 1974). The P score or the "Principled" morality score is determined in the following manner. The four ranked statements are given a weighted score of 4, 3, 2, or 1 according to whether it is ranked first, second, third, or fourth. The raw stage score is the sum of all six of the stories individual scores. The raw P score is the sum of the raw scores from Stages 5 and 6.

To assure valid tests, there were three internal checks for subject reliability. One check used is the Consistency Check, which involves comparing the subject's four rankings with his ratings for the twelve statements. For example, if a subject ranks an item first or most important, then his ratings for that item should have no other items higher, although other items may tie in rating (Rest, 1974). This Consistency Check was only performed on the first two rankings. A protocol was discarded if there were more than two stories with inconsistencies or if one story had more than eight inconsistencies.

A second check of reliability examined the M score. Stage M type statements do not represent any stage of thinking but rather represent a subject's tendency to endorse statements for their impressiveness rather than their meaning (Rest, 1974). If a subject received a raw M score of eight the protocol was eliminated. The third internal check was

conducted by observing the discrimination in the ratings of the twelve statements for each story. If one story had more than nine items rated the same the protocol was discarded (Rest, personal communication, 1981). A copy of Rest's Defining Issues Test appears in Appendix I.

Templer's Death Anxiety Scale (DAS) -- This test consists of 15 true-false items regarding fears about death and various illnesses. The DAS scores obtained are based on the number of statements the subject agrees are true about himself. A copy of Templer's Death Anxiety Scale appears in Appendix 2.

Procedure

The students used in this project were approached during their regular class periods and asked to volunteer to serve as subjects. Each subject was asked to fill out two questionnaires. They were told that the first questionnaire was concerned with their opinion about social problems (Rest's Defining Issues Test). The first page of the questionnaire explained to the subject that this test was asking only for their opinion, so there were no "right" or "wrong" answers. In addition, the first two pages of the questionnaire included a sample story and questions, which explained the instructions of the test.

Attached to the Defining Issues Test was the second questionnaire containing Templer's Death Anxiety Scale. The subjects were instructed to answer the items true or false as they applied to themselves. Demographically, the subjects were requested to give only their age and sex. There was no time limit placed on the two tests, but all subjects completed the questionnaires within 60 minutes.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

DIT Analysis

Separate DIT scores (P scores) were calculated for each subject as indicated by previous research (Rest, 1974; Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, & Anderson, 1974). A t test for independent samples was used to evaluate male vs. female differences in DIT scores. The results of this analysis, $t(345) = 2.19, p < .05$, indicated that females had significantly higher DIT scores than did males.

DAS Analyses

Two separate unweighted means analyses of variance were conducted on the DAS scores. Prior to analyses, the subjects were assigned (on the basis of their DIT scores) to one of three DIT categories: low (0-12), middle (13-24), and high (25 and over). These categories reflected clustering determined by visual inspection of the data and also served as a factor in both analyses. The second factor in the first analysis was sex, male vs. female. The second factor in the second analysis was age of subject: 19 years and under, 20-24 years, and 25 years and older.

The results of the first analysis indicated that death anxiety scores are related to level of moral development. Subsequent comparisons of significant effects were performed by the Newman-Keuls procedure. More specifically, the lowest DIT category had DAS scores that were significantly ($p < .01$) higher than the DAS scores of the highest DIT

category. The DAS scores of the lowest DIT category were also significantly ($p < .05$) higher than those of the middle DIT category. The DAS scores of the middle and highest DIT categories did not differ significantly. The results further indicated that females had significantly ($p < .01$) higher death anxiety than males. The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 1.

The results of the second analysis also indicated that DAS scores were significantly ($p < .01$) related to level of moral development. Through the use of the Newman-Keuls procedure, it was found that the lowest DIT category had DAS scores that were significantly ($p < .01$) higher than the DAS scores of the highest DIT category. The DAS scores of the lowest DIT category were also significantly ($p < .05$) higher than those of the middle DIT category. The DAS scores of the middle and highest DIT categories did not differ significantly. On the other hand, DAS scores did not vary significantly as a function of the age of the subject. The results of this analysis appear in Table 2.

As indicated above, the results of the analyses of variance indicated that DAS scores were significantly related to DIT level. On the other hand, these results do not yield a complete picture of the strength of the relationship between these two variables. To more specifically determine the nature of this relationship, an Eta coefficient was calculated. The Eta coefficient of $-.67$ which described this relationship was found to be significant at beyond the $.01$ level.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

In the present study, the female subjects had significantly higher DAS scores than did the male subjects. This finding is supportive of previous research (Templer & Ruff, 1971; Templer, Lester & Ruff, 1974). The reasons for these significantly higher scores are not specifically known or clearly stated but, they may be related to general anxiety (Templer, Lester & Ruff, 1974).

For many years, men such as Dewey, Piaget, and Kohlberg have postulated that stages of moral development exist; but, how do we know that this is actually true? In the present investigation, the DIT scores were arranged into three separate categories: low (0-12), middle (13-24), and high (25 and above). These categories may be reflective of stages of moral development, especially when this can be shown to be significantly related to some other variable(s), e.g. death anxiety. Hence, support for the stage concept of moral development is reflected in both analyses of variance, which showed that stage of moral development was significantly related to DAS scores. More specifically, the lowest DIT category was associated with high DAS scores, while the highest DIT category was associated with lowest DAS scores. Further supportive evidence for stages of moral development is reflected by the significant negative correlation between DIT and DAS scores.

When reading the stories presented in the DIT, it is readily apparent that the main characters in the majority of the dilemmas are

males. It is possible that, due to differing role expectations of males and females, the sex of the main character may influence the moral decision of an individual. Holstein (1972) and Kohlberg and Kramer (1969) reported that females appear to be less morally mature than males.

Holstein's (1972) research indicated that for both the 16-year old sample and the adult sample, the moral response of males was Stage 4, while that of females was Stage 3. Kohlberg and Kramer (1969) also noted this same trend and stated:

while girls are moving from high school or college to motherhood, sizable proportions of them are remaining at Stage 3, while their male age mates are dropping Stage 3 in favor of the stages above it. Stage 3 personal concordance morality is a functional morality for housewives and mothers, it is not for businessmen and professionals (p. 108).

Once again, the implication is that females are less morally mature than males.

In spite of the previous research, the converse was found to be true in the present study. The present sample of females were found to be significantly more developed in their moral reasoning than the male sample. Perhaps with the changing of role expectations and the growing concern of women for equal rights, females are also dropping Stage 3 reasoning and moving to higher stages which appear to be more functional and purposeful levels of morality.

It appears to the present investigator that research in the area of moral development and death anxiety is an open and provocative field. The present data provides some new information, but should not be considered definitive. The subject sample employed in the present

study was confined to undergraduate students enrolled in Psychology courses at two Midwestern universities. Obviously, this sampling restriction limits the generalizability of the present data. However, as the subjects were randomly sampled (i.e., representative), these results may well be considered typical of the current college population. Future studies should be conducted to ascertain whether-or-not the differences found in the present study are reflective of other, different, populations. It is hoped that the results of the present study will serve to help stimulate such research in the future.

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APPENDIX 1:

Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT)

This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right or wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. The papers will be fed to a computer to find the average for the whole group, and no one will see your individual answers.

Please give us the following information:

Sex _____ female
 Class and period _____ male
 School _____

* * * * *

In this questionnaire you will be asked to give your opinions about several stories. Here is a story as an example.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions.

If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding what car to buy?

Instructions for Part A: (Sample Question)

On the left hand side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

Great Much Some Little No.

Great	Much	Some	Little	No.	
				✓	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
✓					2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car. (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
		✓			3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
				✓	4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance.")
✓					5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car.
				✓	6. Whether the front connibilies were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance.")

Instructions for Part B: (Sample Question)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Write the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for the 2nd, 3rd and 4th most important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case come from the statements that were checked on the far left-hand side--statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then the other one as "second most important," and so on.)

SECOND MOST IMPORTANTTHIRD MOST IMPORTANTFOURTH MOST IMPORTANT231

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and decided to think about breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

Should Heinz steal the drug? (Check one)

Should steal it _____ Can't decide _____ Should not steal it _____

IMPORTANCE:

Very Much Some Little No

Very	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
					2. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much for his wife that he'd steal?
					3. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
					4. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
					5. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else.
					6. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be respected.
					7. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually.
					8. What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act towards each other.
					9. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
					10. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society.
					11. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel.
					12. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

- Most important _____
- Second Most Important _____
- Third Most Important _____
- Fourth Most Important _____

STUDENT TAKE-OVER

At Harvard University a group of students, called the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS), believe that the University should not have an army ROTC program. SDS students are against the war in Viet Nam, and the army training program helps send them to fight in Viet Nam. The SDS students demanded that Harvard end the army ROTC training program as a university course. This would mean that Harvard students could not get army training as part of their regular course work and not get credit for it towards their degrees.

Agreeing with the SDS students, the Harvard professors voted to end the ROTC program as a university course. But the President of the University stated that he wanted to keep the army program on campus as a course. The SDS students felt that the president was not going to pay attention to the faculty vote or to their demands.

So, one day last April, two hundred SDS students walked into the university's administration building, and told everyone else to get out. They said they were doing this to force Harvard to get rid of the army training program as a course.

Should the students have taken over the administration building? (Check one)

Yes, they should take it over ___ Can't decide ___ No, they shouldn't take it over ___

IMPORTANCE:

Great Much Some Little No

Great	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Are the students doing this to really help other people or are they doing it just for kicks?
					2. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them?
					3. Do the students realize that they might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school?
					4. Would taking over the building in the long run benefit more people to a greater extent?
					5. Whether the president stayed within the limits of his authority in ignoring the faculty vote.
					6. Will the takeover anger the public and give all students a bad name?
					7. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice?
					8. Would allowing one student take-over encourage many other student take-overs?
					9. Did the president bring this misunderstanding on himself by being so unreasonable and uncooperative?
					10. Whether running the university ought to be in the hands of a few administrators or in the hands of all the people.
					11. Are the students following principles which they believe are above the law?
					12. Whether or not university decisions ought to be respected by students.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most Important _____

Second Most Important _____

Third Most Important _____

ESCAPED PRISONER

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country, and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually he saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day, Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison? (check one)

Should report him _____ Can't decide _____ Should not report him _____

IMPORTANCE:

Great Much Some Little No

Great	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long time to prove he isn't a bad person?
					2. Everytime someone escapes punishment for a crime, doesn't that just encourage more crime?
					3. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the oppression of our legal systems?
					4. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
					5. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly expect?
					6. What benefits would prisons be apart from society, especially for a charitable man?
					7. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr. Thompson to prison?
					8. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
					9. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?
					10. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped criminal, regardless of the circumstances?
					11. How would the will of the people and the public be best served?
					12. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or protect anybody?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most Important _____

Second Most Important _____

Third Most Important _____

Fourth Most Important _____

THE DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

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

What should the doctor do? (Check one)

He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die _____ Can't decide _____ Should not give the overdose _____

IMPORTANCE:

Great Much Some Little No

Great	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the overdose or not.
					2. Is the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving her an overdose would be the same as killing her.
					3. Whether people would be much better off without society regimenting their lives and even their deaths.
					4. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.
					5. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on those who don't want to live.
					6. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on personal values.
					7. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering or cares more about what society might think.
					8. Is helping to end another's life over a responsible act of cooperation.
					9. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should end.
					10. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own personal code of behavior.
					11. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they want to.
					12. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect the lives of individuals who want to live.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most Important _____

Second Most Important _____

Third Most Important _____

Fourth Most Important _____

WEBSTER

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

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

What should Mr. Webster have done? (Check one)

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

IMPORTANCE:

Great Much Some Little No

Great	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Does the owner of a business have the right to make his own business decisions or not?
					2. Whether there is a law that forbids racial discrimination in hiring for jobs.
					3. Whether Mr. Webster is prejudiced against Orientals himself or whether he means nothing personal in refusing the job.
					4. Whether hiring a good mechanic or paying attention to his customers' wishes would be best for his business.
					5. What individual differences ought to be relevant in deciding how society's roles are filled?
					6. Whether the greedy and competitive capitalistic system ought to be completely abandoned.
					7. Do a majority of people in Mr. Webster's society feel like his customers or are a majority against prejudice?
					8. Whether hiring capable men like Mr. Lee would use talents that would otherwise be lost to society.
					9. Would refusing the job to Mr. Lee be consistent with Mr. Webster's own moral beliefs?
					10. Could Mr. Webster be so hard-hearted as to refuse the job, knowing how much it means to Mr. Lee?
					11. Whether the Christian commandment to love your fellow man applies in this case.
					12. If someone's in need, shouldn't he be helped regardless of what you get back from him?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most Important _____

Second Most Important _____

Third Most Important _____

Fourth Most Important _____

NEWSPAPER

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

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

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

Should the principal stop the newspaper? (Check one)

Should stop it _____ Can't decide _____ Should not stop it _____

IMPORTANCE:

at Much Some Little No

at	Much	Some	Little	No	
					1. Is the principal more responsible to students or to the parents?
					2. Did the principal give his word that the newspaper could be published for a long time, or did he just promise to approve the newspaper one issue at a time?
					3. Would the students start protesting even more if the principal stopped the newspaper?
					4. When the welfare of the school is threatened, does the principal have the right to give orders to students?
					5. Does the principal have the freedom of speech to say "no" in this case?
					6. If the principal stopped the newspaper would he be preventing full discussion of important problems?
					7. Whether the principal's order would make Fred lose faith in the principal.
					8. Whether Fred was really loyal to his school and patriotic to his country.
					9. What effect would stopping the paper have on the student's education in critical thinking and judgments?
					10. Whether Fred was in any way violating the rights of others in publishing his own opinions.
					11. Whether the principal should be influenced by some angry parents when it is the principal that knows best what is going on in the school.
					12. Whether Fred was using the newspaper to stir up hatred and discontent.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:

Most Important _____

Second Most Important _____

APPENDIX 2:

Templer's Death Anxiety Scale (DAS)

QUESTIONNAIRE II

Self-Description Inventory

Answer the following items as True (T) or False (F) as they apply to you.

- 1. I am very much afraid to die.
- 2. The thought of death seldom enters my mind.
- 3. It doesn't make me nervous when people talk about death.
- 4. I dread to think about having to have an operation.
- 5. I am not at all afraid to die.
- 6. I am not particularly afraid of getting cancer.
- 7. The thought of death never bothers me.
- 8. I am often distressed by the way time flies so very rapidly.
- 9. I fear dying a painful death.
- 10. The subject of life after death troubles me greatly.
- 11. I am really scared of having a heart attack.
- 12. I often think about how short life really is.
- 13. I shudder when I hear people talking about a World War III.
- 14. The sight of a dead body is horrifying to me.
- 15. I feel that the future holds nothing for me to fear.

APPENDIX 3:

Tables

Table 1
 Analysis of variance summary table -
 Males vs. female by DIT categories

Source	SS	df	MS	F
A M-F	92.34	1	92.34	10.59*
B DIT				
0-12				
13-24	127.61	2	63.80	7.32*
25 and older				
A X B	.58	2	.29	.03**
W/CELL	2983.53	341	8.72	

* $p < .01$

** Nonsignificant

Table 2
 Analysis of variance summary table -
 Age by DIT categories

Source	SS	df	MS	F
A Age 19 and under 20-24 25 and over	26.80	2	13.40	1.52**
B DIT 0-12 13-24 25 and over	96.38	2	48.19	5.45*
A X B	33.88	4	8.47	.96
W/CELL	2989.78	338	8.84	

* $p < .01$

** Nonsignificant