Editors

Ethics and Integrity in Teacher Education

Springer

Ethics and Integrity in Educational Contexts

Volume 3

The aim of this series is to provide an authoritative series of books on topics relating to ethics and integrity in educational contexts. Its scope includes ethics and integrity, defined in broad and inclusive terms, in educational contexts. It focuses on higher education, but also welcomes contributions that address ethics and integrity in primary and secondary education, non-formal educational contexts, professional education, etc. We welcome books that address traditional academic integrity topics such as plagiarism, exam cheating, and collusion.

In addition, we are particularly interested in topics that extend beyond questions of student conduct, such as

- Quality assurance in education;
- Research ethics and integrity;
- Admissions fraud;
- Fake and fraudulent credentials;
- Publication ethics;
- Educational technology ethics (e.g., surveillance tech, machine learning, and artificial intelligence, as they are used in education);
- Biomedical ethics in educational contexts;
- Ethics in varsity and school sports.

This series extends beyond traditional and narrow concepts of academic integrity to broader interpretations of applied ethics in education, including corruption and ethical questions relating to instruction, assessment, and educational leadership. It also seeks to promote social justice, diversity, equity, and inclusion.

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Preface

The impetus for this book came from our experience both as educators and as scholars of academic integrity. Between us, we had shared dozens if not hundreds of conversations with colleagues from all over the world about the disconnect between K-12 (i.e., primary and secondary) education and higher education with regards to academic integrity. We began to investigate what resources existed to help primary and secondary teachers, as well as students, to learn the skills and values associated with academic integrity. We found some, but not as much as we would have liked. We agreed that there was a need for a resource to help teacher trainees and in-service teachers to understand, enact, and teach academic integrity to young learners.

Although this book is by no means exhaustive, it is worth noting the breadth of contributions of our contributors, who live and work in North America, Australia, Europe and Asia. There is a common thread throughout all the chapters: education about ethics and integrity must begin at an early age, and teachers who work in primary and secondary contexts will benefit from intentionally modelling and teaching ethical decision-making as part of daily classroom practice.

Overview of the Chapters

Preservice teacher training worldwide is meant to prepare students for their future career as professional teachers. Often enough, the understanding is that students bring with them a well-formed perception and attitude towards morality and ethics, given their exposure to schooling, role models and others. However, it is crucial to note that school curricula do not necessarily or often explicitly address or embed academic integrity values and ethics concepts but rather rely on role models to impart such knowledge to students. Students who pass through such schooling systems may not reach tertiary level with well-informed understanding, let alone ability to then apply academic writing with integrity as expected in tertiary education, or carry those values to their professions as teachers.

Irene Glendinning's chapter, "Educational Integrity in Schools: A Framework for Young Learners", highlights this glaring gap, looking closely at each stage of K-12. The chapter identifies vital topics that should be included in education about integrity and a narrative that discusses various methods of teaching approaches that have been successful in primary, secondary, tertiary and adult learning. The chapter further discusses K-12 teachers and school leaders and the kind of knowledge and awareness they need to bring to the classroom to help students and concludes by proposing a framework to gradually introduce concepts and values of ethics and integrity from an early age through K-12.

Ann Rogerson, Claire Rogerson, and Tiffani Apps position their chapter titled "Embedding Principles Related to Academic Integrity in Teacher Education in Australia" to address the gap in prior educational experiences and social interactions to what is expected and taught at tertiary level. In the Australian setting, this chapter highlights the confusion that arises in preservice teacher students on what is appropriate academic integrity understanding due to the gap, and the way academic integrity as a topic is integrated into school curriculum, rather than as a stand-alone focus. The chapter urges higher education institutions to better address this gap with explicit lessons in academic integrity and writing skills.

Codes of conduct or professional codes are not uncommon in what are often considered as mature professions such as doctors and lawyers. Though organisations such as the US National Education Association and UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (ETICO) have Teacher Codes of Conduct guidelines, most often than not, these are left to individual schools and institutions to develop and implement. Authors Daniella Foster and Bruce Maxwell pave the way with the chapter "Using Codes of Professional Ethics and Conduct in Teacher Education: Pitfalls and Best Practice" where they detail the importance of codes of ethics and conduct for teachers, making a case for them as professionals, pre- and in-service alike, needing guidelines to help them develop into sophisticated professionals. The authors take this further to highlight teachers as morally distinct professionals and thereby need not just a code of conduct but a more comprehensive approach. The chapter provides critical review of existing frameworks in the Australian education setting, identifying pitfalls such as ambiguity of definitions in existing standards, and ultimately providing evidence-based recommendations including pedagogical methods of teaching ethics and morality to pre-service teachers.

Sonja Bjelobaba and Marita Cronqvist present the chapter "Preparing Preservice Teachers to Teach Academic Integrity and Ethics", addressing the need to provide preservice teachers the pedagogical and didactic knowledge and instruments so that they are able to then teach their students academic integrity and ethics. The chapter highlights the educational setting in Sweden and describes three contexts for inclusion of ethics and integrity in preservice teacher education. The authors argue that while the first two contexts, that of preservice teachers incorporating integrity in their own education and developing professional ethics in future teachers as lived practice, have well-developed position in preservice teacher education, it is the third context – that of the pedagogy and didactic knowledge as competence – that is

rarely treated as part of the training. The chapter proceeds to provide suggestions on how to connect the contexts, develop teacher-students as role models through professional role, and prepare preservice teachers to teach academic integrity and ethics through preservice teacher training.

Teacher education programmes that embody the standards required to help teachers exemplify integrity and ethics throughout their actual teaching career are rare. A comparative study between educational programmes in Australia and Singapore by Afnan Boutrid and Stephanie Martin highlights this gap in their chapter titled "A Comparative Study of Teacher Education Programs Embedding Ethics Education into Curriculum". Boutrid and Martin identify two indicators of teacher ethical education from the Australian and Singapore National Teacher Standards and argue that there remains question on how effectively these address the importance of ethics and whether they are equipped to manage the moral dimensions of teaching through reflection of their own beliefs.

Amidst the COVID-19 pandemic, shifting courses to deliver them online became the only way to ensure continuity of learning for students globally. However, as we know, many teachers were simply not prepared. The chapter by Astrid Kendrick, titled "Starting from a Place of Academic Integrity: Building Trust with Online Students", looks at Canadian universities' trends experiencing exponential growth in years 2010–2016, and unfolds pedagogical decisions that are made for an online academic writing course for preservice teachers which is meant to develop a culture of integrity. The chapter discusses Community of Inquiry Model and provides a description of a course design for this purpose.

While Kendrick's chapter looks to provide a guideline on how to build trust while teaching courses online through carefully designing learning tasks and assessments, Luis I. Guerrero-Martínez, Pablo Ayala-Enríquez, and Jean Guerrero-Dib talk about the role of compassion in academic integrity management processes, particularly in light of the increase in cases of academic misconduct due to the increase in distance learning. Their chapter provides extensive analysis of procedures that different universities across Mexico, Chile, the USA, Canada, Australia, and the UK use for academic integrity breach management and with careful literature and historical review, and they recommend including compassion as a core element in such processes.

Teachers in K-12 are constantly working with parents to enhance students' learning. Brenda M. Stoesz recognises this dynamic and identifies a gap in existing literature that seems to typically address postsecondary context and is thereby inappropriate for K-12 setting. The chapter titled "Formalising Preservice Teacher Training to Work with Parents to Promote Academic Integrity in K-12 Education" recognises the possibility of working with parent councils and parents to forge partnerships in helping to support academic integrity in students in K-12. Stoesz highlights that this is not happening currently, especially when training preservice teachers, and argues for formalising such training.

Zeenath Reza Khan and Veena Mulani take on the issue of imprudent parental involvement in K-12 students' assessment completion which can convey a dangerous message to students who are still formalising their understanding of ethics,

morality and academic integrity. The authors argue for the importance of training preservice teachers on how to manage parental involvement, perceptions and expectations through a proposed module in their chapter titled "Proposing a Preservice Teacher-Training Module to Manage Parental Involvement in K-12 Assessments".

Our final chapter, by Shivadas Sivasubramaniam, entitled "Incorporating Ethics into Everyday Classroom in Science Education", acknowledges the importance of ethics education in developing cognitive capacities and even critical thinking skills through ethical dimensions. Sivasubramaniam recognises the problem of K-12 education being heavy on subject matter, leaving little or no room for explicit ethics education. The chapter provides practical guidance to help preservice teachers understand why ethics education is so important for K-12 students through practical scenarios on delivering ethics education followed by class-based activities.

All the chapters have national and international relevance, and we hope that readers find value in them.

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Chapter 1
Ethics in Teacher Training: An Overview

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Sarah Elaine Eaton and **Zeenath Reza Khan**

Abstract In this chapter we present an overview of key issues related to academic integrity as it pertains to primary and secondary education and teacher training, also known as pre-service teacher education. We contend that concepts related to academic integrity, including ethical decision-making and ethical behaviour must be introduced early and reinforced throughout one's learning journey starting from a young age. In order for this to happen, teacher trainees must have explicit training in how to teach ethical decision-making and skills related to academic integrity such as attribution, citing, and referencing.

Keywords Academic integrity · Academic misconduct · Ethics · Teacher training · Primary education · Secondary education · Pre-service teachers · Plagiarism

Introduction

In this chapter we present an overview of key issues related to academic integrity with regards to primary and secondary education and teacher training, also known as pre-service teacher education. We contend that concepts related to academic integrity, including ethical decision-making, and ethical behaviour must be introduced early and reinforced throughout one's learning journey starting from a young age. Ethical behaviour is not something one learns through a tutorial, a brochure, or a workshop, but rather it is practised through one's daily living, through the myriad of decisions one makes on a given day. If young people develop poor ethical

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practice and bad habits during their schooling years, they can become normalised to unethical behaviour, resulting in misconduct later at university and in the workplace (Tauginienė & Gaižauskaitė, 2019). It is important to begin ethics education, including instruction related to academic integrity, as early as possible. For this to happen, those aspiring to teach at the elementary and secondary levels should receive practical and explicit instruction on how to teach ethics to young learners.

Our Positionalities: United by Our Commitment to Integrity

We frame this introductory chapter, and the overall book project, by acknowledging our positionalities as scholars, educators, and human beings. We are co-authors and co-editors of this book from different parts of the world, with wildly different upbringings, different academic backgrounds, and different personal circumstances. One of us (Eaton) was born in Canada to a Canadian father and English mother, both of whom left school at age 16. Raised mainly by a single mother, Eaton spent part of her formative years living in the servants' quarters of the estate home of a wealthy English family (Eaton, 2020), later moving back to Canada to settle in the east coast city of Halifax before moving west for graduate school. She was the first person in her immediate family to earn a degree and later went on to be a first-generation academic. She spent the first 22 years of her career as a precariously employed academic before securing full-time employment in 2016.

The other of us (Khan) is the daughter of two zoologists who were also career-teachers, and lived in a residence in the Dubai zoo, reserved for the Head of Zoo, his family and zookeepers (Ravindranathan, 2017). Khan, like most girls in Asian households, was brought up to pursue a career in medicine but her acute fear of blood and insane sympathy pains pushed her to change course and sign her very first contract with her father at the age of 18, taking responsibility for changing her career path and promising to still succeed with a "Dr." in front of her name.

We were raised in different cultural and religious traditions, but both of our paths led us to higher education, with one of us (Eaton) being a faculty member in a faculty of Education in Calgary, Canada, whereas the other (Khan), is a faculty member in the Faculty of Engineering and Information Sciences in Dubai, UAE. We met through the European Network for Academic Integrity (ENAI), brought together by a common commitment to ethics and integrity in educational contexts. We have spent countless hours meeting virtually as part of working groups and collaborative projects, as well as on this book project. Synchronous video meeting technologies have allowed us to develop a deep professional connection, with time zones being the only barrier (and really, more of an inconvenience than anything). We met in real life for the first time after the manuscript for this book had been completed, and it felt as though we had known one another our whole lives.

Over the past several years, we have had numerous conversations about the need for academic integrity and ethical decision-making to be taught from a young age. Neither of us is a K-12 teacher ourselves, but we are both award-winning scholars of academic integrity. We kept looking for resources that we could use in our own

work as educators, scholars, and advocates and were both frustrated and surprised by the lack of resources. Finally, we decided that there was a need for a book on the topic and this edited volume is the result of that decision. We managed the entire book project with each of us working from our respective continents, cities, and homes. The book was conceptualised, proposed, accepted, developed, and published during the COVID-19 pandemic. As we look back, we recognized that to bring a project such as this to fruition under these multiple complicated circumstances has been a feat of scholarly commitment to one another, to the contributors, to the teaching community and especially to academic integrity and its importance to both of us and the communities we live and work in.

Starting with these statements of positionality are relevant because like any scholarly or professional work, ours has limitations and biases. We are biassed in favour of pluralistic approaches to values, ethics, culture, and education. We both recognize that academic integrity is neither solely a moral concept, nor a behavioural one, but rather that it integrates both morality and behaviour. We are neither absolutists, nor relativists, but instead we have an appreciation for theoretical complexity, and recognize the need for practical approaches to education and integrity that can help others make ethical decisions as part of their daily living. We acknowledge that there is no "one size fits all" approach to integrity or ethics, but are nevertheless united in our stance that academic integrity and ethical decision-making must be taught from a young age and in order for that to happen, teacher trainees, as well as in-service teachers, need explicit and practical education about how to make that a reality in their classrooms.

In the sections that follow, we provide an overview of some of the key issues relating to ethics in teacher training. Our overview is not exhaustive and many of the themes are addressed in more depth and from different perspectives in the remaining chapters of the book. What we offer here is a high-level synopsis of major points, starting with integrity values and expectations as a foundation of education. Then, we discuss the vital role that teachers play as role models of ethical behaviour. We acknowledge how the lack of training regarding academic integrity in pre-service teacher education is a global issue, but has local implications. We discuss the role that multinational networks and organisations play in promoting ethics education. We conclude with recommendations and considerations for how ethics and integrity can be better incorporated into teacher training programs and curricula so it can then become an established aspect of primary and secondary education worldwide.

Integrity Values and Expectations as a Foundation of Education

Others before us have argued that academic integrity values and expectations should be taught to students from a young age (Lathrop & Foss, 2005; Stoesz, 2022; Tauginienė & Gaižauskaitė, 2019; Wangaard, 2016). Despite these pleas, students across the world continue to arrive at post-secondary institutions ill prepared and first-year students are at particular risk for committing academic misconduct in part,

because they are unaware of what is expected of them and the standards of academic integrity to which they may be held (Bertram Gallant et al., 2015; Mazer & Hunt, 2012; Tauginienė & Gaižauskaitė, 2019; McNeill, 2022). This creates a perpetual cycle in which those who work in tertiary education blame those who work in primary and secondary (also known as 'K-12') education for not preparing students adequately in terms of teaching the skills and personal development to act with integrity after high school. Conversely, those working in K-12 argue that they are bound by curricula which are often prescriptive in nature, and that there is no room in their day to teach anything extra, beyond what is mandated. This presents a conundrum in which students can arrive at a post-secondary learning institution with little to no training in citing, referencing, or other skills related with academic integrity. Furthermore, students may have already been acculturated to teachers turning a blind eye to cheating, from as young as the age of six (Wangaard, 2016). It is possible that students can arrive on campus for a first-year post-secondary experience, with upwards of a decade of learning in which no one ever talked with them about academic integrity or openly addressed student cheating in the classroom. It is no wonder that first-year college students are among those most at risk for committing academic misconduct in post-secondary contexts.

It is essential that teaching academic integrity be part of the curriculum in teacher education programs. That way, when K-12 teachers begin their careers in primary and secondary classrooms, they are equipped with the knowledge, skills, and motivation not only to infuse their daily professional practice with ethical teaching and assessment that model integrity, but also to speak directly to students and parents about the expectation to maintain integrity in learning. We contend that ethical decision-making can be both modelled and taught in line with existing curricula even if academic integrity is not stated explicitly as an outcome of a formal K-2 program of learning.

The Vital Role That Teachers Play as Models of Ethical Behaviour

Teaching is both a "knowledge endeavour and … a moral enterprise" (Ball & Wilson, 1996, p. 155) and "in teaching, concerns for the intellectual and the moral are ultimately inseparable" (p. 155). Teaching academic integrity must be age-appropriate without being reductionist; it must be straightforward without being oversimplified. Simply saying, "Don't cheat!" will do little to help students understand how to navigate moral and ethical complexities that they will continue to face in their classrooms as well as in daily life.

As Ball and Wilson (1996) point out, "intellectual honesty implies engaging students in the conjecturing, investigating, and argument that is characteristic of a field" (p. 182). They also point out the need to address the reality that as students pass from one classroom to the next, they may encounter teachers with different

approaches and opinions. For both students and teachers, learning to recognize and reconcile these differences is an important part of teaching and learning. One aspect of professionalism in education is for teachers themselves to demonstrate civility, respect, and tolerance for one another. It is not a teacher's job to cast moral judgement on another teacher whose views may differ from their own, but it is a teacher's job to teach students how to use reason as part of the learning process. In this way, students can learn to develop the intellectual capacity to be tolerant of opposing ideas and viewpoints, while building their own identity, values, and knowledge.

A Global Problem, with Local Impact

We have yet to identify an institution, a region, a country, or a jurisdiction that could serve as an exemplar of excellence for teaching ethics and academic integrity to pre-service teachers. It would be naive of us to suggest that there should be a singular approach to teaching ethical decision-making in schools or in teacher training programs. We recognize the field of ethics is both broad and deep, with various and often conflicting approaches within the field of education, including moral relativism, subjectivist relativism, postmodern ethics, and foundationalist approaches (Walker & Donlevy, 2006), among others. As Walker and Donlevy (2006) point out, "any attempt, by groups or individuals, to claim universality in ethical commitments is dismissed as being ethnocentric." (p. 220). We advocate for pluralistic approaches to academic integrity and ethics education that not only acknowledge the values and norms of local culture, but also prepare students to be global citizens.

In the sub-sections that follow, we highlight three organisations whose work on academic integrity can be used to help teacher trainees, in-service teachers, and students to learn more about academic integrity and ethics. First we discuss the European Network for Academic Integrity (ENAI), which, despite its name, is a global community of educators, scholars, and advocates that stands as an exemplar of excellence in terms of valuing diversity and plurality (Eaton, 2022). Next, we acknowledge the International Center for Academic Integrity (ICAI), and in particular, the "Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity" framework developed by those working with the centre. Finally, we highlight work done by UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), as a global organisation focused on human rights and peacebuilding. What readers will not find in this chapter is a discussion of compliance-based approaches or recommendations on how to punish academic misconduct. As this book is focused on education, we take the position that as teachers, our focus is on education, rather than enforcement. Of course, we recognize the importance of addressing misconduct when it occurs, but there is already an ample body of literature on how to address student misconduct and school discipline (e.g., Fabelo et al., 2011).

European Network for Academic Integrity (ENAI): A Champion of Academic Integrity

The European Network for Academic Integrity (ENAI) has an active working group on Integrity in Secondary Education composed of members from multiple countries. The purpose of the working group is to promote ethics and academic integrity training across secondary education. A second working group is the Outreach group that aims to extend efforts in developing understanding of various stakeholders, raising awareness and promoting good practices beyond higher education, looking at both K-12 and vocational, and also at communities beyond geographical borders. Both working groups promote numerous free, online educational resources (see European Network for Academic Integrity, n.d.), including those developed by other highly respected bodies such as the Tertiary Education Quality Standards Agency (TEQSA), among others.

International Center for Academic Integrity: Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity

Within the field of educational integrity, the International Center for Academic Integrity (2021) document, "The Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity" are widely used as a framework for understanding ethical decision-making in school contexts. The values document was originally written in 1999, starting with five fundamental values: fairness, honesty, respect, responsibility, and trust. A sixth value, courage, was added in the second edition, published in 2014. Interestingly, a former president of ICAI has written about the need to pay attention to nuances in how academic integrity can be framed as individual decision-making, which is the predominant approach in the United States, versus "cultural expectations or systemic issues" (Fishman, 2016, p. 8). Fishman also notes that, "[a] notable feature of academic integrity discourse in the USA is the tendency to frame transgressions of rules, standards, and norms in terms that connote moral weakness, willful misconduct, duplicity, or wrongdoing. This framing of cheating, and especially plagiarism, as an issue of morality rather than education can be observed throughout the history of such discussions, in articles published in a wide array of journals across various grade levels and (academic) disciplines" (p. 13). Of particular note here is Fishman's acknowledgement that these 'fundamental values' are neither absolute, nor universal, but were developed and continue to be fostered from an Ameri-centric perspective with regards to how academic integrity is conceptualised and promoted. We recognize the importance of having guiding documents to help frame productive conversations about ethical decision-making, and further advocate for interpretations that allow for cultural and local differences to be acknowledged, respected, and incorporated.

UNESCO's Role in Promoting Academic Integrity

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is a specialised agency within the United Nations dedicated to peace-building through education, culture, and science. UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), has a strong focus on academic integrity, supporting various publicly available web resources and reports (ETICO, n.d.; Plikšnys et al., 2009). IIEP helps to promote ethics in education, including the *Guidelines for the design and effective use of teacher codes of conduct* (Poisson, 2009), which is available in English, French, Spanish, and a number of other languages, too. What is notable about these guidelines is the emphasis on ethics, though concepts such as values, integrity, honour, honesty, truth, fairness, respect for others, and dignity are mentioned throughout.

Poisson (2009) notes that too often, quality assurance and excellence in education are overly focused: "on quantitative data such as learning time, class size, physical infrastructure and facilities, teaching and learning materials and qualification of teachers, rather than on 'intangible inputs', such as:

- the commitment of teachers and other staff to their profession,
- their capacity to help every pupil reach his or her potential,
- their ethical and professional behaviour and responsible judgment." (p. 13)

It is essential that these intangible inputs are critical to ensuring the quality of education (Poisson, 2009). Poisson (2009) notes that it is important that codes of conduct and ethical standards for teachers be developed by groups of stakeholders, be open to feedback and then be approved through formal governance processes for formal adoption. Then, the code must be disseminated and promoted in a way that is user-friendly and clear. In order for implementation to be successful, there needs to be a body to oversee proper enforcement of the code, as well as education, professional development, and formal mechanisms to address breaches of the code, including guidelines for reporting and addressing misconduct. There should be regular reviews and evaluation of the code to ensure it remains relevant and appropriate. Many of these same principles apply to academic integrity policies (e.g., Bretag et al., 2011a, b; Razi et al., 2021; Stoesz & Eaton, 2020; Stoesz et al., 2019).

What is notable about guidance provided by Poisson (2009) and other resources produced by UNESCO is that the focus of ethics and integrity in the teaching profession is not about compliance or rule-following, but rather on offering clear and specific guidance focused on rights, responsibilities, and expectations for ethical conduct.

Recommendations and Conclusions

It is clear to us that academic integrity is inseparable from the concept of ethics and that ethics education and training is strengthened by including a focus on academic integrity. In other words, academic integrity is not about preventing plagiarism or cheating on exams, but rather it is an enactment of applied ethics in education. In this case, ethics is both an abstract philosophical foundation, as well as a practical application of everyday decision-making. We cannot separate academic integrity from ethics, and nor should we separate ethics from academic integrity. Instead, we situate academic integrity as one aspect of ethics in educational contexts. We contend that academic integrity ought to be explicitly articulated into ethical codes of conduct for teachers. If not, academic integrity may continue to be viewed as an administrative or management issue, rather than a pedagogical matter, but in fact, academic integrity is as much about teaching, learning, and assessment as it is about managing misconduct.

We conclude by offering five recommendations about how ethics and integrity can be incorporated into teacher education. Our recommendations are drawn from the extant literature, as well as other chapters in this book. We do not propose to have all the answers and we recognize that the ways these recommendations might be taken up will depend on local cultures and normals and so we have intentionally opted not to be overly prescriptive. Instead, we offer these recommendations as a backdrop to broader topics addressed throughout the rest of this book.

Recommendation #1: Incorporate Ethics Education into State and National Educational Curricula

We hear repeatedly from K-12 teachers that they are so busy teaching subject matter content that they have no time to teach concepts or skills related to ethics. One way to ensure that integrity and ethics education is taught in schools is to ensure that it is part of the mandatory curriculum. The responsibility for the implementation of this recommendation rests not with front-line teachers, but with policy makers within state, provincial, or national levels of government responsible for setting the educational agenda for their jurisdiction.

Recommendation #2: Make Ethics and Integrity Education an Explicit Component of Teacher Training That Is Focused on Values and Ethical Decision-Making

It is not enough for teacher training programs to include ethics training that is focused only on compliance, or worse, include no ethics training at all. Curricula for teacher training programs must include explicit ethics and integrity training that

promotes ethical decision-making as an essential aspect of teacher professional conduct, as well as pedagogy.

Recommendation #3: Use Existing High Quality and Freely Available Resources for Ethics and Integrity Education

There are ample free resources available worldwide including a number from UNESCO (e.g., ETICO, n.d.; Poisson, 2009) and ENAI (see European Network for Academic Integrity, n.d.). Although investment in new resources can be helpful, there should be no barrier to adopting existing high-quality materials that are already freely available from reputable organisations.

Recommendation #4: Ensure That Academic Integrity Education at the Primary and Secondary Levels Is Age-Appropriate and Practical

One way to prevent students arriving at tertiary education ill-prepared in terms of academic integrity skills and expectations is to ensure they have basic education relating to citing, referencing, and ethics prior to arriving at a post-secondary institution. To do this, these skills must be an explicit aspect of secondary education curricula. Students will only learn skills associated with academic integrity with intentional instruction and multiple opportunities to practise. However, not all skills need to be taught with excruciating detail immediately. Providing opportunities for students to scaffold their learning throughout their schooling can help them build knowledge and practice their skills over time. Ensuring that ethics and integrity education is age-appropriate and practical is important. How this is defined and enacted may depend, in part, on the approved curricula; however, engaging classroom teachers in conversations, planning, and implementation is an important aspect of ensuring that materials and lessons are effective and appropriate.

Recommendation #5: Engage Multiple Stakeholders in a Variety of Ways

Because classroom teachers are on the front lines of education and work with students on a daily basis, it is essential to include them in conversations, recommendations, and decisions about how and what to teach; this includes in matters related to ethics and integrity. Teachers have valuable insights from their daily professional practice that are worthwhile and deserve to be heard and considered. Similarly,

parents are also an important stakeholder group in education, so engaging them in conversations about how to support ethics and integrity education is important.

Concluding Remarks

We recognize that we have barely scratched the surface with our overview and there are many limitations to our work, not the least of which is that neither of us is a K-12 classroom teacher ourselves. Instead, we are professors in higher education who see the result of students who arrive to our campuses ill-prepared and often unaware of what is expected of them. The overview we have provided in this chapter is intended as a point of departure for a deeper and ongoing dialogue about how to support ethics and integrity education from a young age and how to ensure K-12 teachers have the training and support they need to carry out that work.

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Chapter 2
Embedding Principles Related to Academic Integrity in Teacher Education in Australia

Ann M. Rogerson, Claire Rogerson, and Tiffani Apps

Abstract The differences between how students are taught about academic integrity in school contexts and the requirements of academic integrity in higher education cause issues for students and educators alike. This particularly impacts pre-service (student) teachers studying in higher education. Pre-service teachers need to translate prior educational experiences into higher education while also preparing to apply and embed the principles of academic integrity in schools. This chapter discusses whether colleges and universities are preparing pre-service teaching with the knowledge to translate their own experiences of academic integrity and ethical practices garnered through higher education to the educational environments that precede college or university in an Australian context.

Keywords Academic integrity · Curriculum · Integrity education · Initial teacher education · Academic culture · Educational transitions

Introduction

The principles of academic integrity form part of the policy and practice that pre-service teachers are required to engage with while they are students in higher education institutions. It has and continues to be recognised that earlier years of education do not readily prepare students to translate the principles of academic integrity to the new learning contexts embraced by colleges or universities (Bretag et al., 2014; Hossain, 2022). Although the higher education sector is taking a more proactive and educative approach to educational and academic integrity (Sefcik et al., 2020), the ways that pre-service teachers are able to connect these academic, information and

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digital literacies to their future professional contexts including how they may translate to their own classrooms is unclear.

This chapter discusses the issues that arise due to the curriculum and capabilities in the Australian national curriculum for schools, and for pre-service teachers to know how they should translate the appropriate knowledge and application of academic integrity principles to their own classrooms and students. The context for the Australian education system is outlined before explaining how the elements of academic integrity are explored in the school curriculum. The challenges for students having to transition to higher education and then learn and apply academic integrity principles in different contexts such as pre-service teacher education are discussed.

The Australian Schooling System and Pre-service Teacher Education

The Australian schooling system is split into primary schools which cater for Kindergarten to Year 6 students and secondary schools, for students in Year 7 to Year 12. The Australian Curriculum Assessment Reporting Authority (ACARA) is a national body charged with developing the curriculum that is explored by all Australian primary and secondary schools. Any individual wanting to become an Australian teacher must undertake an Initial Teacher Education (ITE) course at an Australian higher education institution. These courses prepare individuals to become accredited teachers and are carefully designed to cover all necessary elements of the mandated curriculum relevant to their context of registration. In Australia, ITE courses maintain accreditation with Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL); a process which requires higher education institutions to map the Australian National Curriculum and Australian Professional Teaching Standards against each subject, course, and assessable task to ensure all content has been appropriately addressed. This creates ITE courses that are informed and grounded in professional teaching standards and curriculum documentation designed to meet the needs of the Australian schooling system. Primary school teachers (equivalent to grade or elementary levels) are prepared as *generalist* teachers, responsible for exploring the full range of Key Learning Areas (disciplinary content) and General Capabilities (Literacy; Numeracy; Personal and Social Capability; Information and Communication Technology; Critical and Creative Thinking; Ethical Understanding; Intercultural Understanding) with their students (AITSL, n.d.; ACARA, n.d.-a). Secondary school (high school) teachers choose to *specialise* in a subject or discipline area and are equipped with the relevant skills and knowledge to teach their specific curriculum and integrate General Capabilities within their classes (AITSL, n.d.).

How Do Students Develop an Understanding of Academic Integrity Prior to University?

Students begin to develop an understanding of academic integrity in Australia through their schooling system and their exposure at home. This understanding is shaped by the formal national curriculum, the structure of schooling and teachers' knowledge, along with a school students' home experiences.

In the Curriculum

Notions of information retrieval, evaluation and acknowledgement are present in the Australian curriculum in developmentally appropriate ways that increase in complexity and requirements of students over time. In Australian schools' children begin engaging with principles associated with academic integrity in context of the general capabilities. General Capabilities are addressed through the content of the learning areas, sitting across the curriculum. General Capabilities are explicitly embedded within learning area content descriptions and elaboration to give teachers ideas about how they might teach the content (ACARA, n.d.-a).

There is explicit reference to principles of academic integrity in the Critical and Creative Thinking capability and the Digital Literacy capability from Kindergarten through to Year 10. Critical thinking is described as the core of intellectual activity involving recognising or developing an argument, using support, drawing reasoned conclusions, and using information to solve problems. The Critical and Creative Thinking capability involves working with information employing inquiry processes, analysing, synthesising and reasoning to generate ideas, possibilities and actions (ACARA, n.d.-a). Students begin working with given information in Kindergarten and move to make judgments about reliability and credibility of sources by Year 10. The capability does not specifically refer to attribution of ideas in the creation of new ideas.

The Digital Literacy capability focuses on evaluation of information and notion of intellectual property in the context of digital materials. As part of the Investigating element students learn to "*be careful and critical of the information that they encounter when online, and exhibit discernment in their evaluation of the reliability and credibility of online information*" (ACARA, n.d.-c) as part of the sub element evaluating information. In the Creating element students engage with the respecting intellectual property sub element learning to "*understand the ethical and legal responsibilities around ownership and remixing of online content, for example, plagiarism, copyright, fair use and licensing. They demonstrate responsibility and respect for others by protecting their own digital creations and crediting others' content when appropriate*" (ACARA, n.d.-c).

In the Classroom

Although the principles of integrity are associated with General Capabilities, the ways in which students experience them in schools is varied and dependent on the class teacher and subject area. In a primary school context, students engage with the same class teacher and cohort of students during each calendar year, so their experiences can vary widely and can also be influenced by when the teacher completed their ITE and the national curriculum in place at the time.

In secondary school students are exposed to a broader number of more specialised teachers. The class or subject teacher's understanding of academic integrity and disciplinary approach frames the way students experience information literacy, digital literacy and critical and creative thinking capabilities in each classroom. In the final years of schooling, the structure shifts with a focus on content-heavy curriculum and the preparation for high-stakes final exams focused on achieving entry into a higher education institution. This can leave little room for the development of young people's digital literacy (Corrin et al., 2019) and critical and creative thinking associated with academic literacy. The changes in the way the last 2 years of school are structured for Australian secondary students means that even if they were exposed to quality academic integrity practices and knowledge in younger years, they are less likely to need to apply these (and therefore practise and refine their application) in Years 11 or 12.

At Home

The early influences on educational practices can be traced back to parents and caregivers who provide important role models for experience and values of schooling (Taylor et al., 2004). Attitudes and approaches to education are mirrored between parent and child, leading to an internalised understanding of 'what to do' in a range of learning situations (Taylor et al., 2004). Many student habits and expectations are formed in earlier years of education, for example when a parent or carer does the homework (or even worse purchases work) for the child instead of encouraging the child to do it themselves (Khan & Mulani, 2020). Through this type of behavioural modelling children learn to accept the reward or accolade when the work is done by someone else. Amigud and Lancaster (2019) reported how family members were explicitly influencing cheating behaviours by purchasing work from contract cheating sites to promote their child's academic progress. This is an example of family members promoting cheating behaviour as acceptable and discouraging learning through failure. It also highlights how in the absence of a message or influence from teachers to counteract this notion the behaviour is likely to continue and migrate to further educational experiences.

Although it is difficult to see one's own child fail or not perform as they anticipated, learning to recover from failures builds resilience and acts as a new learning

opportunity. We need to teach students to recover from failure and mistakes rather than establish an expectation that everything will (or needs to) be perfect on every occasion but instead underscore individual achievement and encourage motivation to strive to do better. Conversely, digital literacy research has shown that children who were exposed to information evaluation practices at home through shared practices with their parents had stronger school-based digital literacy (Apps et al., 2021). This illustrates the positive influence parents can have on children's early understanding of information, digital, and academic literacy along with opportunities for home and school engagement.

It is not clear whether primary and secondary Australian teachers can detect or have processes in place to identify these instances of parentally-completed (or purchased) work, or whether they may have implemented steps to discourage the practice directly with parents, carers and guardians. However, studies in higher education demonstrate that those teaching can identify when the students work is not their own (Dawson & Sutherland-Smith, 2018). This translation of integrity identification knowledge and practice is an area requiring further research in other educational contexts (Amigud & Lancaster, 2019). If studies are conducted into this type of behaviour and the influence on how students approach academic integrity issues in other contexts it may provide some insight of what can be included in teacher education and continuing professional development of teachers to address the practice before students reach higher education.

Issues in Transitioning to Higher Education Learning Contexts

Many universities are beginning to acknowledge the differences between school learning contexts and the requirements of higher education, most notably through the inclusion of a 'transition pedagogies' within first year units (Nelson et al., 2014). Former secondary students undergo a rapid initiation into higher education within their first year as they navigate new requirements, learning responsibilities and ways of working in the different context (Kift & Nelson, 2005). They also face additional social and physical adjustments as they develop new friendships and living arrangements than they have been previously exposed to. As a result, 'transition pedagogies' that acknowledge the diversity of previous and current experiences, and the need to develop relevant skills for cumulative benefit are incorporated into many first-year programs (Nelson et al., 2014; Kift, 2015). These programs explore key skills for success as a higher education student, including an understanding of academic writing, culture and integrity practices. While these are provided to students, ensuring the uptake and application of these skills to their practice is difficult to measure and manage (Kift, 2015).

Despite the implementation of transition pedagogies, studies examining the attitudes of individuals undertaking teacher qualifications, such as Fontaine et al.

(2020) and DiPaulo (2022) indicate that pre-service teachers self-report their propensity to cheat at similar rates to students in studying other disciplines. This leads to the reasonable conclusion of a lack of understanding about how the academic integrity requirements of higher education could relate to their future professional roles as teachers. This type of oversight means students commencing higher education studies may be missing fundamental understanding of the importance and application of the principles of academic integrity (Khan & Mulani, 2020) and how the ethics applied to education can influence an individual's approach to integrity in real life situations including in the workplace (Guerrero-Dib et al., 2020). The work of Bretag et al. (2014) and Sefcik et al. (2020) indicate how students commencing higher education want to learn the appropriate behaviours and expectations to avoid allegations of cheating and plagiarism, which are described as "important elements to manage academic dishonesty" (Brimble, 2016, p. 370). However, the fact that students in college or university are seeking guidance on what academic integrity is indicates confusion between the approaches used in school and the new expectations of the higher education system.

Students arrive in higher education environments with the practices, behaviours and expectations that have been embedded in their prior educational experiences and social interactions. Wan and Scott (2016) note how creating a culture of academic integrity in early school experiences can assist in children understanding a culture of educational integrity, embedding this knowledge which can be carried through to higher education (Wan & Scott, 2016; Wangaard, 2016; Christopoulos & Sprangers, 2021). Similar issues exist with teaching ethical approaches to society in general (Boon & Maxwell, 2016). Lavie Dinur et al. (2021) highlighted that a targeted course in safe and responsible online awareness could successfully educate school children in Israel (8–14 years), in developing an understanding of the dangers, risks, and appropriate uses of the Internet. This study may demonstrate a way that academic integrity principles and the risks posed by sites selling assessment tasks could be introduced in a more constructive way to support teachers in integrating this type of learning at earlier stages of education.

In contrast, Cronan et al. (2018) discussed how plagiarism and homework sharing were some of the behaviours that students brought with them to university. Asterham and Bouton (2017) reported on secondary school students' knowledge sharing behaviours via social networking sites, indicating habits were well-developed, and widespread across the cohort. Secondary school students shared knowledge with an expectation of reciprocation (Asterham & Bouton, 2017), mirroring the language and expectations of file-sharing sites that oppose and undermine the learning process (Rogerson & Bassanta, 2016). This often led to students believing it was acceptable to share and in many cases, profit from materials that were not their own.

However, these prior educational settings are inherently different to the structure of higher education, from the connections and relationships students have with their teachers, to discipline practices, and the way the curriculum and classrooms are organised. In Australia, there is a difference between the way academic integrity is approached in higher education settings and schools. This means that even if an

effective understanding of information ownership and source citations is developed in schools, the application and meaning of this knowledge to higher education contexts is often misappropriated. For pre-service teacher education, students are required to transition to the academic integrity requirements of colleges and universities, and then translate their learning into meaningful content for their own classes.

Consequently, higher education needs to better address how previous understanding can be transferred to apply in a new learning context. For example, academic integrity acknowledgement practices in higher education require specific referencing and citation formats appropriate to disciplinary conventions. However, the Australian National Curriculum conceptualises these same ideas through information ownership, identification and acknowledgement in increasingly complex ways that meet the developmental requirements of students at different points without specific citation guidelines (ACARA, n.d.-a, -b). This leads to fundamental differences in understanding between the two education systems, and confusion for students in how to apply and adapt their previous knowledge to comply with different requirements (Kift, 2015). By making these differences and difficulties clearer in IRE courses, pre-service teachers can contribute to bridging the gap, however further research is required to design the most effective approaches.

Summary

Notions of academic integrity embedded in the Australian General Capabilities curriculum are identified as information retrieval, evaluation, use and crediting others where appropriate. This language signifies a key difference with notions of academic integrity in higher education. Attribution of others' work is a core and underpinning component of academic work and practice rather than a 'where appropriate' activity. As such, the primary and secondary curriculum in Australia provides an introduction to ideas of integrity which require further adjustment and refinement in higher education to meet the new demands of the system.

The ways that academic integrity is integrated into the school curriculum as cross curriculum priorities influences the ways that students may engage with information evaluation and attribution across their schooling. Teachers can select to embed these ideas in their teaching and learning or focus on mandated curriculum content. The language of curriculum is also a powerful frame for adoption. The key focus in critical and creative thinking and digital literacy capability is on evaluation of information, which is indeed an important component of academic integrity. In contrast, attribution of others' work is mentioned in one sub-element of the digital literacy capability and 'where appropriate'. This phrase highlights a key tension between the way crediting sources is conceptualised in primary and secondary schools, as opposed to higher education settings. The notion of academic integrity and attribution underpins research and teaching practice in higher education, rather than approached 'ad hoc'. Finally, students' understanding of academic integrity is framed by their experiences at home. This further highlights the diversity of

experiences that students bring to school and then university, which work to shape their understanding of academic and integrity practices.

What Does This Mean for HE and More Specifically Teacher Education?

With such a twenty-first century heightened focus on academic integrity issues in higher education institutions, the need to understand how this knowledge is developed in teaching and learning is paramount. ITE in Australia is underpinned by our curriculum and teaching standards, which determine the inclusion of content within pre-service education. While academic integrity has its place in our current curriculum, the language surrounding its integration and conclusion leads to varied application and uptake from teachers. This is compounded by the differences between primary and secondary settings, and higher education systems, with specific cultural practices regarding academic integrity associated with each. This naturally leads to confusion amongst students about what is and is not appropriate in terms of their ethical understandings related to education (Bretag et al., 2014, 2018).

We cannot simply assume that pre-service teachers will translate their knowledge from their ITE into their classrooms or be assured of how these practices will filter through to students. ITE supports Australian pre-service teachers to understand how they can design learning using the curriculum documents, which determine what is included in general education content. As academic integrity is incorporated into General Capability outcomes, it becomes the responsibility of the teacher to consider how to connect the skill to other classroom activities which would help to embed the practice and provide context. This is also compounded by other experiences students may have had at home or in other classroom settings, which contribute to each students' knowledge and development of "personal and professional integrity" (Bertram Gallant, 2017, p. 92).

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Chapter 3
Using Codes of Professional Ethics and Conduct in Teacher Education: Pitfalls and Best Practice

Daniella Forster and Bruce Maxwell

Abstract This chapter explains the urgent need for educational ethics as a component of teacher development and highlights the crucial role that codes of ethics and conduct can play in the profession of teaching. We argue that if we are to consider teachers as professionals, initial and continuing professional training must provide teachers with the means to develop sophisticated professionality. In relation to this goal, we recommend that codes of conduct and ethics are necessary but not sufficient and hence that they must be made part of a more comprehensive approach. The chapter begins by using the idea of teachers' role morality to identify teaching as a morally distinct profession in order to appreciate how codes of ethics can contribute to teacher education and professional development. We then offer a case study from Australia to demonstrate trends in the management of teacher misconduct allegations. The criticisms of formal investigation procedures conducted by New South Wales' Employee Performance and Conduct Directorate are summarised. After presenting evidence on the general absence of codes and ethics education in initial teacher education programs around the globe, to rectify this absence, we offer research-based cautions about the efficacy of ethics education, and a suite of pedagogies for incorporating codes of ethics in teacher education. Managing the multidirectional moral obligations associated with teaching requires specialised professional skills, beliefs and knowledge. Pedagogy should highlight the localised parameters, obligations and expectations of the role, and demonstrate different but strongly justified ways of approaching key professional issues in teaching.

Keywords Codes of conduct · Teacher education · Professional learning · Educational ethics · Misconduct

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Introduction

Professionals, according to standard definitions of the term, are masters of specialised fields who provide society with goods valuable to human flourishing (Oakley & Cocking, 2006). Like all professionals, teaching professionals are expected to provide these social and personal goods in accordance with ethical norms that guide practice and which, in turn, have important legal and educational implications. This chapter will make the case that, if we are to consider teachers as professionals, initial and continuing professional training must provide teachers with the means to develop some form of sophisticated professionality and that codes of ethics and conduct can and should play a significant role in this process. However, we will also argue that there are certain limitations and potential pitfalls to be taken into account when using codes of ethics in teacher education and professional development. Professional ethics are an extension of everyday ethics. They are constituted by foundational principles or virtues which society expects of the profession (Campbell, 2008a). To some degree, codes of conduct and ethics capture these expectations. This chapter will begin by examining the role morality of teaching as a profession in order to appreciate how codes of ethics can contribute to teacher education and professional development. It then offers a case study to demonstrate trends in teacher misconduct informing the use of codes in teacher education, particularly to deepen understanding around teachers' duty of care and systemic pressures which impact formal misconduct processes. The third section details research indicating a general absence of codes and ethics education in initial teacher education programs around the globe. To rectify this absence, we offer a suite of pedagogies for incorporating codes of ethics in teacher education. We argue that codes of conduct and ethics must be part of this endeavour but caution that they should be seen as only one component in a more comprehensive approach to educational ethics.

Teachers' Professional Role Morality

Appreciating how codes of conduct and ethics can contribute to teacher education requires a nuanced picture of the role morality of teaching and teachers. Professions contribute to society's flourishing in particular ways. Identifying a teleology of the profession of teaching—i.e., its central values and particular social purpose in the current socio-historical moment—helps to clarify its ethical obligations and responsibilities and, in turn, lead the pedagogical aims of initial teacher education and post-university professional development. Professional roles carry their own specific requirements which, once properly understood, may to some degree be independent from what broad-based morality would ordinarily permit or require people to do in a professional context (Oakley & Cocking, 2006). Those who occupy a professional role need to develop an understanding of the way their responsibilities and obligations serve the public good and the profession itself. This is not always

apparent to new members of the profession, as a profession's role morality can sometimes raise concerns since those people in the professional role sometimes use the expectations of role morality to justify and defend morally unacceptable acts. To give two examples, a lawyer may aggressively interrogate a fragile but potentially damaging witness and soldiers must follow kill orders.

Teachers too can face schisms between broad-based morality and the constraints of their role depending on the nature of their codes of conduct or the parameters in which their role is proscribed (Forster, 2019a). It is important to recognise a number of morally rich sub-roles within the relationships between teachers and students that may give rise to a sense of moral conflict. These include: the teacher as social worker or counsellor, coach and motivator, practitioner and pedagogue, judge of what counts as knowledge, skill, or suitable belief, as team-mate and colleague, community liaison, leader, and communicator and as disciplinarian or behaviour manager. A degree of conflict not only between these sub-roles is almost inevitable but also between the teacher role more broadly and other roles the incumbent plays in his or her life; one's roles in family and the broader community – for example, as parent, lover, sibling, or firefighter (Best, 1996).

Applbaum (1999) has pointed out that the notion of a professional role "is not a well-defined and well-developed moral idea" (p. 46) in terms of delineating the ethical force of teachers' professional obligations and responsibilities. The specific professional role that teachers are asked to play needs elaboration in order to distinguish a good role occupant from a bad one, among other things. The "very notion of a good role occupant who does what is prescribed creates the possibility of a bad role occupant who does not do what is prescribed" (Applbaum, 1999, p. 56). Moreover, understanding what a good role occupant might look like does not automatically translate into behaviour that is consistent with this ideal. Fear of doing the wrong thing is only a partial motivator for moral action as it might paralyse right action or destabilise the relationship between self and role, leading to a lack of integrity and coherency (Campbell, 2003). Teacher education, then, needs to provide opportunities to develop knowledge and practice skills for role occupants to identify, clarify and interrogate the multiple roles of teaching. As it will be tested on a day to day basis, teacher education needs to support teachers individually in building a coherent and sustainable moral interpretation of what this looks and feels like in the teacher's particular context.

By developing a conceptually sophisticated understanding of their professional role, teachers will be in a better position to justify judgments about what is in their students' best educational interests. A first aspect of teacher role morality to consider is how teachers' work differs from that of other professionals. Teachers can be distinguished from other professions in terms of three morally salient features of their work: (1) the demystification of knowledge, (2) social proximity, and (3) the reciprocity of effort between professional and client. First, teachers demystify knowledge by working to reduce the gap in competence in relation to pupils. They plan, implement, and assess for knowledge and skills construction and help students deconstruct the process so that they can take up adulthood in its many complexities. Many professionals take an educational role with their clients. Doctors do so in

one-on-one discussions with patients and their families about treatment options and, in a very general sense, all professionals have specialised knowledge to share. However, teachers specialise in demystifying the specialist knowledge they have acquired. Second, unlike the engineer designing a bridge, teachers cannot maintain a high degree of social distance from those to whom they offer professional services. Teachers must come close to students in order to understand the circumstances in which students are living. Finally, for students to succeed, a certain reciprocity of effort between teachers and their students is essential. In some ways, the teacher in fact provides the means for the student to make the necessary effort as well as to persist and set meaningful goals for their own learning and, in some cases, in life more generally.

Another aspect of teachers' professional role morality is that classroom practices and school culture have inherent morally salient features (Jackson et al., 1993). These include:

1. School and classroom rules and regulations and their enforcement
2. Morality of the curriculum substructure or how the classroom is organised, which perspectives are valued and what knowledge is presented
3. Expressive morality within the classroom or the manner in which teachers carry themselves in the classroom in terms of their attitudes towards content, students and student behaviour

These three features of classroom teaching reflect the implicit ways in which morality is on display in classrooms (Jackson et al., 1993).

Lastly, a characteristic aspect of teachers' role morality links to the fact that society asks teachers to model social values and upright personal conduct. Teachers work primarily with children and youth and so are held to higher social and moral expectations than the broader public. Codes of ethical conduct for teachers often explicitly mention this expectation, with many codes stating that teachers' personal conduct reflects on the profession as a whole and can have an impact on the public's confidence in the teaching profession. What a teacher does on the weekend, in romantic partnerships or online are under constant public scrutiny. Recent controversial cases involve the dismissal of teachers for having full body tattoos (Wood, 2020) or taking part in a nude photo shoot ("Teacher sacked over nude photo shoot", 2008). Cases such as these test the social acceptability of otherwise legal, personal choices for teachers.

Van Nuland (2009) has described codes of ethics and conduct in teaching the "conscience of the profession" (p. 7) and, indeed, content analyses of codes of ethics and conduct in teaching have revealed that specific shared values underpin these documents (Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016; Forster, 2012). These values include:

- Respect (fostering trusting relationships, valuing diversity, treating others with dignity, appreciation of the intrinsic worth and uniqueness of persons etc.)
- Justice (fairness, reasonableness, commitment to the common good, respectful treatment of others, etc.)

- Responsibility (providing quality teaching, considering students' best interests, collaboration, etc.)
- Care (empathy, considering students' wellbeing, compassion, etc.)
- Dignity (valuing diversity, equity, care, compassion, uniqueness, intrinsic worth of persons, etc.)

Codes of ethics and conduct have advantages and disadvantages. They make expectations about the need to maintain public trust and enact professional identity transparent (Forster, 2019b). Some have argued that the transparency of ethical expectations, prohibition, and obligations via the implementation of codes of conduct and ethics across the globe, have measurable effects on reducing corruption and misconduct in educational systems and promoting professional identity (e.g., McKelvie-Sebileau, 2011). Others, however, have pointed out that codes of ethics and conduct can be used as a tool for surveillance, to control teachers, and erode professional autonomy (Schwimmer & Maxwell, 2017; Terhart, 1998). Voluntary codes, those that are not enforced by sanctions or penalties, struggle with being perceived as tokenistic. Finally, because the duties articulated in code are often expressed in terms of general principles, by their very nature, codes do not cover all situations or take into account specific circumstances. Because the principles expressed in code can come into conflict in actual professional decision-making situations, they can appear to be contradictory and confusing for practitioners (Forster, 2012).

Local Case Study of Teacher Misconduct and Integrity Procedures

As noted earlier, the ideal of a good role incumbent creates, of course, the possibility of a bad one. Leading teachers to appreciate the reality of misconduct in school culture, helping them make sense of what they may witness, and demystifying investigatory processes in cases of misconduct is one important way to support the emergence of sophisticated professionalism among teachers. Initial teacher education and professional development should make explicit links between their code, policy and legal context, and formal procedures that exist to maintain public trust in the profession. Misconduct procedures require clarity (Poisson, 2009, p. 71). Codes of ethics play a role in identifying and labelling unprofessional behaviour and misconduct. As well, they often contain statements of values that can help professionals navigate difficult decisions in relation to, for example, social media interaction, use of public resources, respectful relationships, the keeping of records, identifying, and managing conflicts of interest and reporting concerns about employee conduct. Initial teacher education must introduce teachers to the codes and policies that will apply to their work and professional role but it must also extend understanding beyond this regulatory framework. To enhance their sense of values and integrity as they play out in the local context, however, each teacher should have an opportunity

to develop strong connections between what it means to act ethically on a conceptual level and actual practice.

In the Australian state of New South Wales (NSW), the Code (NSWDE, 2021) draws on the values that underpin teachers' work. If there is any conflict between the Code and legislation, the provision of the legislation takes precedence. In NSW, the guidelines for the Management of Conduct and Performance are specified in the Teaching Service Act of 1980 and Education (School Administrative and Support Staff) Act of 1987.

Evidence suggests that teacher misconduct in Australia is not widespread, but its effects are devastating. In NSW, there are over 88,000 teachers (ACARA, 2020). Misconduct investigation of NSW Department of Education employees must adhere to strict processes (NSWDE, 2020b). Between 1 January 2008 to 31 December 2019, a period of over 10 years, only 584 teachers were dismissed from their teaching positions for either proven allegations of misconduct or failing a performance improvement program. Teachers identified as experiencing difficulty with their teaching performance are offered an improvement program (NSWDE, 2019). However, this process has the potential to be misused. Some believe older staff are being bullied out of their jobs in preference for cheaper casual staff; more than 90% of teachers in Australia say they have suffered because of bullying and abuse in the workplace (Smith, 2018). According to the NSW Teachers Federation (2008), there is

> a difference between behaviour that could be identified as misconduct and behaviour that is described as 'failing to meet the required level of performance'. Implementing an improvement program for a teacher who has engaged in behaviour that could be categorised as misconduct is not an appropriate response (NSW Teachers Federation, 2008, p. 1).

Like the United Kingdom's Teaching Regulation Agency and British Columbia's Commissioner for Teacher Regulation, authorities such as NSW' Professional and Ethical Standards directorate are used to investigate allegations of unprofessional behaviour, inappropriate relationships, blurring professional boundaries, unreasonable physical contact, fraudulent or corrupt behaviour, misuse of public resources and confidentiality breach (Tedeschi, 2019). Unlike processes in the United Kingdom and Ontario, in NSW the outcomes of disciplinary proceedings are reported anonymously. A formal review of NSW's Employee Performance and Conduct Directorate detailed accusations which included procedural unfairness, lack of consistency in decision-making, inadequate investigations, and confirmation bias against those individuals who are the subject of allegations (Tedeschi, 2019).

Inefficiency is qualitatively different from misconduct and is identified using the national teacher standards (AITSL, 2011). The NSW Department of Education (2020c) defines misconduct but the definition has been criticised for being ambiguous. Since this definition plays such a crucial role at every stage of investigation, its ambiguity provides little guidance (Tedeschi, 2019). Tedeschi (2019) recommends much greater specificity in the NSW Department's Procedural Guidelines that identify the differences between 'misbehaviour' and 'misconduct' which warrants escalation and provide greater guidance to investigations. The types of punitive outcomes

for misconduct vary and include placement on a Not To Be Employed list (NSWDE, 2019). Teachers can also be found guilty of misconduct if convicted of criminal offences including: possessing child exploitation material or prohibited drugs, fraud and domestic violence on family. In Western Australia from 2011 to 2, misconduct was proved in cases where a teaching staff member "simulated smacking a student", along with instances of staff "grabbing" pupils, and another "acting inappropriately with a particular student by rubbing their shoulders" (Phillips, 2012).

In NSW between 2008 and 2019 (NSWDE, 2019), sexual misconduct cases, which encompassed cases of breaching professional relationship boundaries, represented nearly half of all cases. Some involved teachers failing to notify of a sexual assault allegation or sexual offences against a student. A primary school principal and two senior Catholic education officials in Toowoomba were sacked after they failed to report to police complaints of child abuse against a teacher who molested 13 girls (ABC News, 2014).

Child abuse perpetrators can groom the child, as well as other people in the child's life, for example, their parents or carers, teachers, and other staff members in schools, and so the profession needs to make a more concerted effort in identifying grooming behaviours and taking action on the duty of care (Whelan, 2019). A school's duty of care is non-delegable. Teachers have a responsibility in loco parentis. This does not mean that they are expected to act in the place of the parent in the sense of assuming all parental responsibilities. Giving advice to a troubled student, for example, would fall outside their professional role. The sense of teachers' *in loco parentis* responsibility is rather that they have "taken over, in respect of the pupils those obligations of which their parents have been deprived, including the obligation to take reasonable care for their safety" (Knott, 2009, citing High Court of Australia). The Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse (Commonwealth of Australia, 2017) found that schools:

> did not respond adequately to reports of child sexual abuse. [There was] poor leadership […], a lack of accountability, and cultures that prioritised protecting the school over the safety of children. Inadequate complaints processes, investigations and disciplinary action contributed to [schools] failing to act on complaints or meet their obligations to report matters to external authorities. Inadequate record keeping […] perpetuated the risk of sexual abuse to children in schools (p. 13).

Codes of Ethics in Teacher Education Initial Teacher Education

In light of the devastating effects of misconduct in school and the difficulty in getting formal investigation processes right, it comes as no surprise that a central role of ethics education in teacher preparation should be to introduce prospective educators to the collective norms of teaching (see for example Campbell, 2013; Coombs 1998; Nash, 1991; Soltis, 1986; Strike, 1990; Ungaretti et al., 1997). Teacher professionalism is based on a set of ethical concepts and values and these ethical

commitments find expression in a range of broadly accepted professional standards and norms—but especially in codes of ethics. Since codes of ethics are by design the most specific and authoritative statement of those core commitments, one of the most common ways to promote professionalism in university-based and continuing professional education is to familiarise professionals with the code of ethics to which they will be held accountable in their work. The specific educational interest of a code of ethics lies, as Banks (2003) reminds us, not only in informing learners about the collective norms of their professions, but also in initiating them into the vocabulary that professionals in a particular field use to discuss and debate ethical issues that arise in the workplace. For teachers, as for any other professional group, familiarity with collective ethical and other regulatory norms, and the ability to apply them judiciously in practice, necessarily enhances the quality of their work because possessing this knowledge and capacity is part of what it means to conduct oneself "professionally" (variations of this argument can be found in Boon, 2011; Campbell, 2008b; Nash, 1991; Strike, 1990; Terhart, 1998; Vongalis-Macrow, 2007).

Societies around the world impose on legally recognized professions the requirement not only to put a code of ethics into place but also to educate members in the content of the code (Abbott, 1988). As efforts to professionalise teaching intensify, codes of ethics have become increasingly common. In more than fifty countries, teacher associations and federations, unions and, in the rare cases where they exist, professional orders of teachers have put in place official codes of teacher ethics (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2010).

There is evidence to suggest, however, that familiarising future teachers with their local code of ethics is not currently a priority in initial teacher education. Often, preservice teacher preparation is taking place against a background of confusion and uncertainty among teacher educators about what should be taught under the heading of "teacher ethics" and what role, if any, instruction on codes of ethics should play. The evidence comes primarily from recent survey work on the implementation of ethics education in initial teacher education (see Maxwell et al., 2015, 2016). The survey, whose main objective was to gather information on how common dedicated ethics courses are in university- and college-based teacher education programs, had two components First, data were collected from approximately 200 teacher educators working in the United States, the Netherlands, England, Canada and Australia on such issues as whether the teacher education programs they are involved in include a dedicated ethics course and their views on the most important instructional goals of ethics education for future teachers. Second, the results of this survey were crosschecked using a manual search of academic calendars. This phase of the research sought to identify ethics-related courses for future teachers and then analyse the content of the ethics course descriptions found.

The results of the survey covered with one of the key conclusions of Campbell's (2008a) classic review of the literature on the ethics of teaching: despite decades of extensive research on the ethical dimensions of teaching, scholars do not appear to be any closer to agreement on the core professional values of teacher and teachers' most important ethical obligations. The survey revealed a great deal of variability in the content of mandatory ethics-related courses for future teachers. Furthermore, a

considerable gap was found between the participant-reported information about the commonness of a dedicated ethics course and the results of the manual calendar search. Very often, the teacher educators said that the teacher education programs offered by their academic units did not contain an ethics-related course when in fact they did.

An indicator that the local code of ethics, its embedded ethical and legal concepts, and the application of its obligations in practice are not standard fare in ethics courses is that the keyword "code of ethics" appeared in the course description of only 10% of the 64 course descriptions collected in the study. Course descriptions published in university calendars do not always accurately reflect what is actually taught in a class but other evidence gathered in a survey provided additional support for the hypothesis.

Evidence from answers given by about 60 respondents directly involved in teaching ethics courses for future teachers in the five countries surveyed suggested a broad consensus. The teaching and learning objectives for a course on ethics that participants of the survey viewed as being the most important included "developing ethical sensitivity" and "promoting the professional values of teaching." An objective considered least important was "acquaint students with the local legal and regulatory context (e.g., law, ethics codes)."

Even more telling was an astonishing discovery about the teacher-educator participants' lack of familiarity with their own local codes of ethics. Since participant-reported information about the presence of ethics courses in programs was inaccurate, as mentioned above, respondents' assertions about the existence of a code of ethics in their jurisdiction was double-checked via an online search. Close to 90% of the North American teacher educator respondents said that no code of ethics applied to teachers in their state, province, or territory. The online search gave these data the lie. A code of ethics for teachers is currently in place in nearly every state, province, and territory in North America. At risk of stating the obvious, if the people who teach future teachers do not even know that a code of ethics exists in the region where they work, we can be confident that they are not covering it in their classes.

How Codes of Ethics Contribute to Teacher Development: Evidence-Based Recommendations

Educational ethics in teaching has many guises, from the moral work of teaching to professional and pedagogical ethics to concerns around politically oriented social justice and democratic education (Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016). Accordingly, teachers' ethical professional development experiences can take a variety of forms. Whatever form it takes, educational ethics as a field aims to contribute clarity and philosophically-informed tools to assist in the service of these moral ideals (Bullough, 2011; Coombs, 1998; Ehrich et al., 2011; Hytten, 2015; Joseph, 2016;

Levinson & Fay, 2016, 2019; Warnick & Silverman, 2011). With the aim of increasing "the likelihood that the beliefs teachers will act upon in their teaching practice are professional beliefs" (Ruitenberg, 2011, p. 44), serious professional education for teachers in ethics that includes professional dialogue about both systemic and particular ethical issues in schooling is vital (Orchard, 2021).

There is evidence that pre-service teachers are underprepared for confronting ethical dilemmas in the field (Boon, 2011; Boon & Maxwell, 2016; Campbell, 2008a, b). In a systematic review of the empirical literature, Cummings et al. (2007) found that, across the board, moral reasoning ability among teachers (pre and in-service) is low compared to students in other programs of study. Furthermore, improvements in moral reasoning among education students were associated with the inclusion of curriculum and pedagogy that made greater cognitive demands on students' critical thinking. Such content involves explicitly teaching about moral development and psychological theory and often features the discussion of moral dilemmas within simulated contexts. It can also include teaching strategies to develop empathy and ethical awareness such counselling skills, social role-playing, and self-analysis and reflection. Experiential approaches to learning in combination with reflective tasks are most effective in promoting changes in pre-service teachers' dispositions, understandings, and attitudes (Mills & Ballantyne, 2016). Teacher educators can make a significant impact on pre-service teachers' capacities for deep reflection about their ethical positioning (Joseph, 2016) but this does not mean that there is a single correct answer for these complex human attributes and relations. The fact that educational ethics takes many forms in teacher education (see Buchanan et al., 2021), confirmed by the results of the survey of ethics education for future teachers referred to above, reflects this ethical plurality of teaching.

Whilst teachers use a range of ethical and culturally-informed positions to work through, justify, and sometimes rationalise decision-making and action, these perspectives are not necessarily acquired in ethics courses. As Husu (2004) observes, "pedagogical ethics cannot be learned sufficiently during formal teacher preparation […] variability in the quality and capability of teachers' dealing with ethical dilemmas must be expected" (p. 137). Furthermore, research has not produced strong evidence that ethics education has a positive impact on making behaviour "more ethical." The first controlled study to show a behavioural effect of university-level ethics instruction did demonstrate statistically significant differences in behaviour though it is unclear how long it took before the effect of the learning 'washed off' (Schwitzgebel et al., 2020). Ethics education can in principle be studied empirically, particularly when validated measures of ethical development or competency are used. Two examples of such tools are the Test of Ethical Sensitivity in Teaching, an assessment of educators' ability to recognize ethically salient features in a professional situation (Maxwell et al., 2021a, b), and the Intermediate Concept Measure for Teachers, an assessment of teacher's mastery of ethical concept specific to the teaching profession (Kerr, 2021). However, such research often raises questions about how well these instruments gauge the actual effects of ethics education on behaviour. Schwitzgebel, Cokelet and Singer point out (2020) "almost all [previous] studies use measures of moral reasoning, moral attitude, knowledge of standards, or

Rest's Defining Issues Test" not measurable moral action (p. 2). Schwitzgebel et al. (2020) study of the behavioural effects of a general philosophy-based ethics course on the ethics of eating meat and giving to charity indicates that discussion-based philosophical instruction in ethics leads to a change of beliefs as their study indicated. Given the limitations of the study, the question of which aspects of the instruction were responsible for these changes in belief remains open.

Some have argued that the activity of philosophical ethics in teacher education is worthwhile not simply for personal edification or character building in teaching but also because it provides teachers with useful knowledge that helps them make better, publicly justifiable moral decisions in their work. As Martin (2013) points out, philosophical ethics in teacher education takes many forms: (1) engagement with philosophical ethics to inculcate teachers into a particular set of professional norms; (2) approaches that aim to improve teachers' skills in applying a broad set of moral concepts to professional contexts; (3) descriptive forms highlight moral pluralism arising in the classroom; and (4) approaches which surpass sentimentalism by aiming to develop teachers' deliberative abilities to publicly defend ethical judgements by referring to the nature of educational activity itself (Martin, 2013). Some of these approaches may be more worthwhile than others (Martin, 2013).

The pedagogy of educational ethics has been going through a period of revival that opens up many opportunities for educators seeking robust approaches to teacher education in ethics. Some of these approaches to teaching and learning about ethics and philosophy were pioneered outside the field of teacher education. For instance, the Community of Inquiry pedagogy has been modified and applied to ethics in teaching (Burgh et al., 2006; Orchard, 2021; Orchard & Winstanley, 2020). It is a pedagogical model based on deliberative democratic ideals and collaborative inquiry. Many forms of narrative-based pedagogical approaches have developed in teacher education, some more theoretically robust than others (Rogers & Faust Sizer, 2010). The Normative Case Study methodology (Levinson & Fay, 2016, 2019) is based on the assumption that distinctive, sometimes novel or unfamiliar, contextually rich and empirically informed case studies of ethical dilemmas are useful to destabilise and reinvigorate the web of normative attitudes and beliefs through examination of interconnected factual elements and interacting values (Thacher, 2006). Narratives too are well established vehicles for ethics education. Evidence suggests this form can direct perception and attention to moral and educational issues, extend philosophical ideas, release social and moral imaginations, and exercise moral responsiveness (Verducci, 2014).

The role of teaching about codes of ethics and conduct in teacher development is complementary to, though not sufficient for, generating ethical understanding, decision-making and action. For the reasons discussed above, it is necessary preparation prior to pre-service teachers embarking on professional placements. It plays a strong part in identifying non-negotiable boundaries and obligations especially around teachers' duty of care, equity, and collegial relationships. Some textbooks on ethical issues in teaching incorporate demonstrations of different codes of ethics and conduct and include activities which invite education students to contrast,

critique and evaluate their local code against other codes (Gereluk et al., 2016; Maxwell et al., 2021a, b; Dyson et al., 2015).

When the code is taught in such a way that it is clearly connected to contextually specific issues of teacher education, students can explore, within the parameters of the code, the ethical complexity they will likely encounter in practice. One way to do this is to connect normative case studies to locally-binding supplementary education policies, such as the Controversial Issues Policy, Social Media Policy, and Anti-Discrimination laws. Offering informed commentaries on cases connects international issues with local priorities such as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures (Ford et al., 2019) as would be relevant in Australia, or the calls to action issued by Truth and Reconciliation Commission on Residential Schools in Canada (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2015). The key point is that these are topics that challenge people to negotiate complex broad-based issues that have not yet reached a tipping point in society; topics which present "living" issues (Levinson, 2018). Such topics include student civil disobedience and climate change, teaching on stolen land, what counts and what does not count as a controversial issue to teach about in school, the ethics of digital surveillance of students, and the question of religion education in secular public schools.

Another way to teach about codes of ethics and conduct in a way that is meaningful for students is to link the structure and content of a code to the notion of professional identity and its development. Research on the development of professional identity has shown that the process of growing into a professional role is a process of decentration (Bebeau & Monson, 2012). At the beginning of their careers, professionals tend to have a very narrow conception of professional obligations focused essentially on providing quality service or care to those who benefit most directly from professionals' work (i.e., "clients"). As professional identity develops, this conception of professional duty broadens out to include duties to colleagues, employers, society as a whole and the profession itself. Viewed from the perspective of professional identity, in a course on educational ethics, codes of ethics and conduct can act as a catalyst for professional identity development. By pointing out that codes of ethics and conduct in teaching lay out obligations to a wide range of stakeholders—not just to pupils—students are led to expand their conception of what they owe and to whom in their professional role. Codes of ethics and conduct all contain obligations to students that most pre-service teachers appreciate: provide quality instruction, treat students fairly and respectfully, etc. It can be an eye-opening experience for students to see that the teaching profession holds teachers to high expectations in relation to the parents as well (e.g., communicate with parents effectively about matters of educational importance), colleagues (e.g., manage criticisms and complaints respectfully and through proper channels), society (e.g., respect the curriculum), their employer (e.g., observe respect for workplace authority and hierarchy) and the profession (e.g., refrain from actions that would bring dishonour to the profession). Indeed, the multi-directional nature of obligations that characterise the teacher ethics as articulated in the local code can be used as an organising principle for structuring the content of a course or module on professional ethics in teaching.

A final consideration that speaks in favour of including the study of codes of ethics in ethics education for educators is to meet a basic ethical responsibility that teacher educators have to look out for the interests of education students as future practitioners. Wherever teachers are held accountable to standards articulated in a code of professional conduct—and this is just about everywhere, as indicated above—it is only fair to novice teachers that they be informed about those ethical standards and that steps be taken to ensure that they understand them adequately. One place where this can and should occur, as it does in many professions, is in initial university-based professional formation, well before students have direct contact with the public in a professional capacity (Abbott, 1988). Many professional training programs for teachers are providing instruction in the ethical dimensions of teaching and education, as the survey work reviewed above showed, but what that research also suggests is that the kind of education being offered about the ethical dimensions of the profession is out of step with broader efforts to professionalise teaching. According to the most elementary conception of what a profession is, the exercise of the expert skills needed to intervene effectively in a fundamentally important domain of life—health, learning, finances, justice, etc.— and a set of standards of ethical conduct are two sides of the same coin. Society entrusts a relatively wide margin of autonomy to professionals and recognizes the right to self-regulation in exchange for a promise that they will work under publicly promulgated and internally enforced standards of ethical conduct. In legally recognized professions like accounting, law, engineering, and dentistry, it is considered to be a question of basic public accountability and simple responsibility to students to make sure that those entering the profession have some direct exposure to the set of standards that they will be judged by in the eyes of their public, their clients and their peers—even if that exposure amounts to nothing more than a 1-day crash course. Yet in teacher education, more often than not, codes of ethics are little-known, derided as reductionist, or simply ignored. It is essential that students leave teacher education programs equipped with a basic understanding of the code of ethics that will apply to them as professionals. For these reasons, then, we join our voices to the small chorus of teacher educators who have been arguing, in some cases for decades, that familiarising students with the collective norms of the teaching profession is a sine qua non of an adequate ethics education for future teachers and that the local code of ethics is basic to this work.

Conclusion

The arguments explored here have aimed to explain the urgent need to ensure that teacher training includes educational ethics and how codes of ethics and conduct have a crucial role to play in this endeavour. However, ethical practice is not simply a demonstration of compliance with codes of conduct and ethics. Managing even the most common moral problems associated with teaching requires specialised professional skills, beliefs, and knowledge (Bebeau & Monson, 2008). A

case-based community of dialogue pedagogy should highlight the localised parameters, obligations, and expectations of the role, and demonstrate different but strongly justified ways of approaching key professional issues. Broad frameworks, with codes of conduct and ethics at the centre, should be used to support moral objectivity and enable preservice teachers to internalise the philosophical-level thinking and professional behaviour required for critical and intelligent ethical teacher practice in pluralist democracies. As this chapter has urged, extensive ethics education in preservice teacher programs is an imperative for a number of interconnected reasons. The current dominance of narrowed instrumentalism, standardisation, reductive competencies and audit culture conditions of teaching and teacher education are not conducive to reflective ethical practice (Kostogritz & Doecke, 2011; Webster & Whelan, 2019; Biesta, 2017). This makes urgent the need for teachers and teacher educators who will interrogate professionalism and reimagine the purposes of education for a vibrant pluralist democratic society.

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Chapter 4
Preparing Preservice Teachers to Teach Academic Integrity and Ethics

Sonja Bjelobaba and Marita Cronqvist

Abstract The inclusion of ethics and integrity in preservice teacher education can refer to several contexts. The first context is academic integrity for preservice teachers with a focus on incorporating academic integrity in their own studies within higher education, as well as teaching them different components of academic writing including proper referencing techniques to enable them to write their own academic texts. The second context is developing the professional ethics of these future teachers, as a lived practice as well as through ethical codes. The third context is giving preservice teachers pedagogical and didactic knowledge and instruments to teach academic integrity and ethics to their future students in primary and secondary education, in order to prepare them for their own higher education endeavours. While attention is paid to the first and the second context, the third one is only rarely treated as a part of preservice teacher education as it is usually assumed that the first context is indirectly giving enough preparation for a preservice teacher to subsequently mediate ethics and integrity to his or her students. In this paper, we argue that this assumption is problematic and propose the inclusion of the third context – preparing future teachers to teach academic integrity and ethics – in preservice teacher education. Although the chapter uses the preservice teacher education in Sweden as a starting point, the three ethical contexts that are identified are not limited to any particular national preservice education system but are relevant in other similar frameworks as well.

Keywords Professional ethics · Academic integrity · Preservice teacher education

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Preservice teacher education in Sweden is a professional education of varied lengths that includes four vocational degrees: preschool teachers, elementary school teachers, subject teachers, and vocational teachers. All programs include 60 ECTS (the European Credit Transfer System; 30 ECTS corresponds to one semester) in education science, as well as 30 ECTS in work-based education.

The aim of preservice teacher education in Sweden – as in other countries – is to prepare students for their future professional endeavours. Teaching ethical behaviour in a profession is an integral part of such a professional education. Signature pedagogy is a concept proposed by Shulman for teaching practices that train students for their upcoming profession by focusing on "the three fundamental dimensions of professional work – to think, to perform, and to act with integrity" (Shulman, 2005, p. 52). Teaching practices in preservice education thus shape the behaviour of the future professionals: focusing on academic integrity and professional ethics in preservice education enhances the ethical behaviour of future in-service teachers – and, through their teaching, of future generations.

The three dimensions in Shulman's definition can be understood as the difference between teaching ethics and teaching in an ethical way (Osguthorpe, 2008) that emerges in the curriculum for comprehensive schools in Sweden (Skolverket, 2019, p. 2):

> It is not enough that teaching conveys knowledge of basic democratic values. The teaching must be conducted in democratic working methods and prepare the students to actively participate in society. It should develop their ability to take personal responsibility.

Actually, three different views of teaching ethics are expressed here, namely teaching about different values, letting the students experience them in practice, and preparing the students to act on them in the future. Students here are pupils in comprehensive school, but in order to develop these abilities, preservice teachers themselves must go through a similar process of the three different dimensions of teaching ethics. Those views can be compared to Schulman's dimensions as well as to Biesta's (2003) problematization of the different views of teaching democratic values. With references to Arendt, Biesta (2003) concludes that the students' ability to act in school is crucial in their education. Another part of democratic education that he advocates is to offer opportunities for students to reflect on their actions in different situations.

The question is whether the signature pedagogies commonly used in preservice education equip future professionals with the necessary skills to act and teach ethical behaviour as the ethical knowledge is often transferred through a "hidden curriculum" (Shulman, 2005, p. 55). Ethics as tacit knowledge is a well-known problem in educational research and can refer to different aspects such as not being aware of one's values (Campbell, 2003), inability to express values like knowledge, conceptualise, and theorise them (Colnerud & Granström, 2002; Thornberg, 2008), identify the responsibility (Campbell, 2000; Cronqvist, 2015), and verbalise it (Carr, 2000; Klaassen, 2002; Sockett & LePage, 2002). The result of this implicit transfer is a missed opportunity to reflect on the ethical aspects of the profession as well as the development of the analytical skills to analyse and discuss them. When moral

dilemmas appear in teaching, there is usually no time to consider different options. Therefore, reflection on the ethical aspects of teaching after the teaching session is essential to preservice teachers' learning (Cronqvist, 2015; Husu & Tirri, 2003; Shapira-Lishinsky, 2011). The inclusion of ethics and integrity in teacher education can thus refer to several contexts; in this chapter, three such contexts are identified and discussed.

Academic Integrity for Preservice Teachers

The first context within the field of ethics and integrity preservice teachers normally encounter is some sort of an introduction to academic integrity. The focus in this context is on incorporating academic integrity in preservice teachers' own studies within higher education. The European Network for Academic Integrity defines academic integrity as "Compliance with ethical and professional principles, standards, practices and consistent system of values, that serves as guidance for making decisions and taking actions in education, research and scholarship." (ENAI, 2018, pp. 7–8). The concept incorporates two different aspects: instalment of the fundamental values of academic integrity – honesty, trust, fairness, respect, responsibility, and courage (ICAI, 2021) – as well as providing faculty and students with the skills needed to implement those values in their own practices. Amongst such skills, the development of students' academic writing and proper referencing techniques is crucial.

The incorporation of academic integrity in all higher education in Sweden, including preservice teachers' education, starts usually very early, with a reminder to students that they always need to reference correctly and that plagiarism and cheating are offences that could lead to sanctions by the institution's Disciplinary Board. The sanctions are regulated nationally in Chap. 10 of the Higher Education Ordinance in Sweden where it is stated that "disciplinary measure may be invoked against students who use prohibited aids or other methods to deceive during examinations" (Higher Education Ordinance, 1993). The penalties available to Disciplinary Boards are limited to warnings and suspensions of up to 6 months (Ibid.).

Institutions' policy documents in Sweden reflect this ordinance and centrally developed policy documents and websites routinely provide information that plagiarism and cheating are prohibited and describe the institutional disciplinary procedures. The focus is often on the avoidance of misconduct and academic integrity is thus usually defined negatively, by pointing to the undesirable behaviour (Bjelobaba, 2020).

The national statistics of the disciplinary measures in the country are published yearly by the Swedish Higher Education Authority. Since the statistics are not kept across different disciplines, it is not possible to say how it is distributed by different subjects such as preservice teacher education, but the overall figure has been increasing every year peaking additionally during the emergency remote teaching caused by COVID-19 (UKÄ, 2021) with plagiarism being the most frequent type of

misconduct. It is worth noting that the statistics differentiate between only a few types of breaches of academic integrity and, for instance, do not include contract cheating, i.e., outsourcing of coursework to a third party (Clarke & Lancaster, 2006).

While not compulsory, text-matching software is extensively used in Sweden, and as the large majority of institutions use the same system, the database can match texts across the higher education sector. Although some institutions in Sweden have developed academic integrity resources that discuss academic integrity in a broader and more positive sense than merely expressing the requirement to avoid misconduct and the potential sanctions, such resources are often not compulsory for students to read. The development of academic integrity fundamental values is infrequently pronounced besides the usage of the term "academic honesty"; however, this term is often merely used as a replacement for the term academic integrity.

An important part of higher education is providing students with academic writing skills that can enable them to engage in a scholarly intertextual conversation (Howard & Jamieson, 2021). Departments and faculties in Sweden often have a close collaboration with university libraries as well as university academic writing centres that can provide information on proper referencing, as well as access to different reference management software. There are several websites, online tutorials, courses, and other resources developed by university libraries or university academic writing centres on proper referencing techniques and development of academic writing skills that include examples and tips on how to avoid plagiarism. Whereas most students do receive training in academic writing techniques and referencing techniques (Glendinning & Orim, 2013, p. 10), no policy requires the usage of these resources.

There is also a lack of such requirements in a curriculum: the academic writing skills of the students – including preservice teachers – are assessed through a range of written assessments and thesis-writing; however, there is usually a lack of specific learning outcomes and learning activities that can ensure that student has required necessary knowledge in this area thus preventing a constructive alignment to build (Bjelobaba, 2020). Publicly available websites for preservice education often – but not in all cases – contain links to the above-mentioned policy documents, websites, and resources that are common for all students in the higher education institution.

Main policy documents in Sweden focus thus on the regulatory compliance combined with the training in academic writing and technical solutions for the detection. The emphasis is not on teaching the academic integrity values, but on letting the students experience them in practice. The consequence of this is a missing opportunity to develop students' ethical competence through articulation and discussion of ethical values. Such a discussion would not only strengthen the students' ethical development during their studies but also enable a discussion of ethics in their future roles as professionals.

Ethical Aspects of the Professional Role of Teachers

The second context describing the inclusion of ethics and integrity in teacher education is developing the professional ethics of these future teachers, as a lived practice as well as through ethical codes (Bullough, 2011; Cronqvist, 2020a). Governing documents and laws for the Swedish education system do not mention professional ethics at all but describe the basic values on which education rests and which teachers and other adults in the school must express and educate the children on as citizens of a democratic society. In this mission lies an inherent conflict to both protect the individual's freedom and integrity and at the same time advocate specific democratic values. This conflict, the difficulty to interpret and embody basic values that are expressed in general terms, developing responsibility in the professional role, and handling all this in the teaching of a subject content are challenges that teacher education must deal with. Dyrdal Solbrekke and Englund (2011) differ between the two logics of professional responsibility and accountability and argue that responsibility needs increased influence in education. New public management has rendered accountability too much focus, they argue, which means that notable, countable factors have received more attention than factors that are harder to verbalise and check, but still very crucial to quality. They describe accountability as answerability and obligation while they characterise responsibility as trust and judgement (p. 854). The separation of different logics visualises the difficulty to deal with integrity and ethics in teacher education, especially when it comes to the responsibility that is a kind of moral obligation from the inside. The moral dimension of teaching is challenging to verbalise and discuss, and fundamental values are problematic to embody because of individual differences (Cronqvist, 2021) and many available options depending on the context.

Even if the documents do not mention professional ethics, it is crucial to understand what the teachers' responsibility to students means. The two teacher unions in Sweden, *Lärarnas Riksförbund* and *Lärarförbundet*, have formulated teachers' professional ethics as an ethical code. The principles are not based on research and can be questioned in comparison to research results (Cronqvist, 2020a). In a phenomenological study, searching for the essence of professional ethics according to preservice teachers, the result indicated seven meaning elements (Cronqvist, 2015):

- Ambiguity requires an approach to responsibility
- External factors can be obstacles
- Relationship and learning are interwoven
- Experiences should be for a child's best interests
- Every child must be included
- Authority arises through an atmosphere of joy, respect, and safety
- Development occurs when theory and practice meet in reflection

The different meaning elements are relevant to this chapter and will be part of the argumentation but are more thoroughly described and discussed in other texts (Cronqvist, 2015, 2017, 2019, 2020a, b).

Teacher educators need to support preservice teachers to both explain and discuss values and to develop self-awareness about how to visualise them in practice. In a study about professional ethics (Cronqvist, 2015), the values of respect and safety were expressed by participants as characteristics of the desired atmosphere in the classroom and the values were not possible to separate. If respect was lacking, so was safety. Still, the participants' explanations of the values differed. One example was the different ways of understanding respect between a preservice teacher Nina, one of the participants, and her supervisors during her internship (p. 104): although all parties declared the importance of showing respect to the children, the preservice teacher could not agree that this was always visible in the practice. She concludes that her supervisors did not offend the children consciously but that they had a different view of what it means to show respect. Nina's explanation about the relationship between the values and actions was that her supervisors had worked together for many years so that their practice had become a routine that they no longer reflected on. Nina's example illustrates the difference between talking about values and performing them in practice.

Anna and Stina, two other participants in the study on professional ethics, discussed the importance of being a safe person (Cronqvist, 2015). Such utterances are quite common among teachers and the meaning of a safe person is implicit. Explanations are usually not expected and still, several different understandings might be underlying. For Anna, being safe means being someone students can trust and talk to without getting too close and losing respect (p. 166). These examples are interesting in the view that teacher education must help preservice teachers to interpret, embody, and teach values that are fundamental in education according to governing documents and laws. In this learning process, preservice teachers need to build self-awareness and develop as role models. As the understandings of modelling are diffuse, further research is needed.

Role modelling, judgement, and didactic competence are central strategies in teacher education to prepare preservice teachers to teach ethically. These issues are dependent on cooperation between the educators in the field and on the campus in order to bridge the gap between talking about values, embodying them in teaching, and verbalising the embodied teaching.

Teaching Academic Integrity and Ethics

The third context where ethics and integrity should be included in teacher education is giving preservice teachers pedagogical and didactic knowledge and instruments to teach academic integrity and ethics to their future students in primary and secondary education in order to prepare those students for their higher education endeavours. Preservice teachers' learning and developing academic integrity and ethics and gaining pedagogical and didactic instruments could be understood both as competence to act responsibly towards the students and to teach future students academic integrity and ethics.

An examination of the public websites for preservice teachers in the Higher Education Institutions in Sweden that provide such education conducted by one of the authors of this chapter shows that the discussion of issues concerning the teaching of academic integrity is not included on those websites. Although such information might be included in other ways such as on non-public websites or within campus courses, this raises the question of whether this aspect is sufficiently explored within the preservice teacher education in Sweden. The risk is otherwise that it might be assumed that the first context is indirectly giving enough preparation for preservice teachers to subsequently mediate ethics and integrity to their students. Such an assumption is problematic as it does not in any way train preservice teachers to discuss academic integrity values and professional ethics in their future profession. Even if the provided academic integrity training were sufficient to develop preservice teachers' ethical compass, a discussion on academic integrity values, pedagogical, and didactical approaches would equip students with the necessary vocabulary and tools to raise awareness of their professional practice in the scope of academic integrity and professional ethics.

The lack of discussion is also leading to the unpreparedness to deal with the challenges that the report of a breach of academic integrity can pose to the relationship between teacher and student. Suspicions of cheating can change the relationship between student and teacher and be emotionally challenging for teachers (Vehviläinen et al., 2018) so preservice teachers need training in how to deal with such a rupture in their pedagogical relationship with their students.

A discussion of fundamental academic integrity values would also strengthen preservice teachers as role models for other students, thus making it easier to discuss other forms of modelling. Based on research, it is clear that modelling and the dispositions of preservice teachers are fundamental to growing into the professional role (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013; Schussler & Knarr, 2013; Sockett, 2009) but it is unclear what it means to be a role model and whether it is effective in teaching (Sanderse, 2013).

Numerous problems in the training of preservice teachers in preparing them to teach ethics and teach ethically have been pointed out in research. Ethics is often regarded as a personal opinion and not as knowledge (Mahony, 2009). Thus, questions about morality fall into the background in favour of subject content in teacher education (Sanderse & Cooke, 2021). Teachers find it difficult to talk about ethical positions and lack a language for it (Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013; Sockett & LePage, 2002). They also have difficulty identifying and understanding their responsibilities in the classroom (Mahony, 2009). If preservice teachers are going to develop competence to teach both ethics and ethically, Sanderse and Cooke (2021) suggest some kind of guidance to process and reflect on moral dilemmas that they have experienced with students. Following up on concrete situations in the classroom and in reflection brings together practical experience and understanding with theoretical knowledge contributes to developing the professional ethical responsibility (Cronqvist, 2020b).

Managing preservice teachers' attitudes and virtues as part of growing into the professional role means that educators must balance preservice teachers' integrity

and professionalism. Discussions about interpretations of values can involve a reconsideration of new perspectives on perceptions that are deeply rooted in the personality and thus sensitive. Therefore, educators both in the field and on-campus must gain preservice teachers' trust, invite them to discussions and function as role models, which stimulates learning (Cronqvist, 2015).

Teachers and supervisors in higher education play a major role in students' acceptance of academic integrity values as well (Löfström et al., 2015). Students can play an important role in raising awareness among other students on breaches of academic integrity (Khan et al., 2020) and discussing the ethical issues within higher education. Providing opportunities to students to receive and give feedback on academic writing, ethical aspects of teaching as well as a reflection on the importance of being academic integrity champions and role models are also important for the development of their professional ethics. By strengthening the connection between academic integrity and professional ethics in preservice teacher education, educators could use peer teaching as a starting point to discuss all three educational contexts.

A movement between theory and practice and saying, embodying, and explaining enhances preservice teachers' learning about how to study with integrity, how to teach ethics and academic integrity and how to teach in an ethical way. Swennen et al. (2008) argue that teacher educators should explain their modelling for the preservice teachers and their study shows how workshops with educators improve the educators' competence to explain their modelling. Educators' competence to communicate about their teaching practice developed, which is crucial to support the preservice teachers to develop their ability to speak about ethical aspects of teaching and learning. In order to develop reflective teaching, Solbrekke and Sugrue (2020) suggest deliberative communication, which means that educators are willing to reflect both individually and collectively on their own biases and be open to the perspective of others. To function as a role model is twofold because educators must both act as role models but also support the preservice teachers' development into role models.

The ability to exercise judgement so that the students' best interests benefit in the classroom is central to the teacher's role and can only be developed in the meeting with students. Judgement in teaching requires autonomy and courage to go beyond traditions and evidence (Johnson, 2008; Steinnes, 2011). Exercising judgement means to relate to responsibility, acting or not acting, without really knowing about the consequences (Cronqvist, 2015). Preservice teachers develop judgement by dealing with different situations during practice but there are several obstacles to their learning. When they decide to act, it matters whether they follow or go against the supervisor's position and whether the supervisor acts as a role model or not (Cronqvist, 2020b).

Experiences from one of the participants, Johan, in the previously mentioned study of professional ethics (Cronqvist, 2015, p. 151) illustrate preservice teachers' development in exercising their judgement. He instructed the class to write a letter describing life on earth addressed to an alien who wanted to move here. A boy in the class was a believer and wanted to know if the alien existed, but Johan did not want

to reveal the truth to create excitement. Johan's supervisor who knew the boy told him that it was not true and then he could suddenly write a lot. This situation shows that judgement is complex and without a simple "right" or "wrong". Johan's idea to create excitement could be inspiring but for the believing boy, the alien became an obstacle in writing which Johan did not realise in the situation. Afterwards, he could reflect on the situation and together with his supervisor broaden his understanding of various factors that interact in the judgement. Since Johan had confidence in his supervisor and observed that her judgement worked for the best of the class, the experience and the learning of the situation did not challenge Johan's own values but became positive for him. The opposite, that supervisors challenge preservice teachers' own values, causes confusion, and energy is spent on questioning themselves and learning becomes problematic (Cronqvist, 2020b).

Preservice teachers' didactic plans were part of the data in the study of professional ethics (Cronqvist, 2015). It turned out that the plans mostly contained texts from the curriculum and descriptions of different methods. The ethical dimension of teaching was not part of the planning. Therefore, based on the findings of the study, a didactic tool, called Didethics, was created. The tool includes all parts of the teaching process, planning, implementation, and evaluation and focuses on the traditional didactic questions, what, who, why and how (Cronqvist, 2017). The didactic tool aims to plan the ethical dimension of the teaching. Based on knowledge content, intentions are demanded, for example, values and attitudes that can be noticed together with the knowledge content.

Campbell (2003) has argued that ethics should be regarded as professional competence and not only as personal views. She gives examples of how competence means being able to identify the ethics in teaching, having clear intentions within the ethics and being able to communicate the ethical dimension. Ethical aspects in teaching are difficult to deal with for many reasons but it is not justifiable to leave them to chance because the quality of teaching largely depends on how the ethical part is handled.

What distinguishes the tool from other didactic models is that it functions as a battery of questions where concepts in ethics and professional ethics become prominent. The tool is not normative, but teachers/preservice teachers decide for themselves which issues are relevant in the current teaching. It has proved problematic to verbalise the ethical dimension in teaching (Klaassen, 2002; Maxwell & Schwimmer, 2016; Sawyer, 2020; Sockett & LePage, 2002; Thornberg, 2008) and the tool can be used as a support in the supervision of preservice teachers or in collegiate conversations to verbalise and discuss with the help of concepts such as values, norms, and attitudes.

The didactic tool has been combined with video papers, which means that preservice teachers film themselves as they teach, select a few sequences and write reflections on them (Cronqvist, 2019). The study shows that the combined tools offer support to visualise ethics in teaching but to further stimulate preservice teachers' competence to use ethical concepts, educators must focus on them in instructions and be engaged in their use. In addition, the individual preservice teacher needs help to develop based on her/his specific conditions and experiences.

Since integrity and ethics are mainly associated with opinions, beliefs, and feelings, there is a struggle to get space in different courses. In addition to the fact that the area is not considered knowledge-based, the difficulty of verbalising values and their interpretations also contributes to the fact that discussions are largely absent. Another obstacle in preservice teacher training is the lack of communication between university-based and work-based education. Modelling, judgement, and didactic planning must be developed in practice but the conditions and possibilities for learning are very varied. Thus, it becomes difficult for the university to ensure equality and quality in education.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The fundamental values of academic integrity are consistent with the values of professional ethical responsibility. Therefore, we propose (1) connecting those two fields in preservice teacher education as it would be beneficial in order to widen the preservice teachers' ethical competence. Both integrity and ethics are based on knowledge and are dependent on how teacher education succeeds in teaching values, therefore we propose further (2) discussing the connections and the importance of being a role model would, as it would better prepare preservice teachers for their professional role.

In this paper, we, therefore, propose (3) the inclusion of all three contexts – academic integrity, professional ethics, as well as preparing preservice teachers to teach academic integrity and professional ethics – in preservice teacher education. Such an inclusion would not only develop preservice teachers as students and prepare them for their in-service endeavours but also ensure that their future students get relevant knowledge in ethics and academic integrity that would better prepare them for their own higher education studies. Teaching teachers how to teach academic integrity and ethics and developing their professional ethics is thus an important step in strengthening the culture of academic integrity.

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Chapter 5
A Comparative Study of Teacher Education Programs Embedding Ethics Education into Curriculum

Afnan Boutrid and Stephanie Martin

Abstract Teacher standards globally require that teachers as professionals exemplify integrity and ethics throughout their teaching career; yet it is rare to find teacher education programs that prepare teachers to embody this standard. This chapter argues for the importance of teacher education programs embedding ethics education into the teacher education curriculum. A comparative study was conducted to demonstrate how teacher education programs in Australia and Singapore are teaching ethics education in their teacher education programs. Theoretical concepts as well as best practices will be highlighted. This chapter concludes with implications for National Teacher Standards and Teacher Education programs.

Keywords Teacher education · Teacher professional standards · Pre-service teachers · Ethics education

The focus of this comparative study is on the presence of ethical standards in the National Teacher Standards of both Australia and Singapore as well as the ways in which teacher education programs prepare pre-service teachers to engage in ethical teaching practice. These two nations boast high-performing educational systems. They exhibit strong teacher education programs that develop teachers as well as integrate clear teaching standards into their curricula. The teacher education curricula also integrate the theoretical with the practical skills needed to be successful educators (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). In their study of high-performing educational systems, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) argue that Australia and Singapore both have teacher standards that set clear guidelines for educators and include a section on ethics in education. Teachers are held accountable to these standards and are typically provided with coaching and professional development around these standards. This chapter thus critically examines ways in which the teacher

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education programs integrate ethics education into their curricula and makes recommendations for future National Teacher Standards and Teacher Education Program curricula.

Ethics Education in Teacher Preparation

Ethics education must be a key component of teacher education preparation, since "teaching is an ethical endeavor with teachers having power over and responsibility for children and families" (Malone, 2020, p. 91). There has been a huge push to incorporate ethics education into teacher education; however, it is still quite rare to find teacher education programs that properly prepare pre-service educators to be ethical educators (Campbell, 2008; Malone, 2020; Cummings et al., 2001). In a study conducted by Glanzer and Ream (2007) they examined 156 colleges and universities teacher education curricula in the United States. They uncovered that only 9% of teacher education programs offer courses on ethics in education and in many cases these courses were only offered as electives. "Teachers may experience tensions between personal beliefs, professional codes of conduct, and moral values when facing ethical issues" (Mathur & Corley, 2014, p. 136). Hence it is critical that teacher education include courses that integrate ethics education into the mainstream teacher education curricula.

When reviewing the National Teacher Standards for Australia and Singapore there are many standards that address teachers as ethical and moral professionals. For this study, we identified two key indicators of teacher ethical education from the National Teacher Standards. These two indicators are: (1) tolerance, diversity, and inclusivity and (2) teacher awareness and critique of moral code. These two indicators were chosen based on their presence in the National Teacher Standards as well as their importance in preparing pre-service teachers to successfully teach in diverse settings such as Australia and Singapore. Australia's Department of Immigration and Multicultural Matters declares Australia to be one of the most culturally diverse societies in the world with a population that can speak over 200 languages (DIMIA, 2006). Similarly, Singapore is a multicultural and multilingual nation which includes but is not limited to Chinese, Malay, and Indian peoples (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2021).

Teacher education programs need to address the mindsets, attitudes, and beliefs that pre-service teachers bring to their programs (Ladson-Billings, 1999), as these beliefs and mindsets greatly impact how they instruct and make decisions on what and how to teach (Gay, 2010). Research has shown that many pre-service teachers come to teacher education programs with deficit views of student diversity, viewing it as an obstacle instead of an asset (Zeichner, 2002). Mathur and Corley (2014) argue that teacher education curricula need to address the issue of pre-service teachers finding themselves "ethically unprepared when they are interacting with students from cultural backgrounds different from their own" (p. 136).

Australian Teaching Standards at a Glance

In 2010, The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) established the Australian professional standards for teachers, a framework which consists of seven principles that Australian educators are required to meet at various stages in their teaching career. Beginning at graduate teacher level, educators must provide standard-related evidence to progress further towards Proficient, Highly Accomplished and Lead teacher levels (AITSL, 2011). Categorised into three key areas of teaching, Professional Knowledge, Professional Practice and Professional Engagement, within these categories the standards are as follows:

1. Know students and how they learn
2. Know the content and how to teach it
3. Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning
4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments
5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning
6. Engage in professional learning
7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community (AITSL, 2011, p. 4).

Ethical Standards in Queensland, Australia

In accordance with the seven key standards established by AITSL, the Queensland College of Teachers has developed a set of formal teaching requirements for registered teachers in the state of Queensland, Australia. The region was the first state in Australia to create a formalised system of registration for teachers in both the public and private school sectors (QCT, 2008). Initially, teacher registration and membership began as a voluntary movement, however at present, and since 1975, a QCT registration is mandatory for any teacher who wishes to practice in the state of Queensland (Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act, 2005). The intent of the QCT registry is to "protect" both the profession and wider community from unqualified individuals, or those who are deemed as unsuitable candidates for the teaching field (Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act, 2005 p. 12). The system implemented by QCT ensures that all preservice teachers meet the required prerequisites outlined by AITSL prior to their entry into the classroom. QCT seeks to maintain these expectations by requesting that teachers provide ongoing evidence of their competencies across each principle (Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act, 2005).

As a region, Queensland is of interest in this study given that the QCT framework is recognized as one of the most progressive and systematic in Australia (QCT, 2008). In addition to endorsing the national standards posed by AITSL, QCT has also developed its own Code of Ethics as well as a non-statutory set of professional boundaries guidelines for QLD registered teachers. The state prides itself on a

rigorous set of requirements which must be satisfied by candidates to be admitted into the profession by the QCT panel.

While both AITSL and the QCT present promising structural frameworks for the teaching profession, it is intriguing to observe whether the same level of consistency has been applied to the preparation of its preservice teachers (PSTs) in the area of Ethics Education, particularly where tolerance, diversity, reflective practice and critical awareness of one's moral beliefs are concerned. At a glance, Australia's systematic approach to instilling national teacher standards is noteworthy, but the question remains as to how effectively these criteria address the importance of ethics, and whether or not Australian PSTs are being equipped to manage the moral dimensions of teaching.

AITSL Graduate Teacher Standards

Within each Australian professional standard are criteria descriptors that graduate teachers are to successfully meet upon completion of their accredited tertiary program. While the standards remain the same for all Australian teachers, the expectations per criterion are dependent on the level of teaching expertise – Graduate, Proficient, Highly Accomplished or Lead Teacher (AITSL, 2011). Laureate professor John Hattie, chair of the AITSL board states that "expert teaching should be by design, not by chance", and hence, the varying levels of each standard are a public statement of what, by Australian expectations, determines high teacher quality (AITSL, 2011, p. 5).

Tolerance, Diversity, and Inclusivity

The AITSL (2011) standards showcase the considerable extent to which the Australian national framework addresses ethical values such as tolerance of cultural, religious, and socioeconomic backgrounds in school communities. Elaborations under standard one, "Know students and how they learn" reference the importance of understanding the social, physical, linguistic, and intellectual development and traits of students (AITSL, 2011, p. 6). The requirement for graduate teachers to comprehend diversity and apply the ethical values of inclusivity in classrooms is clearly addressed in the following standard elaborations:

- 1.3: Students with diverse linguistic, cultural, religious and socioeconomic backgrounds
- 1.5: Differentiate teaching to meet the specific needs of students across the full range of abilities
- 1.6: Strategies to support full participation of students with disability
- 4.1: Support student participation (AITSL, 2011, p. 5).

Each of these descriptors specifies the need for graduate teachers to identify ways to use inclusive learning strategies and therefore cater for a wide range of differing student abilities (AITSL, 2011). Where the principle of diversity is concerned, the standards endeavour to honour the traditional indigenous custodians of Australia, encouraging preservice teachers to have an in-depth understanding of and respect for the cultural identity of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students (AITSL, 2011). Descriptors 1.4: "Strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students" and 2.4: "Understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to promote reconciliation between indigenous and non-indigenous Australians" also illustrate AITSL's (2011) aim to shape teachers with multicultural awareness (AITSL, 2011, p. 5). However, the question remains as to whether this is consistently and accurately measured in preservice teacher education programs across Australia, and whether graduate teachers feel adequately prepared to adopt these approaches.

The Queensland College of Teachers Code of Ethics is a framework which provides QLD registered teachers with professional guidance in maintaining high standards of quality teaching and learning and modeling ethical conduct throughout their career (QCT, 2008). The framework comprises six core values: *Integrity, Dignity, Respect, Justice and Care* (QCT, 2008). The QCT states that all registered teachers in the state of Queensland must show an understanding for each code of ethics and apply this in practice. In reviewing this framework, the core value 'Dignity' appears to be the only principle that directly aligns with that of tolerance, diversity and inclusivity, as teachers must "value diversity and treating students equitably…while respecting the uniqueness of family backgrounds" (QCT, 2008, p. 1). This standard also states that QLD educators should value the potential of students while acknowledging student uniqueness (QCT, 2008). Here, it can also be assumed that placing a high priority on student wellbeing requires teachers to be tolerant, as is mentioned in the code's value of responsibility. While the principles "justice" and "respect" should naturally warrant some form of tolerance and inclusivity, both of these values appear to be more generic, referencing the need for mutual respect between all stakeholders and exercising fairness when engaging in discussions that present differing ethical perspectives (QCT, 2008).

Teacher Awareness and Critique of Personal Moral Code

Palmer (2017) states that it is the heart of the teacher – that is, an educator's identity and integrity – which is the core of quality teaching. As teachers, we stand on an axis of the professional versus the personal self, encountering everyday classroom scenarios that trial our vulnerability. Hence, Palmer (2017) also suggests that it is essential for teachers to reflect upon, understand and critique their own sense of self-identity, stating that "as we learn more about who we are, we can learn techniques that reveal…the personhood from which good teaching comes" (Palmer, 2017, p. 25). Similarly, Sanger and Osuguthorpe (2013) emphasize that allowing a

means for pre-service teachers to critically examine their own teacher beliefs and philosophy of education is essential in preparing them to be educators (Sanger & Osuguthorpe, 2013, p. 4). In the context of the Australian standards, teachers must be aware of the legal and ethical boundaries that exist in the field. However, there is little which obliges preservice teachers to actively and critically reflect upon their own moral codes as a means of professional growth.

AITSL standard six, "Engage in professional learning" offers some opportunities for preservice teachers to exercise critical awareness and reflection of their moral code (AITSL, 2011, p. 6). Elaboration 6.4: *Apply professional learning and improve student learning* emphasizes the importance of implementing constructive feedback from teaching mentors and displaying an enthusiastic approach to continued professional development (AITSL, 2011). Standard seven, "Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the wider community" requires graduates to demonstrate an understanding of working ethically with colleagues, and also demands an understanding of meeting the professional moral as described in the code of ethical conduct (AITSL, 2011). Interestingly, it should be noted that AITSL has not published its own formal code to align with the seven principal standards. Lastly, standard descriptor 4.5, "Create and maintain and supportive learning environments" also briefly addresses the need for graduates to consider appropriate use of ICTs in classrooms. While this does not explicitly address critical reflection of ethical perspectives, it can be assumed that in order to uphold this value, an awareness of one's moral code must be applied.

In observing the QCT's endorsement of critical self-reflection and awareness in teachers, the principles "Care" and "Justice" show some partial commitment to this, stating that educators must dedicate themselves to being a "positive influence" on students, exercising "professional judgement and empathy in practice" and learning how to resolve issues where a difference in ethical perspectives is evident (QCT, 2008, p. 1). In spite of this, it should also be noted that the QCT has since generated a non-statutory set of Professional Boundaries Guidelines in an effort to assist teachers in their ethical decision-making process in professional environments.

Ethics Education in Australian Teacher Education Programs

As an education institution, Griffith University prides itself on its flexibility in program duration and is the only Queensland university that allows students to select a major in the second year of education programs (Griffith University, n.d.). An evaluation of the main elements of ethics and philosophy found in the university's undergraduate teacher education programs, namely its core courses, can be seen in Table 5.1 below, which has been originally generated for the purpose of this study.

Table 5.1 Ethics and Philosophy Courses in Griffith University Undergraduate Teacher Education Programs

Qualification award	Relevant courses	Course description
Bachelor of Education (Primary/ Secondary) Undergraduate Certificate in Education	1699 EDN Philosophy & Ethics in Education	"This course introduces philosophy and the philosophy of education in particular. Content is examined through the lens of practical applications to ethical and critical reasoning in and about education" (Griffith University, 2022) "Exploring and questioning academic, humanist and vocational philosophies, and understanding their impact on contemporary education. The course addresses ethical challenges and thinking in teaching. [Students] will engage with the moral dimensions of teaching and investigate ethical perspectives that can inform their own approach to teaching" (Griffith University, 2022)
	1399 EDN Education and Society	"This course examines the ways in which social beliefs and attitudes influence the design and delivery of different forms of education, and the way these beliefs shape students' educational experiences and outcomes. We study issues relating to the education of Australia's diverse student population. We emphasise the importance of educators having a detailed and informed knowledge base relating to diversity and social justice which they can draw upon when responding to their students' needs and emphasis the crucial role that reflective practice plays in helping educators understand their own attitudes." (Griffith University, 2022)
	1599 EDN World Indigenous Knowledges	"This course addresses Indigenous Knowledges in broad terms, including the epistemologies and worldviews of Indigenous peoples all over the world. It also covers the contributions of non-Western thought and discovery to our society." (Griffith University, 2022)
	1499 EDN Understanding Lifelong Learner	"The course places the learning and developmental needs of preservice teachers in primary and secondary education settings within the broader frame of lifelong learning which promotes self-directed learning across the lifespan, including the self-directed learning of preservice teachers." (Griffith University, 2022)

Note. All course descriptions quoted above can be found on the Griffith University online course profiles (Griffith University, 2022)

Gaps in Australian Teacher Education Programs

From the data observed via Griffith University, only one course offers an in-depth ethics unit, and only one course provides an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their moral code. 1499 EDN also encourages some understanding of diversity and inclusivity in its unit topics (Griffith University, 2022). Interestingly, there are no compulsory courses within any postgraduate education programs that cover ethical

principles, even where leadership is concerned. However, the course 'Learning and Teaching in Global Communities' offers some opportunities for exploration of education in a cross-cultural lens (Griffith University, 2022).

Given the considerable extent that moral code and ethical principles are addressed in the AITSL standards and the QCT ethics code (Mergler, 2008), it is questionable whether one standalone course per degree program is sufficient. Teachers are confronted with a multitude of ethical dilemmas in their daily dealings with colleagues, students, and parents alike, and so it is perplexing that students can acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for the teaching world in a single standalone subject (Boon & Maxwell, 2016). Particularly alarming is the fact that postgraduate programs, such as Graduate Diploma in Education, do not require any study of ethics. Given the fact that in the Australian education system, teachers can complete a degree in any approved field and pair this with a Graduate Diploma in Education, this signifies that there are graduate teachers who perhaps have never studied an ethics education program in their tertiary lives (AITSL, 2011).

In comparing the extent to which Australian universities cater for a wide range of ethical education learning experiences, Boon and Maxwell (2016) suggests there is a scarcity of ethics courses that are offered in isolation, and a much lower frequency of ethics courses in postgraduate programs. Traditionally, tertiary institutions argue that the need for standalone ethics subjects has been minimised, since similar content is embedded in other areas of the curriculum, such as sociology courses (Boon & Maxwell, 2016; Sanger & Osguthorpe, 2013). Another common reason for the lack of focus on ethics, diversity and reflective practice content is the time constraints within degree programs (Boon & Maxwell, 2016). In other cases, Australian ethics education courses are listed as electives, indicating that only some PSTs opt for this subject area, while others may never be exposed to such content (Boon & Maxwell, 2016).

Each of the above issues raises significant concern for the preparedness of graduate teachers and their ability to not only address AITSL standards, but to also enter the teaching world with sufficient knowledge and practice where ethical principles are concerned. Firstly, there is a growing tendency for education programs to prioritise practical elements of teaching, such as classroom management, assessment, and pedagogy (Boon & Maxwell, 2016; Heilbronn & Foreman-Peck, 2015). The consequence of this is the gap that is created in knowledge, as PSTs may fail to benefit from the crucial skills to become reflective, ethical practitioners (Boon & Maxwell, 2016). Secondly, while some may argue that ethics is automatically embedded in integrated program, Boon and Maxwell (2016) also argues "it is difficult to imagine that such distinct and direct standards provided by AITSL are being explicitly addressed. Nor is it likely that [lecturers] address the more finely nuanced ethical understanding necessary" (Boon & Maxwell, 2016, p. 7). Moreover, should ethics be removed as a core course and simply integrated into surrounding subjects, there is a risk that ethics, and all concepts relating to its values may become diluted within the broader context of education (Heilbronn & Foreman-Peck, 2015; Boon & Maxwell, 2016). In agreement, Campbell (2008) also argues that the instruction of ethics can become somewhat patchy and inconsistent across subject areas.

Finally, Boon and Maxwell's (2016) study investigates the number of Australian tertiary programs that include a compulsory standalone ethics course within their core subjects. The data includes a review of 43% of accredited universities across all five Australian states. Even though this data was retrieved in 2016, worryingly, in some cases there is still a complete absence of compulsory ethics instruction in postgraduate teacher programs, and also in the areas of special education, where inclusivity and diversity are perhaps most needed (Boon & Maxwell, 2016).

When investigating the quantity of ethics programs offered in tertiary institutions overall, Boon and Maxwell (2016) concluded that out of the 89 universities investigated at the time of the study, a mere 14 tertiary institutions offered ethics-related courses. An individual breakdown of the percentage of ethics subjects per program is listed below:

- Primary, middle or early years: 20% (5/25)
- Secondary: 27% (6/22)
- Special education: 0% (0/1)
- Graduate Diploma in Education: 0% (0/11)
- Masters' in Teaching: 10% (3/30) (Boon & Maxwell, 2016, p. 8).

Ultimately, the statistics provided showcase a significant gap in preservice teacher programs where the study of ethics and philosophy is concerned. While some research has examined the existing codes of ethics within states and territories across Australia, there is limited new research which investigates whether there has been an improvement in the above statistics since the completion of Boon and Maxwell's (2016) study.

Singapore Teaching Standards at a Glance

The National Institute of Education (NIE) has developed The New V3SK Model which is a set of National Teacher Standards that all teachers in Singapore are held accountable to (The New V3SK Model). The V3SK framework includes the following attributes: V1: Learner-Centered Values, V2: Teacher Identity, V3: Service to the Profession and Community, Skills, and Knowledge. A few of the attributes listed under this framework are teachers value diversity, are ethical, and have knowledge of their students' communities (National Institute of Education Practicum Handbook, 2021).

The NIE has also developed a set of standards that pre-service teachers must adhere to prior to graduating from their teacher education programs. The Graduand Teacher Competencies: GTC Framework narrates the standards that pre-service teachers are taught and developed on to improve their teaching practice (Recommendation II: Graduand Teacher Competencies). The NIE argues that these standards establish a framework for teacher education programs to prepare pre-service teachers to acquire certain values, skills, and knowledge that a teacher needs to successfully teach a twenty-first century learner (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). This framework includes the following performance dimensions: professional

practice, leadership and management, and personal effectiveness. A few of the core competencies included under these dimesions are: exercising personal integrity, collaborating with parents, and engaging in reflective practice (National Institute of Education Practicum Handbook, 2021).

Tolerance, Diversity, and Inclusivity

The Graduand Teacher Competencies under the standard of Professional Practice: Nurturing the child, state that the teacher has high expectations of all pupils, respects their varied backgrounds, and is committed to their development as learners. This standard emphasises the importance of pre-service teachers respecting their students from diverse backgrounds. The next standard that addresses diversity is the Personal Effectiveness: Understanding and Respecting Others standard. This standard states that pre-service teachers must be committed to National Education and in doing so value diversity in all its forms. It specifically states that the teacher demonstrates sensitivity to cultural and religious differences (Recommendation II: Graduand Teacher Competencies).

The New V3SK Model: Value Paradigm 2 addresses pre-service teachers' identity in relation to teaching diverse students. The Standard on Teacher Identity discusses the ethical responsibility of teachers by stating that teachers must use their specialized knowledge and skills appropriately in a variety of institutional contexts with diverse student demographics. This standard sets a clear expectation that for pre-service teachers to be ethical they must use their knowledge and skills to effectively teach diverse students (The New V3SK Model).

The Graduand Teacher Competencies: GTC Framework addresses the importance of pre-service teachers engaging in reflective thinking as a key component of their professional practice. This standard does not directly address the importance of pre-service teachers' awareness of their own beliefs and moral code (Recommendation II: Graduand Teacher Competencies). Pre-service teachers must be provided with opportunities to address the mindsets, attitudes, and beliefs that they bring to their programs (Ladson-Billings, 1999), as these beliefs and mindsets greatly impact how they instruct and make decisions on what and how to teach diverse students (Gay, 2010). The standard of Professional Practice: Cultivating Knowledge: with reflective thinking states that the teacher adopts a critically reflective stance towards his/her own professional practice as a basis for ongoing monitoring and refinement of those practices, including the identification of strengths and areas for improvement. This description of reflective thinking does not directly state that pre-service teachers should reflectively think about their own identities and how it will impact their diverse students (Recommendation II: Graduand Teacher Competencies).

Ethics Education in Singaporean Teacher Education Programs

In Singapore, the NIE prepares pre-service teachers and is the sole creator of the teacher education curriculum. The NIE is associated with Nanyang Technological University (NTU) and this institution prepares all pre-service teachers in Singapore. While Singapore emphasises graduate-level training of teachers there are currently two tracks of training for pre-service teachers: a 1-year postgraduate education diploma and a 4-year undergraduate program. More than two-thirds of pre-service teachers complete the 1-year postgraduate diploma in comparison to less than one-third only completing a 4-year education degree (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

Since the teacher education program in Singapore is standardised, it allows for easy access to teacher education curriculum. Nanyang Technological University is the only teacher training program in Singapore. The following courses prepare pre-service teachers to address tolerance and inclusion in the classroom: (1) Singapore Kaleidoscope, (2) Effective Parent Engagement for Teachers, and (3) Character and Citizenship Education and Chinese Language Learning for Culturally Diverse Students.

According to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) – NIE. NIE: National Institute of Education Singapore (2020) handbook the course titled Singapore Kaleidoscope course description is as follows:

> Singapore is a nation rich in its natural and cultural heritage, with a diverse, well-educated population ready to meet the challenges of living in the 21st society. This course will draw on the diverse perspectives of people living in Singapore to examine Singapore's natural landscapes, society, culture and heritage, as well as Singapore's geo-political landscape and future prospects. In the course, student teachers will engage with different perspectives, experience Singapore through a range of lenses, and explore the critical challenges, issues, and perspectives necessary to understand Singapore in the 21st century. Learning objectives will focus on three main course components: • Singapore's Natural Heritage: Focus on Education Studies 29 Singapore's bio-diversity & natural landscapes; • Singapore Society & Culture: Focus on Singapore society, culture & heritage; • Singapore in the World: Study of Singapore's geopolitical landscape. Through a range of inquiry-based options, student teachers will have opportunities to develop appreciation and understanding of challenges, issues, and perspectives central to these three areas of study. (p. 28)

According to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) – NIE. NIE: National Institute of Education Singapore (2020) handbook the course titled Effective Parent Engagement for Teachers course description is as follows:

> This course will help student teachers to appreciate and understand the importance of creating partnerships with parents in order to enhance child outcomes in the long run. Student teachers will examine the diversity of family structures and parenting styles and how these may impact upon student attitudes and learning. Through seminar style classes, student teachers learn to acquire practical strategies to effectively manage home-school relationships in their role as teachers as well as to learn effective communication strategies that can build rapport and promote empathy between teacher, parent and child. (p. 32)

According to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) – NIE. NIE: National Institute of Education Singapore (2020) handbook the course titled Character and Citizenship Education and Chinese Language Learning for Culturally Diverse Students course description is as follows:

> This course discusses the learning needs of culturally diverse students in CCE and Chinese language classes. Topics include: understanding cross cultural differences and cross cultural communication; identifying learning needs; designing and developing effective classroom strategies to bridge learning gaps. (p. 39)

Each of these courses in their course description identify that Singapore is a diverse nation and therefore its teachers need to be prepared to successfully teach students from diverse backgrounds. A very clear emphasis is placed on pre-service teachers being exposed to diverse perspectives. The effective parent engagement course prepares pre-service teachers with the knowledge and skills to build strong relationships with parents from diverse backgrounds. The Chinese language learning course emphasizes the importance of cross-cultural difference and communication (National Institute of Education PGDE). Overall, the teacher education program integrates the Standards from the New V3SK and the Graduand Teacher Competencies on diversity and inclusion into its core curriculum.

When preparing pre-service teachers to build awareness of their own beliefs and moral code, there is only one course that slightly addresses this standard: The Professional Practice and Inquiry I course. According to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) – NIE. NIE: National Institute of Education Singapore (2020) handbook the course description is as follows:

> This course provides the foundation for student teachers to understand the process of integrating and aggregating their learning, be reflective and establish the theory-practice connection to their practice. In particular, this course will provide avenues for student Education Studies 30 teachers to (i) explore and reflect on their beliefs as teachers, (ii) understand the process of inquiring into their practice and (iii) articulate their growing understanding of what constitutes a 21st century educator pivoted on NIE's value-based V3SK framework. The Professional Practice and Inquiry I course will continue into Professional Practice and Inquiry II. (pp. 29–30)

This course does not directly address how it will prepare pre-service teachers to reflect on their own identities and how their specific identities and moral code will impact how they teach diverse students. More emphasis needs to be placed on pre-service teachers reflecting on their own beliefs as teachers and how these beliefs will impact how they teach students from cultural backgrounds and beliefs that are different from their own. Pre-service teachers need to be provided with the space and time to identify the tensions that will exist due to the differences in their personal beliefs and moral values when teaching diverse students (Mathur & Corley, 2014).

Implications for National Teacher Standards and Teacher Education Programs

In evaluating the systems within Australian and Singaporean teacher education, it is palpable that several gaps exist between policy and practice. Australia presents a somewhat consistent and systemized process for accredited universities to assess and approve graduate teachers via the AITSL (2011) standards. Queensland embodies this practice and has solidified its system through a comprehensive teacher registration process (Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act, 2005). The standards provided by each organization reflect some opportunities for teachers to demonstrate their understanding of the ethical principles of tolerance and diversity and an awareness of one's moral code.

Singapore is like Australia in that it also exhibits clear pre-service teacher standards in the Standards from the New V3SK and the Graduand Teacher Competencies that emphasise preparing pre-service teachers to teach culturally diverse students. There is a strong commitment to addressing the development of teachers to be effective teachers of diverse student populations.

With boasting high-performing educational systems, Australia and Singapore need to further refine these standards to include specific reflective practice expectations. More emphasis needs to be placed on pre-service teachers reflecting on their own beliefs as teachers and how these beliefs will impact how they teach students from cultural backgrounds and beliefs that are different from their own. The Standards themselves need to be revised to ensure that teacher education programs then integrate the teaching of these Standards into their teacher education curricula.

Australian institutions such as Griffith University provide some opportunities for a focus on ethics and philosophy in education, as well as diversity and inclusion in teaching (Griffith University, 2022). However, research suggests that explicit focus on ethical practice appears to be non-existent or concealed within other course imperatives in Australian universities (Boon, 2011; Boon & Maxwell, 2016). Further research in this area which reflects the current state of tertiary education programs is clearly needed so as to ascertain whether this has improved or remained the same over time.

Lastly, if pre-service teachers are expected to uphold a duty of care and provide safe learning environments for students, they must be provided with sufficient time to examine their own moral code and beliefs and to evaluate that which is required of them from an ethical perspective (Campbell, 2008; Boon & Maxwell, 2016). This must be executed prior to their entry into the classroom, however more research is required on how best to prepare teachers for the ethical dilemmas of the teaching profession (Boon, 2011).

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Chapter 6
Starting from a Place of Academic Integrity: Building Trust with Online Students

Astrid Kendrick

Abstract A persistent question regarding online teaching and learning is how to ensure that students, distanced in both time and space from their instructor, submit their own work for assessment. This chapter will discuss some of the challenges associated with online assessment, provide an example of how to integrate the concepts of academic integrity into online course development, and suggest some ways to build trust within an online class. Drawing on the Community of Inquiry model (Garrison et al., 2000), I propose practical course design principles used to highlight academic integrity with preservice teachers, with a focus on formative assessment and relationship building rather than punitive measures.

Keywords Academic integrity · Community of Inquiry Model · Preservice teachers · Academic writing instruction

Since the early 2000s, Canadian universities have experienced explosive growth in their offering of online courses (Bates, 2018). In the years between 2010 and 2016, a significant number of institutions have offered courses online (Canadian Digital Learning Research Association, 2018) including both large and small universities and colleges. By 2017, 18% of all Canadian post-secondary students chose to take their courses online. With over two million post-secondary students in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2018), approximately 360,000 students are enrolled in online classes.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the pedagogical decisions made in an online academic writing course for preservice teachers to develop a culture of academic integrity by addressing the three presences of the Community of Inquiry Model (CoI) (Garrison et al., 2000). After a discussion of the history of online and

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distance learning, this chapter will describe the CoI as it relates to academic integrity, online course design, and will end with a description of a course designed with these concepts in mind.

Online Learning: History, Integrity, and the Community of Inquiry Model

The discovery and spread of the novel coronavirus sped up the integration of digital instruction into post-secondary learning, and between March 2020 and September 2021, the majority of Canadian post-secondary students reported taking some or most of their courses by distance (StatCan, 2020). As a result, developing the tools for teaching and learning has taken on a new importance (Ali, 2020; Affouneh et al., 2020), as has avoiding cheating and ensuring the values of academic integrity are upheld and understood in online learning environments (Bailey, 2021; Reedy et al., 2021; Skene, 2021).

Distance learning is not a new concept, and it has been provided to students from as early as the eighteenth century. Parcel post education was first referenced in 1728 and gained in popularity for students who could not access a traditional learning institution due to cost or distance (Kentnor, 2015). With the increased accessibility of the internet, distance learning has transformed into online learning although it still maintains much of the character from distance learning and has been described by students as less preferred to face-to-face (F2F) instruction (Thiessen, 2015). Until internet access and bandwidth became widely available for students, online courses have relied heavily on text-based instruction (Bonk & Zhang, 2008) as multimodality has been limited by technical constraints on online learning platforms. As technology has improved, so has digital pedagogy, and much of the emphasis for online teaching and learning research has been placed on designing interesting and dynamic courses by taking advantage of technological advances, such as podcasting, to improve learner engagement and motivation (Bolliger et al., 2010; Brown et al., 2009; Kechine et al., 2013; Rockhill et al., 2019), reduce online learner loneliness (Khechine et al., 2013), and build a stronger sense of community (Ferguson, 2010).

Academic integrity in online environments is seen as an extension of on-campus policies and few policies exist that specifically define and delimit e-cheating (Dawson, 2020; Sotiriadou et al., 2020). The focus of preventing and reducing the opportunities and learning conditions for e-cheating (Dawson, 2020; Holden et al., 2021) in online learning environments has taken on a new urgency. Despite little evidence that students are more likely to participate in academic misconduct in online courses (Harris et al., 2019; Hosseine et al., 2021; Sotiriadou et al., 2020), this belief persists amongst faculty (Meccawy et al., 2021), students (Bretag et al., 2019) and the wider community (Ahsan et al., 2021). Building relational trust (Robinson, 2011), or "building the type of trust that is essential for doing the hard

work of improving teaching and learning" (p. 17) in online environments can contribute to building a culture of academic integrity.

The Community of Inquiry Model

The question of how to provide effective and engaging online learning environments has been a key area of research for many years, however, less work has been done on using the values of academic integrity as a cornerstone for online course development. The Community of Inquiry Model (CoI), proposed by Rourke et al. (1999) and Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000) focusses on the intersection of three presences in the distance learning environment: the teaching, social, and cognitive presences (see Fig. 6.1).

Rouke et al. (1999) and Garrison et al. (2000) defined the *teaching presence* as the overall sense of the presence or absence of the human course instructor who has designed the course structure, guides learning activities, and assesses student progress. The *social presence* is the feeling of community between the learners in the course and is built through providing opportunities for students to interact meaningfully and authentically with each other. The *cognitive presence* is the intellectual stimulation and rigor experienced by the students as they engage with the course content and assessment activities. The overall educational experience for students in

Fig. 6.1 Community of Inquiry. (Rourke et al., 1999, p. 52, Open access)
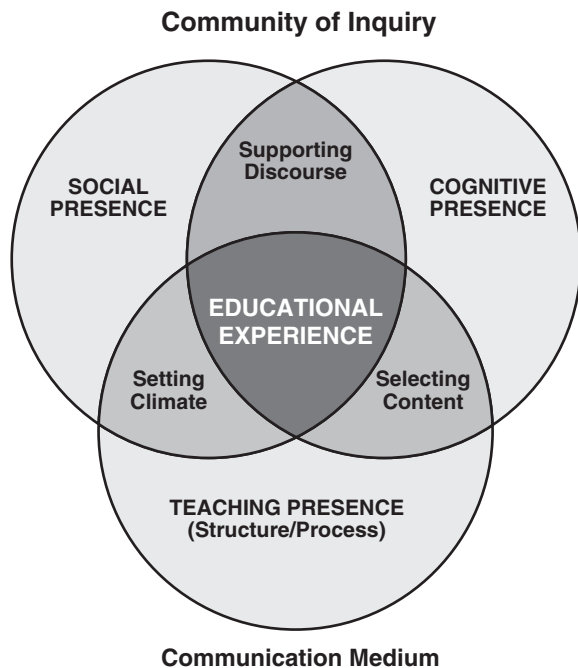
an online course is related to the thoughtful integration of these three presences in the course design. The online educational experience may not be engaging or effective if an instructor seems absent or distant from the course progression; the students lack opportunities to interact with each other; or if the content is deemed too easy or difficult.

Online instruction is unique and requires a different approach to teaching and learning than F2F (face-to-face) instruction (Brown et al., 2009) and differs significantly from the emergency remote teaching (ERT) (Rapanta et al., 2021; Meccawy et al., 2021) experienced by many students through the COVID-19 pandemic crisis. Designing online pedagogy requires a different set of instructional competencies than F2F pedagogy and a stronger digital instructional literacy (Danyluk et al., 2021) on the part of instructors to design courses and assessments to ensure that students meet the course objectives.

Academic Integrity and the CoI

Promoting academic integrity in online teaching and learning environments requires a better understanding by instructors of the ways that students may act unethically. Dawson (2020) suggested that creating policies to prevent e-cheating was very difficult, as the forms of academic misconduct move at the speed of technology and tracking each different tool or new software is incredibly difficult. Instead, he described four e-cheating affordances that should be considered when developing policies, courses, and assessments – namely access to unauthorized information (p. 8), cognitive offloading to a tool (p. 11), outsourcing work to a person (p. 13), and disrupting the assessment process (p. 15).

The teaching, social and cognitive presences intersect with the critical conditions to prevent academic misconduct. The social presence relates to developing an engaging and interactive teaching and learning environment; the cognitive presence is activated by limiting opportunities for cheating, collusion, plagiarism, and e-cheating through effective assessment design; and the teaching presence is built through authentic and trusting relationships between the instructor and their students (East, 2016; Parkes et al., 2015; Rapanta et al., 2021; Stephens, 2015; Sotiriadou et al., 2020). Thoughtful course and assessment design by the course instructor can help to build these presences in the online classroom and in doing so, provide some of the teaching and learning conditions that are necessary to promote academic integrity. The remainder of this chapter will describe how I used intentional course and assessment design in online courses to build trust with my students and develop a safe and caring online learning environment.

Starting from a Place of Integrity: A Reflection on Course Design

Beginning in 2018, I designed and subsequently instructed a series of literacy based, university courses for education students at a large, urban university in western Canada. This series of six courses focussed on academic reading, formal essay writing, and teaching young children how to read and write. They were designed using the CoI Model and included key features for building an online culture of academic integrity through careful learning tasks and assessment design.

Course and Student Descriptions

The six courses are taught in sequence over two consecutive semesters, with the learning intentions for the first three courses focussed on building reading competencies and the second three courses focussed on building writing competencies. The courses are designed to be separate, yet complimentary: sequential yet discrete; and taught online over a 12 week semester. Not an easy design task! Some students would choose to take all six courses as a mandatory part of their Bachelor of Education degree pathway, while some students from either within or outside the education faculty may only take one or two of the courses as electives. All six courses include both synchronous and asynchronous instruction but are completely online with no F2F component. Two of the courses are constructed to build academic reading and writing competencies; two courses explore the Four Resources Model (Freebody & Luke, 2003) of literacy acquisition; and the final two courses are practical, with the students tutoring a child using the model discussed in class.

The students in these courses tend to be older than average university students, and many have experience with either working in schools as educational assistants or other support staff. Because of their age, they may be less likely to engage in academic misconduct (Harris et al., 2019). The content of these courses is relevant to the students' future teaching practice, and in some cases, the students' current work role as educational assistants or in their family role as a parent, providing an authentic motivation for learning (Brimble, 2016; Rapanta et al., 2021).

Teaching Presence: Building Pedagogic Relationships

The transactional distance which is the psychological, temporal, and geographic distance between teacher and student (Moore, 2018) has concerned distance educators for many years prior to the advent of online learning. Flores (2006) described an online course lacking in a strong teaching presence as similar to having a cocktail party without a host, with students simply standing around and making small talk

until the professor shows up. One of the primary goals with online course design is to decrease the perceived distance between the student and their instructor. Of concern, when the teaching presence is lacking, the student may feel a greater opportunity to engage in cheating behaviors (McCabe et al., 2001).

In instructing all six of the literacy courses, I have learned that using frequent, short (250 words in length), focussed, written discussion posts help to reduce the transactional distance (Moore, 2018) between myself and my students. I use the discussion posts as an important, asynchronous method to ensure that students stay on track with course materials; to extend or correct misunderstandings of course texts; and to learn more about students' competencies with academic writing. This formative assessment allows me to keep track of my students' progress in a low stakes manner as each weekly post is worth only 4–5 marks of their final grade. When I notice that students fall behind on their weekly discussion posts, I have a reason for a direct contact with them throughout the semester. In many cases, the students reveal to me professional or personal challenges with completing their coursework, and I am able to support them throughout the term without the risk of failure.

In order to stay on top of the weekly posts, I organize my students into smaller cooperative groups that respond only to each other and set aside time in my workday throughout the semester to read each post. Grouping the students minimizes the number of different online threads that I have to read and keeps the workload manageable. Further, because I have already read through and responded to the posts each week, grading them is generally quick, as my focus is on content and completion rather than detail and perfect grammar or citation.

These discussion posts can act as an important deterrent to academic misconduct, specifically to contract cheating which occurs when a student outsources all or part of their assignments to another individual (Dawson, 2020). Keeping up with this regular assessment would be very expensive if a student were to pay someone else to do their work, or it would highly tax their unpaid informal networks, such as family members, friends, or peers. Additionally, reading these weekly discussion posts alert me to any dramatic differences in students' knowledge and competencies when I grade their higher stakes assessments providing me with evidence to support potential academic misconduct.

Social Presence: Building Purposeful Student Connections

A common reason for academic misconduct in F2F classes is a culture of dishonesty (McCabe et al., 2001). Students may engage in cheating behavior because they perceive that every other student is doing it as well, which acts as a negating influence on their ethical motivations (Brimble, 2016). Online students may cheat less often as they have less interactions with other students, therefore they are not a part of a cheating culture (Harris et al., 2019). While concerns have been raised about more

cheating because of the rapid switch to online learning during COVID-19, these concerns are generally unfounded (Bailey, 2021; Reedy et al., 2021; Skene, 2021).

However, building a strong social presence in online learning environments is a crucial foundation of course design, as students in rural, remote, or other distance courses perceive greater learning when their social learning needs are met (Richardson & Swan, 2003; Purarjomandlangrudi et al., 2016). As a result, most online course designers strive to create opportunities for students to get to know each other and collaborate in order to build connections between humans within a digital environment (Kehrwald, 2008). Ironically, the development of a social presence in online courses could inadvertently work at crosshairs by creating opportunities for collusion which is cheating through unauthorized teamwork (Dawson, 2020) between students who are learning online. Therefore, online students would benefit from clear policies that distinguish between collaboration, collusion, and e-cheating (Hoesseini et al., 2021; Stoesz et al., 2019).

The student population in the six courses tend to be from rural, remote, or Indigenous settings in Canada who have told me that they feel highly disconnected from their host institution. As a result, designing opportunities for the students to connect with and learn from each other is one of my course design objectives. Providing multiple opportunities for connection includes using breakout groups within synchronous Zoom sessions; designing weekly asynchronous discussion groups to ensure maximum interaction between students; and including a collaborative group assignment requiring individual reflection.

My intent in designing opportunities to develop the social presence is to remove the motivation for academic misconduct by providing support and resources to help students flourish without having to cheat. Scaffolding difficult tasks and providing timely and useful feedback can help students who may be struggling academically, taking away one reason that some students may behave without academic integrity (East, 2016; McCabe et al., 2001). Further, explicit instruction in reading and writing in academic contexts has been shown to reduce students' motivation to cheat (East, 2016; Morris & Ruskin, 2015), and two of the six courses are focussed specifically on building academic literacy.

In order to build a sense of community, I paid close attention to the design and composition of the online discussion groups each week. For example, in the first 4 weeks of the academic writing course, I vary the group size between two and five members and change the membership each week to ensure maximum student interaction. For the final 8 weeks of this particular course, after carefully reading the students' discussion posts, I assigned the groups based on the students' writing topic and demonstrated writing competencies. These writing groups provide the opportunity for consistent peer feedback among students through each stage of their final writing assignment, lessening my own workload as the students take on the work of formative assessment.

One of the main graded tasks in this writing course is providing peer review and feedback. As noted, students self-select their writing topic, and then I assign feedback groups based on similar interests. The groups are tasked with reading each other's writing drafts, making comments to assist with editing and polishing the

drafts, and then assessing their own contributions to the writing group for the assignment grade. Recently, one of my students noted that "after receiving the feedback on my essay from my writing group, I fully understand how getting other opinions and edits on my essay can strengthen my writing" (Student A, personal communication).

As the instructor, I monitor the progress of these writing groups through their discussion posts and our synchronous Zoom meetings to ensure that each member is submitting their drafts and feedback in a timely manner. Because I can see the development of the writing task in real time, I also provide comments and feedback to assist the students with their writing (see Appendix A for assignment description in course outline). I grade the development of the essay equally with the final, polished draft which minimizes the opportunity for academic misconduct or contract cheating. By focusing assessment on the process of writing, rather than the product, the assignment itself is built to deter cheating (Rapanta et al., 2021).

When I first started to conceptualize these six courses in 2017, video conferencing was glitchy, used a great deal of internet bandwidth, and had limited usefulness. In most cases, the video-conferencing capabilities of the instructional software were best suited for an audio lecture with presentation slides. Self-directed breakout rooms within online platforms are a relatively new addition to the online pedagogical toolbox. The Zoom platform, for example, had only just introduced breakout rooms in 2015 (Barolo, 2015), and Google Meet and Blackboard Collaborate did not follow until 2020.

Because of these technological advances, video conferencing technology has blossomed, providing much more flexibility for online instruction and more opportunities to build a social presence with students. Having the ability to create breakout rooms during a synchronous video lecture has provided an opportunity for distance-learning students to meet and discuss course content, as well as to get to know each other. The development of breakout rooms has helped me to monitor the group conversations, meet the students away from the large group, and answer questions to clarify content or task expectations.

Cognitive Presence: Finding the Just-Right Goldilocks of Online Rigour

The final presence, the cognitive, involves aligning the content and objectives of learning to assessment in a meaningful, authentic way that challenges students without overwhelming them. The purpose of online learning is the same as F2F: to improve the skills, knowledge, and competence of a person in a subject area. Well-designed online courses should move a student from a foundational to higher level of inquiry and critical thinking about the course topic, which requires the creation and selection of appropriate learning materials and informational texts that will build student understanding (Garrison et al., 2000; Tanis, 2020).

First generation distance education (Taylor, 2001) relied heavily on reading and writing text (Kentnor, 2015), but as technology has become more sophisticated and accessible to instructors and students, social-constructivist and connectivist pedagogy (Anderson & On, 2011) have advanced the frame of online course design and these advances have allowed for greater use and creation of multimodal texts. In my courses, I have realised that the inclusion of videos, podcasts, slide presentations, and infographics, has made a difference to the engagement with and understanding of my students with the course content. By providing learners with a range of ways to show their learning, I can more easily recognize work that may not have been created by the student themselves.

The key to building the cognitive presence within my courses is to find the balance between incorporating primary and secondary academic texts that challenge the learners' understanding of the subject area content with opportunities and support to ensure the workload is not overwhelming or too complex. Most of my students are at the beginning of their post-secondary learning and find academic, peer-reviewed journal articles or books to be difficult or arduous reading. They may not yet have the necessary subject area vocabulary to fully understand research studies, so they require extra time and scaffolding to connect the academic literature to their personal and professional experiences.

I designed the first modules of the academic reading and writing courses to differentiate between primary and secondary sources of information, the dangers of misinformation and disinformation, and which actions constitute academic integrity. Bretag et al. (2019) found that current students may have a different concept of e-cheating as they have a propensity to share online materials with other students, and may not view e-sharing, such as writing collaborative notes on a lecture, as academic misconduct. They suggested that course instructors have a responsibility to define the differences between sharing and cheating behaviors so that students know the boundaries of ethical behavior in online courses. In my academic writing course, students are assigned to listen to an introductory podcast with Dr. Sarah Elaine Eaton, an institutional expert on academic integrity (Kendrick & Scott, 2020) that outlines the fundamental knowledge, definitions, and competences to begin the development of a culture of integrity (Stephens, 2015).

Further, I design discussion posts activities that go beyond simple text summary of required readings. Some alternatives I have used include short podcasts for the students to orally summarize the weekly assigned texts; photo essays for the student to show their weekly learning; paraphrasing activities in which the student has to rewrite a passage from the weekly text or re-write a peer's post; and reading and rewriting own posts from earlier in the course to show growth in course understanding from the first to final discussions. These formative assessments ensure that the students are highly engaged with course texts and if a student demonstrates a superficial or faulty understanding of the course materials, I can respond quickly to correct or expand their knowledge. This multi-levelled approach to learning assessment can help to prevent academic misconduct (Hosseini et al., 2021; Mate & Weidenhofer, 2021; Wagner et al., 2016).

Figuring out the "just right" or Goldilocks level of academic rigour and aligning that with assessments that challenge students to demonstrate their knowledge of course objectives while ensuring that students are motivated to act with integrity requires effort and time by the instructor.

The CoI Model and Academic Integrity: Trust and Multiple Opportunities for Learning

Constructing effective and ethical online courses requires a deep knowledge of academic integrity, online pedagogy, and digital instructional literacy. As the leadership teams at academic institutions continue to increase their online course offerings, they also need to provide adequate time and training for faculty to design these courses (Ahsan et al., 2021; Purarjomandlangrudi et al., 2016). The advent of emergency remote teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic may have initially eroded the reliability of online instruction as instructors and students were thrown, in some cases, haphazardly (Danyluk et al., 2021) into digital learning environments (Burns et al., 2020; Meccawy et al., 2021). The long term sustainability of online instruction requires establishing professional development in the support and resources that will ensure courses are designed to reduce the motivation, opportunity, and culture for academic misconduct.

Online course development can take more time than running the course itself (Palloff & Pratt, 2013), so when faculty are assigned to teach these courses, they should be allocated several weeks before the course begins to set up their content and assessments. Palloff and Pratt (2013) note that online pedagogy requires more than shifting F2F teaching strategies and assessments into a digital version – it requires a completely different set of strategies and technological tools for presenting content and assessing student learning both synchronously and asynchronously. Further, instructors need to learn about designing effective formative and summative assessments that can reduce the temptation or motivation for misconduct by students (Morris & Ruskin, 2015).

Developing the teacher presence in online environments involves selecting content and setting the class climate (Garrison et al., 2000). Starting from a place of academic integrity means providing students with the tools, timelines, and knowledge so that they can act in an ethical manner and are motivated to learn the content of the course. In teacher education courses, such as mine, clearly articulating the moral responsibilities and ethical behaviors is necessary to ensure that preservice teachers transfer academic integrity from their coursework into their job responsibilities (Malone, 2020).

In addition to selecting required course materials and designing assessments, instructors should investigate and communicate which technological tools are acceptable in their course and which are not (Dawson, 2020). In my own courses, I explain that since one of the primary learning intentions is to improve their own

and their future students' literacy, they can use editing apps that are embedded within the university's learning platform, or an online grammar and editing app that shows, but does not correct, problems with sentence structure to assist with polishing their work. However, students are reminded that using paraphrasing or auto-writing tools are not allowed because they run counter to the course learning objectives.

Students taking online courses need to learn about the boundaries between sharing, collaboration, collusion and e-cheating as well as the different time management required to complete online work. Policies that include these concepts and the consequences of engaging in academic misconduct need to be clearly articulated by the faculty, instructor, and institution (Stoesz et al., 2019). Building a social presence does not mean expanding the opportunities for students to collude, rather the aim should be to build trust between students so that they can provide effective peer feedback and work together as a team to reach the course objectives.

Finally, I articulate that the purpose of taking these six courses is to build the students' own literacy so that they can be effective when they become teaching professionals. Given that academic misconduct is related to workplace misconduct (Guerrero-Dib et al., 2020; Malone, 2020; Nonis & Swift, 2001; Sotiriadou et al., 2020), centering ethical academic behavior is an important part of designing for cognitive presence. In my experience, I have noticed that teaching professionals engage openly and regularly with sharing pedagogical materials, lessons, and units of study, however they need to recognize that creating and designing their own learning materials is better for their future students than taking pre-designed plans from online sellers, such as Teachers Pay Teachers (Harris et al., 2021). In my course, I need to know that my students understand the course content as they will someday be responsible for teaching children and youth literacy skills. A passing grade earned through fraudulent means could have far-reaching professional repercussions (Malone, 2020), so I feel a responsibility to ensure that the students I teach learn the content. Including formative assessment throughout the course is crucial to my knowledge of their progression through the required texts.

Conclusion and Future Steps

This book chapter is based on critical reflections on my instructional designs using the lens of the Community of Inquiry Model with an aim to incorporate the foundations for academic integrity in a series of six online courses. After teaching several iterations of these courses, I have found that the built-in designs of weekly discussion posts, authentic and multimodal assessments, and high instructional engagement have reduced my concerns about possible academic misconduct by my students. As found by Holden, Norris and Kuhlmeier (2021), I suspect that the high volume of formative, low stakes tasks act as a disincentive for students who may engage in e-cheating behaviors or use contract cheating. Because, on average two to three students out of 25 will drop the course within the first month, I wonder if students who may engage in misconduct realize that this course does not provide the opportunity for cheating, so they withdraw.

Further, I am committed to developing a strong teacher presence within the course, meaning that I set aside time every week to read and respond to discussion posts and quickly grade them so that students have ongoing feedback on their learning (Guo et al., 2014). I use these discussion posts as a foundation for synchronous lectures, so students are highly aware that their work has an audience and is not work that is unread or useless (Flores, 2006; Thomas, 2002).

As noted, building a social presence could increase misconduct behaviors, so I remind my students of their responsibilities and ethical behavior as aspiring teachers as defined by the provincial Code of Professional Practice (CoPP) (Alberta Teachers Association, 2021) and Teaching Quality Standard (TQS) (Alberta Education, 2018). Both the CoPP and TQS act in the place of an honor code (Brimble, 2016) and define the moral and ethical behaviors required for preservice teaching professionals. Although the ideals of academic integrity are not explicitly defined or named in either the CoPP or TQS, the CoPP states that "The teacher does not engage in activities which adversely affect the quality of the teacher's professional service" (Item 19) and the TQS requires all teachers to "adhere to legal to legal frameworks and policies" (p. 5).

Additionally, I am careful to outline the roles and responsibilities of individuals engaged in collaborative group work both in the syllabi and in one of the synchronous lectures. Within the course outlines, I state that all individual students are expected to contribute equally, and if groups run into problems, I outline the steps that should be taken to ensure fairness. During a class lecture early in each course, I discuss some of the common pitfalls that I have observed in online collaboration, including time management, unequal distribution of work, and poor communication. I instruct the students to include me in their group discussions if they experience problems (see Appendix B).

A new intervention to prevent academic misconduct that I included into a recent iteration of the academic writing course was one individual video conference with each student on a draft of their final assignment. Wagner et al. (2016) found that by including carefully constructed, individual video conferences into their course, they built the social and teacher presence while assessing the students' understanding of course work. Their course assessment tool included individual meetings between the students and the instructor in which the student was asked oral questions about their written submissions and the course content. This strategy was a promising method of ensuring that my students were completing their own assignments and reading required course materials in a low-risk online conference.

Lastly, building relational trust as an instructional leader (Robinson, 2011) with my students is an important foundation for promoting academic integrity. Trust is built through "demonstrating respect, integrity and competence" (Robinson, 2011, p. 145), which can form the basis for a thoughtful online culture. I believe that students should feel that they have the time and space to make mistakes throughout the course and to ask for help before completing summative assessments, rather than feeling censured or viewed suspiciously before they have had the chance to act ethically.

My intent with my course and assessment design is not to root out cheating behavior through proctoring software or finding ways to ensure that my students are not misrepresenting themselves. Rather, I design courses knowing that developing quality teaching and learning online environments is hard work requiring considerable time before the course begins to investigate and create useful, creative, and rigorous instructional materials; setting aside time during the course to provide students with meaningful and ongoing feedback; and following up with individual students and groups of students who have fallen behind or misunderstand materials to build content knowledge.

As digital and online learning continues to gather momentum, institutions need to ensure not only that they have the policies and procedures in place to prevent academic misconduct and build academic integrity, but also that they actively provide the time, training, and professional development so that instructors can design effective online courses and students can learn in these environments. Ultimately, I believe that the majority of my students are capable of learning the course content of my courses, and I actively work to ensure that they are able to take this knowledge and eventually apply it with young children and youth. Designing courses from a place of trust is the first step towards ensuring ethical behavior through an online culture of academic integrity.

Appendices

Appendix A: Learning Task Description

Learning Task 4: Writing Group Posts – Due: April 12, 2022
Initial Response Due to Discussion Board (Weekly): Wednesday night at 8:00 pm.
Response to Group Due Discussion Board (Weekly): Friday night at 6:00 pm.

Uploaded Weekly Posts: Both posts should be uploaded for grading by Friday night at 6:00 pm each week. Note: This document should contain a copy/paste of your exact discussion post and response for grading.

At the beginning of the term, you will be randomly assigned into Discussion groups to get to know the other students in the class. After the first assignment is complete, you will choose to work with a small group (2–4 members) of students who are writing on a similar topic as you are. Once your writing groups have been formed, you will work only with these people for the remainder of the term.

As a writing group, you will discuss the week's required readings and work together to improve your final essay product. You will provide feedback to each other on each class assignment.

- Your Wednesday post should answer the question/s for that week using a minimum of one quote from the required readings. Your Friday post should respond meaningfully to a peer's writing or their post based on the weekly discussion topic.

- Initial posts should be 250 words in length and be academic in tone and writing style. As you develop your essay, your initial post can include sections of your writing for feedback from your group.
- Responding posts can be in the form of several short, meaningful posts to your group or a strong assessment of your peers' writing through using Track Changes/ Comments.
- Postings will be graded according to the following rubric each week.
- A copy of the post and response should be uploaded as a Word Document into the D2L Discussion Posts folder for grading. The weekly posts will be equally weighted across the 12 weeks of this course to account for 35% of the final grade. Both postings are due in the D2L Dropbox no later Friday at 6:00 P.M.

Appendix B: Group Work

Issues with Group Tasks

With respect to group work, if your online writing group is having difficulty collaborating effectively, please contact the instructor immediately. If a group is unable to collaborate effectively or discuss course materials online in a timely manner, the instructor may re-assign members to different groups or assign individual work for completion.

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Chapter 7
The Role of Compassion in Academic Integrity Management Processes

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Abstract The chapter contextualises the academic dishonesty problem exacerbated by the increase in distance learning. Increase in cases has caused a greater predisposition to sanction academic cheating with greater severity, including unsympathetic measures.

Based on the analysis of procedures for academic integrity breach management in eight universities, it is suggested to include some elements that would ensure more compassionate processes stemming from four approaches: cheating prevention, formative management of student academic misconduct cases, compassionate attitude in people that integrate academic integrity committees and teacher training.

Keywords Academic integrity · Academic dishonesty management · Compassion · Values · Ethics · Faculty training

Introduction

As an object of study, the problem of academic dishonesty has a long history. During the last 10 years the number of studies have increased about: the factors that trigger it (Bertram-Gallant & Dinam, 2006; Brimble, 2016; Davis et al., 2009); the ways in which professors can prevent and manage it in the classroom; the tactical measures

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that academic projects and exams must have to inhibit it (East, 2009; Morris, 2018; Serviss, 2016); the institutional policies that universities deploy to sanction it (Bretag, 2016; Drinan, 2016; Stephens, 2016); and the efforts to engage and train teachers about academic integrity (Morris, 2016; Saddiqui, 2016).

Currently, the main focus has been on online education, where contract cheating services continue to grow and diversify "becoming more visible, to the point where it is not uncommon to see these services advertised on social media. These services show evidence of being mature, well established commercial operations, suggesting that there is a substantial demand feeding this supply" (Perkins et al., 2020, p. 2). The increase in demand, in addition to being unprecedented, has been overwhelming (Comas-Forgas et al., 2021).

In a study carried out by Lancaster and Cotarlan (2021) it is shown that, in the period between April 2019 and August 2020, the request for this type of services increased by 196.25 percent along with the price decrease that the university students had to pay for them. A thousand-word academic essay, which until recently was sold for $31 USD is now available on the market for $5.73 USD.

And while it is true, "the acceleration of digital transformation, prompted by the COVID-19 pandemic, will reshape the education service" (Kang & Zhang, 2020, p. 17), the academic fraud industry will continue to expand, because as Lancaster (2020) points out:

> despite the extent of the contract cheating industry and its visibility to students, little has been formally published about how the industry operates, or who the writers and workers at the end of a complex chain of operations are. To address contract cheating, academia needs an increased understanding of this industry. Academia needs to appreciate what drives workers to choose to subvert academic integrity. (p. 2)

To the ignorance referred to by Lancaster (2020), we add the series of attitudes that students and faculty maintain in regards to online learning and, particularly, to the assessment mechanisms it must use to reduce the possibilities to cheat (Vučković et al., 2020). There is evidence of

> student anxiety toward online learning when compared to more traditional, or in person, in class learning environment […] Results of surveys found less than half of adults surveyed say the online class format was equal to that of a course taken in a classroom, with the potential of plagiarism appearing to increase with online learning. (Unger & Meiran, 2020, p. 257)

This fact, to put it some way, has set off alarms in many universities, sharpening the measures to punish those who are discovered. In that sense, we can say that the increase in academic fraud today is "a challenge to academic integrity for the managers of academic programs, instructors, as well as for students" (Nabee et al., 2020, p. 265), causing that, at times, punishment is placed before educational purposes (Crook & Cranston, 2021).

On the way in which sanctions can distort the educational purposes that all the different experiences lived by the students at the university should pursue, Crook and Cranston (2021) point out that.

> Institutional academic integrity policies are often based on the assumption that the princi-
> ples underpinning academic integrity are easy for students to recognize and to apply to their
> work. As a result, students are often presumed guilty until proven innocent during adjudica-
> tion processes. In many Canadian universities, institutional approaches to academic integ-
> rity have not been developed from a primarily pedagogical standpoint. Rather, university
> policies seem to assert that students who have allegedly violated academic integrity policies
> should be presumed guilty until they can prove their innocence during adjudication pro-
> cesses. […] This is particularly problematic given the extent to which even faculty members
> do not agree on the bounds of transgression in the context of plagiarism. (p. 41)

To the difficulty of realising in concrete actions the abstraction embodied by
principles such as honesty, trust, fairness, respect, responsibility, and courage, we
add the (historical) influence of the rule-compliance paradigm and from which the
university "publishes rules and consequences and then implements structures and
procedures to enforce these rules and distribute consequences. […] Given the moti-
vations behind the rule-compliance approach. An alternative descriptor for it might
be the `we told you´ approach. In other words, by defining conveying messages of
unacceptable conduct, institutions can plead no fault when bad behaviors happen"
(Bertram-Gallant, 2016a, p. 980). Then, the focus is on "fixing individuals and
responding to integrity violations" (Bertram-Gallant, 2016a, p. 981).

Motivated by exploring new ways to overcome the limitations of the rule-
compliance approach, Stephens (2016), suggests a pyramidal model of multilevel
intervention, divided into three parts: (1) school-wide education; (2) context spe-
cific prevention; and, (3) individual remediation. The first level, and the broadest:

> Ideally, begins before students step foot on campus or walk through the front doors of the
> school building. For example, as part of their enrollment package (or acceptance letter),
> students should be sent materials that highlight the importance of academic integrity and
> clearly communicate the relevant values, policies, and procedures. […] [The] `context-
> specific prevention´ is defined as any intervention aimed at promoting integrity or reducing
> misconduct in a specific classroom course, or program of study. […] Includes positive
> developmental interventions (aimed at increasing students' knowledge, skills, and disposi-
> tions related to academic integrity) as well as behavioral control techniques (aimed at
> reducing cheating by manipulating the opportunity and incentive structures of the environ-
> ment. […] Despite even the best school-wide education and context-specific prevention,
> some students are going to cheat. The question is how do we respond to these violations in
> a way consistent with our goal of creating a culture of integrity? […] Unfortunately,
> although developmental approaches are more appropriate and consonant with the purposes
> of schooling, their use in response to student academic is rare. While the vast majority of
> institutions do not use a single sanction system, the systems they mostly use the behaviorist
> in orientation -employing punishment as the only response. […] There is often no effort to
> offer educational remediation. (Stephens, 2016, p. 999)

And although the roadmap suggested by Stephens (2016) to materialise the ethi-
cal principles associated with academic integrity is clear, unfortunately as Crook
and Cranston (2021) point out, "the punitive approach taken by many universities to
handling alleged plagiarism creates an environment in which students, as novice
writers, persecutes at who violate the rules, and punishes those who violate them"
(p. 41), sometimes using unsympathetic measures if we consider the impact that
these may have on the students' specific lives.

Added to the latter idea, there is a compassion fatigue that, as happened in the case of clinical staff during the pandemic, has already reached many faculty, who teach their classes online (Ewing, 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Unlike the afflictions that arise from burnout, Figley (2002, p. 1434) affirms that compassion fatigue, "like any other form of fatigue, reduces our ability or our interest in bearing the others' suffering". When this syndrome takes hold of the psyche of a doctor or nurse, for example, their ability to empathise, connect and help is severely diminished (Figley, 2002). The appearance of this syndrome is not the result of spontaneity (Ayala, 2020), it is the sediment of the emotional breeding ground left by long hours in contact with those who suffer the consequences of traumatic events.

According to Campos Méndez (2015), compassion fatigue shows itself in five dimensions in personal and professional life: (1) somatic reactions (exhaustion, lack of energy, insomnia, headache, etc.), (2) relational reactions (insensitivity, indifference, inability to alleviate pain), (3) emotional reactions (loss of enthusiasm, apathy, anger, etc.), (4) spiritual reactions (lack of spiritual awareness, lack of interest in introspection, loss of discernment, impoverished judgment, etc.), and, (5) cognitive reactions (boredom, disinterest, inability to concentrate, etc.). To a different extent and intensity, the five dimensions of compassion fatigue were experienced by faculty who continued to teach their courses in online format (Cordaro, 2020; Levkovich & Shinan-Altman, 2021; Yang et al., 2021).

Thus, in the face of a scenario where the academic fraud industry innovates and moves faster than universities do; students who cheat are held guilty until proven otherwise; and where faculty and disciplinary committees are plagued by compassion fatigue, this chapter explores the role compassion plays in sanctions management processes for misconduct at eight universities. To do this, a journey through the history of the notion is carried out, gleaning from it some criteria that helped us determine how compassionate the breach management processes were in the universities analysed. The last part contains some practical recommendations from which the chapter's conclusions can be drawn.

Compassion as an Articulating Principle of Academic Integrity

We live in a culture and age in which moral principles are often drowned or blurred by success at all costs, or where individualism promotes *a-la carte* morale, based on the convenience of immediate and personal goods. In a different sense, academic honesty seeks to counteract this culture through the promotion of solid ethical criteria in the academic education period, a time that is also conducive to the formation of social values, for the generation of a clear landscape for future professional responsibility and to establish a personal *ethos* regarding life and career plan.

One of the values of academic integrity is respect for the ethical standards and principles that are established in schools and universities. The set of these standards

seeks to tackle the different forms of simulation and deceit that some students carry out to achieve academic results and thus the doors can be opened to the professional and work world, or simply to "bear the necessary evil" in which the school has become for them.

It would seem counterproductive to want to associate compassion in a context of academic integrity. On one side of the scale there is the weight of ethical duty and all its implications: good, truth, honesty, integrity, are values by themselves that must be instilled in students; but in addition, educators feel the responsibility to prevent the flaws of dishonesty from spreading beyond the classroom to the professional world. Hence the need to not compromise with dishonest actions. However, on the other side of the scale there is the human value of compassion. Also on this side there is a principle, that every person, and consequently every student, has the right to be treated with dignity; but beyond this principle, compassion stirs more human purposes, the fact that all of us share the mark of finitude and imperfection, that there are many circumstances: family, social, psychological, intellectual, cultural, etc., that make the life of most people arduous, surrounded by injustice and adverse circumstances, or in many instances coupled with tragic experiences. For this reason, when we judge a student, we judge a person, with circumstances and personal history that allow us to see the other side of the scale.

The answer to this dilemma, to balance both sides of the scale, is not an easy matter. We consider it a complex problem and it must be analysed from that complexity in order not to give a simple answer in favour of one side or the other, nor present an attempt at an unrealistic and practical balance.

Under this horizon, in this analysis we want to show some thoughts that enable particularly professors and those in charge of addressing academic dishonesty cases so they can increase their assessment criteria in student education, showing how compassion can be present in the ethical concern in education. Our intention is not to establish definite criteria but to help reflect on these matters. Ethics is closely related to prudence, to seeking virtue as the right balance, and we are convinced that a broader reflection on academic integrity and compassion can help to that end.

A Historical Approach to the Notion

Compassion has a broad history that has provided different outlines to its meaning. At all times and in different cultures we can observe its presence and the way it has been closely linked to relationships between human beings. Literature, philosophy, religion, law, show us the many ways compassion comes to life in society. Since what we seek is to suggest a healthy relationship between compassion and fairness in the context of academic integrity, we consider it important to briefly point out some aspects of the historical legacy of compassion, which will enable us to reflect on some nuances, difficulties, and arguments for such harmony.

The first testimonials of compassionate action in Western culture are found in Homer (2007). In the Iliad and the Odyssey, it is present in several situations: he

empathises with the widow, the orphan, the stranger, the warrior; even the gods show compassion for an army or heroes, in Iliad song XXII Zeus makes a last effort to rescue Hector from death, gathering the other gods he tells them:

> What a sight! My eyes can see a fine man being pursued around the walls. How my heart pities Hector, who's often sacrificed to me, burning many thighs of oxen on the crests (…) Come, you gods, think hard and offer your advice— do we wish to rescue him from death, or kill him now, for all his bravery, at the hands of Peleus' son, Achilles? (Iliad, 2007, XXII, p. 208)

In most of the instances when Homer (2007) refers to compassion, it is always coupled with an action in favour of the one who, for one reason or another, is in need. This active character is an important first aspect to take into account; compassion is not simply a form of pity or sorrow for the other's harm, because no intervention is necessary in these feelings. For example, one can feel sorry or pity for those injured in a plane accident, although we are not related to them; however, that sorrow does not necessarily move us to take any action for them or their relatives.

Aristotle dedicates a brief study on compassion in his Rhetoric, analysing the different ways in which passions can be used in speeches. In his reflections there are some aspects that are very relevant for the purpose of our proposal. His definition encompasses two core aspects, initially, the presence of an evil. He affirms that compassion is a certain regret due to the appearance of a destructive and painful evil in those who do not deserve it. Second, the compassionate reaction to others' evil is its proximity, not so much as a space-time proximity, but when it is perceived that such evil or a similar one could happen to him or to a loved one (Aristotle, 2018). As can be seen, Aristotle adds to present evil the characteristic of undeserved evil. For this reason, after compassion, he studies indignation as a passion opposed to compassion, but both have the same root, because, just as compassion arises from undeserved evils, indignation is produced by undeserved successes, and adds something which can be applied to both forms: "For what happens contrary to what is deserved is unjust" (Aristotle, 2018). In his explanation, Aristotle reaffirms that compassion has as its object the one who is honourable, because otherwise we would all be worthy of suffering harm; but also, a person is more conducive to compassionate feelings when he himself or one of his own has suffered a similar evil, or they know that something similar can happen to them.

The Judeo-Christian tradition incorporated a remarkable change in the concept of compassion into Western culture, giving it a privileged position. In its religious notion, all human beings are marked by the experience of weakness and sin. No one is worthy of the honesty or fairness that Aristotle referred to as a condition for compassion. Before God we are all sinners, therefore, redemption is the greatest compassionate action, because although God is a fair and demanding judge, he is at the same time compassionate: "But you, Lord, are a compassionate and gracious God, slow to anger, abounding in love and faithfulness" (Psalm 86:15). Perhaps the most representative image of Christianity is the crucifixion, which is at the same time the image of sacrifice; the crucified carrying the sins of men and offering himself as a redemptive holocaust.

After the revolutionary movements of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and the world wars of the twentieth century, the concept of Human Rights was incorporated into the social and legal framework (Gearty, 2006). Rights that are inherent to all individuals, irreversible and inseparable. There is human dignity in their root, which regardless of cultural circumstances or even possible criminal actions has the right to be treated with dignity. In the latter case, the dignified treatment is independent of the punishment that the individual might deserve, thus distinguishing dignity from responsibility. Nowadays, the development of the topic of compassion has been encouraged from different areas: in the growing influence of Buddhism in our culture (Clayton, 2011), human development (Nussbaum, 2004), citizenship education in university context (Mirra, 2018), among others.

The Role of Compassion in University Education

Our proposal gathers some specific aspects that could be useful in considering compassion as another of the fundamental values of academic integrity's core. Several of these aspects refer to preventive compassion, but there are also some that refer to the way academic misconduct reports are managed. We believe that these criteria are not exhaustive, but enable us to exemplify and point out the direction that the integration of compassion, as an additional principle, could take and therefore become useful in the design and deployment of teacher training programmes.

Access to the Required Resources as a Prevention Strategy

In a broader sense, compassion does not only mean the understanding and helping attitude before a current evil, but also the request to prevent evil from appearing. In public policies it is often claimed that the best way to fight crime is prevention, when citizens receive the necessary instruments so that they can develop and be in conditions of a good quality of life, many of the crime triggering factors are significantly reduced.

Something similar happens with compassion in regards to academic integrity, because in the same way that a student is required to fulfil all his responsibilities as a student, the most reasonable or ideal conditions must be provided by school, society, community and family to help him meet their goals. On the other hand, when a student does not have a sufficiently favourable platform to succeed in his academic life, unfortunately, it is more feasible to see academic responsibility avoidance begin to appear, either because he is not in a position to fulfil his duties or because their real motivations are in other things. Therefore, there must be willingness to help the student, anticipating many of the possible circumstances that usually cause academic dishonesty. In some universities, an admission diagnostic test is applied to students, to detect those aspects that could be the reason for further difficulties; this instrument is usually coupled by support areas within the university: psychological

care, study techniques, etc. This prevention strategy presupposes, of course, willingness on the part of the authorities and the teaching staff, and of those who have the responsibility of training teachers.

Impossibilium Nulla Obligatio

This preventive action to promote compassion must be expressed, first of all, in fair and rational academic demand criteria. In Roman Law the expression "No one is obliged to the impossible" (*Impossibilium nulla obligatio*) was coined, which expresses very well the essence of this type of preventive compassion. Let us provide some examples of adverse criteria: when the accumulation of readings and works that a student must deliver exceeds what can rationally be covered; when homework, exams and other academic obligations are concentrated in a few days; when some professors do not have sufficient teaching quality, due to lack of *expertise* or because they do not have the didactic tools to teach their subject; when some professors, voluntarily or involuntarily, promote an environment of insecurity and fear regarding the approval of their course among their students. In all these cases, excess pressure may be created, leading to impossibility, which basically is also fostering, although indirectly, the search for a way out, even in the form of dishonesty.

Nowadays, in many social settings, formal education begins at an early life stage and usually ends around the age of 25. Seen as a whole, this period encompasses the entire childhood and an important part of youth. It is logical to understand that this is a period where there are many development needs: emotional, physical, feelings for belonging, social ideals and life projects, hobbies, in addition to the different problems that usually accompany almost every human being in that period.

Seen as a whole, academic education continues to be very important for the person's future, family and society, but it is also or should be desirable that education provides broad opportunities for a comprehensive development of the person. Turning studying or even each school subject, into "the most important thing, or the only thing" is to try to suppress or ignore other needs that are equally important for character development. It is very likely that when a student has the possibility of a comprehensive development, he will be in a better position to be motivated to better develop his abilities as a student.

Policies

Another preventive action to promote compassion is to have very well-defined regulations and procedures regarding academic integrity. The best thing in this case is that these rules are very well thought out, relying on the experience of other educational centres. The rationale in these regulations must provide mitigating and aggravating circumstances, different types of sanctions or consequences, and accompanying processes for the offenders. The integrity committees created to

address reports must be comprised of people with experience and there must always be some sort of appeal resources. Faculty must be informed of these policies, thus preventing each professor from establishing their own rules and becoming, many times, judge and jury (prosecutor). An additional way to promote compassion is to train teachers in order to make them able to translate the institutional policies into specific behaviours to follow within the classroom that are clearly defined into the academic programs or syllabus.

Embrace Whoever Incurs in a Fault

In the same way that education requires a broad consideration of the students' multiple needs, well-rounded education also requires training in different human values. For this reason, compassion should not be lacking in the slow and complex process that formation of human beings is; otherwise, one of the worst evils, which is the opposite of compassion, could be indirectly cultivated: cruelty, and one of its most damaging forms, which is humiliation (Cañon-Loyes, 2008, p. 140). A student who is treated under the burden of cruelty and humiliation by the school authorities is receiving a daunt marking in his education and could later repeat that same attitude with people around him. For this reason, the management of academic dishonesty must be well accompanied by compassion and respect in treating students. It should be avoided having a sanction as the result of the anger of a professor or staff authority. It could even be convenient to use less "legal" language and refer to them as consequences of an action and, at the same time, guarantee that their severity is proportional to the seriousness of the offence committed (Carroll, 2016), instead of adopting a single consequence policy of the "one-size-fits-all" type, and exhaust those consequences aimed at educating and training the student in the first instance (Lang, 2013).

In order to know if the ethical duty to respect the dignity of those students who incurred in academic misconduct is part of the management processes, in the next section we will review the management programs for academic dishonesty in eight universities to identify if they have compassionate preventive and corrective mechanisms or, if applicable, of another type.

Analysis of Processes Associated with Management of Academic Integrity Breaches

As a result of the comparative study of the eight universities that we took as a sample, the "theory could emerge through qualitative data analysis" using a set of systematic approaches to deductively develop it (Elliott, 2018; Kolb, 2012, p. 83).

The choice of universities was made from a combined criterion of representativeness. On one hand, it intended to include information on universities located in

different latitudes and/or, on the other, that they had presented their experience in breach management from a restorative approach in international academic conferences. The sample analysed the processes of three Mexican universities, two from the United States, one from Australia, one from Chile, and one from Canada. We also interviewed key stakeholders who are actively involved in the academic integrity programs of the participant universities.

Data Coding and Analysis

To code the information collected, we used the considerations on compassion brought to the university context referred to in the previous section as base categories: (1) interest in helping and educating the student; (2) culture of prevention; (3) respect for human basic rights; (4) consideration of mitigating criteria in sanctioning the seriousness of the breaches; (5) determination of consequences proportional to the breach committed; (6) appeal mechanisms; (7) reporting culture; (8) student participation in the definition of processes related to academic integrity management; (9) accompanying the students who have been sanctioned; and, (10) training for professors and collaborators.

Items one, two and ten are framed in the preventive approach of compassion and three, four, five, six, seven, eight and nine, in the corrective one. The following table shows the presence of some of the preventive and corrective components present in the analysed universities (Table 7.1).

Regarding the preventive dimension, we find that the programs in the eight universities claim to have an educational approach, which is characterised by having repeated statements in their regulations, processes and policies that seek an educational experience for their students that privilege educational consequences over punitive ones. Likewise, they express that they handle preventive mechanisms, induction courses, training workshops, engagement ceremonies and rituals, awareness campaigns, classroom visits and dialogues during exam periods, inclusion of academic integrity policies in course syllabus, among others that are undertaken institutionally. In regard to the participation of students in the definition of some processes and other norms related to the academic integrity program, two Mexican universities do not consider it. Regarding the last element related to the preventive approach, we found that the two North American universities, the Chilean and one of the Mexican ones, do not explicitly mention including content that highlights elements related to the compassionate attitude towards the student in their faculty development programs.

Regarding the corrective dimension, we found that all universities declare that they take into account respect for the rights of students who have been sanctioned due to academic integrity breaches. Likewise, except for the Chilean and Canadian, the rest of the institutions maintain minimum mitigation criteria for sanctions applied. What they do agree on is the application of sanctions proportional to the breach committed. Regarding the stimulation of the reporting culture for integrity

Table 7.1 Comparison of components related to compassion present in university policies

Document (Citation)	University	Country	Formative approach (overall)	Prevention (Cultura/ Comunicación- mensajes-)	Basic rights	Mitigating criteria	Proportional consequences	Appeal resources	Culture of report	Students' participation in AI processes	Coaching (Along the process)	Faculty training
Procedimiento de gestión de casos de deshonestidad académica (Academic dishonesty case management procedure) y Política de funcionamiento y organización de los Órganos de Integridad y Tribunal de Honor (Policy of operation and organization of the Bodies of Integrity and Court of Honor) (UDEM, 2019)	Universidad de Monterrey	Mexico	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Reglamento Académico para los Alumnos de Carreras Profesionales (Academic Regulations for Undergraduate Students) (ITESM, 2019)	Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey	Mexico	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	
Reglamento de Estudios de Licenciatura (Regulations for Undergraduate Programs) (IBERO, 2021)	Universidad Iberoamericana	Mexico	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Política de Integridad Académica (Academic Integrity Policy) (PUCC, 2020)	Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile	Chile	x	x	x		x		x	x		
Academic Honesty Policy (UGA, 2007)	University of Georgia	USA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		

Table 7.1 (continued)

Document (Citation)	University	Country	Formative approach (overall)	Prevention (Cultura/ Comunicación- mensajes-)	Basic rights	Mitigating criteria	Proportional consequences	Appeal resources	Culture of report	Students' participation in AI processes	Coaching (Along the process)	Faculty training
Student Handbook (Davidson, 2021)	Davidson College	USA	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	
Student Academic Integrity Policy & Student Academic Misconduct Procedure (MacEwan, 2020)	MacEwan University	Canada	×	×	×		×	×		×		×
Academic Integrity Policy, Academic Misconduct Outcome Guideline & Academic Misconduct Procedures (UOW, 2021)	University of Wollongong	Australia	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×		×

breaches by students, we saw that some Mexican (IBERO, 2021; ITESM, 2019) and Canadian (MacEwan, 2020) universities do not explicitly promote it because they do not include a clause in their policies to specifically encourage it. Two Mexican universities do not involve their students in the integrity breach management process, and only two Mexican, one American and one Australian accompany the students who were sanctioned throughout the process.

Conclusions and Recommendations

For compassion to find a place in the development of an academic integrity culture, it is essential to adopt a formative, non-punitive approach, and to engage all members of the educational community (authorities, staff, faculty, teacher trainers and students), in order to avoid a reductionist and ineffective "solution" when the time comes to correct and sanction those who are found cheating.

The need to take action from a formative approach has been talked for a long time (Bertram-Gallant, 2008, 2016b; Bretag & Mahmud, 2016; Fishman, 2016; Lang, 2013; Salmons, 2008; Serviss, 2016; Stephens, 2016), hence insisting on it does not seem to contribute anything new. However, university reality says otherwise, since the prevailing regulations "solve" the problem by harshly penalising those who cheat.

And although it is true that the regulations of most of the universities adopt formative approaches, the analysis of the integrity management models in the eight universities analysed allows us to conclude that it is not possible to act in a compassionate way at all times, if the following three factors do not come together: the implementation of preventive measures, the introduction of a normative with an educational approach and the compassionate application of such regulations. It is worth mentioning that there is a great diversity of actions among them that are distinguished by their nature, specificity, scope, among others.

Breach Prevention

From a *preventive perspective*, it is necessary to ensure that the student: (1) has access to relevant information such as required bibliographic resources, infographics with citation methods, current regulations on academic integrity; (2) participate in dialogues about academic integrity expectations at an institutional stance and specifically on their discipline or field of study; (3) undertake specific training programs on the use of citation methodologies and reference managers; (4) experience awareness practices such as the inclusion of an "honor pledge" in assignments and exams, awareness campaigns on the importance of living a culture of academic integrity; and (5) receive support from academic tutors to solve their specific doubts in a timely manner.

A Breach Formative Management

From a *corrective approach*, it is essential: (1) to update regulations periodically, ensuring that they: respect the rights of the reported student, allowing them to have access to current regulations at all times; inform them about the type of accusation they were subject to, showing them the supporting evidence; keep them informed about the status of the process; receive advice and guidance; be heard throughout the entire process; allow them to provide evidence on their behalf; maintain confidentiality; solve their case through a collegiate exercise; have the resource to appeal; demand that no one with conflicts of interest know and/or participate in their case, among others.

Likewise, regulations must ensure criteria that, under certain situations, may mitigate the seriousness of the consequences derived from the breach committed. Here we can find: the very nature of the dishonesty or the type of breach incurred; the particular conventions of the different academic disciplines; the weight of the evaluation instrument in the final grade; the personal circumstances of the student involved or the stage in which they are in their educational process, specifically their degree of prior warning or knowledge that what they were doing was a fault or if they have had opportunities to become familiar with the academic integrity culture, as well as their degree of intentionality or consent at the time of committing the offence, and their physical and mental health; the effects of the breach, related to the number of people involved and affected by the offence perpetrated and/or the impact on institutional prestige; the student's reaction to his fault and the management process derived from it; and the record or file related to previous offences to academic integrity.

Additionally, it is possible to act from a logic of compassion when the regulations explicitly establish that the consequences will be proportional to the offence committed, which implies recognising the existence of a broad variety of consequences, among which we can find: restorative practices (damage restoration), rebuilding trust relationships between the parties involved, conducting reflection essays, participating in specific training programs, among others.

The periodic review of the regulations must also ensure that there is an appeal mechanism when a basic right of the student has not been respected, when an error is made in the development of the process or when a wrong interpretation of the regulations has been made that could result in assigning disproportionate consequences.

The policies for the integration and operation of the academic integrity bodies must allow the participation of students in the construction of a culture of academic integrity, particularly in the process of breach report management and in general in the different awareness-raising and training efforts of an academic integrity culture. Such a policy will remind students of their co-responsibility and will enable better decisions to be made in individual processes and in procedure improvement in general. Students bring a perspective that always adds up and helps to tune into reality in a finer way. An additional manifestation of compassion is offering

accompaniment, both emotional and methodological, to students who have incurred in an act of academic dishonesty.

A Compassionate Attitude as Guiding Principle in the Application of Regulations

In addition to a compassionate process for breach management, the compassionate *enforcement* of regulations is essential. For this, it is key that those members of the university community who participate in these processes have the required preparation. A training program for people (staff and students, but mainly faculty) involved in compassionate case management must include: topics that allow them to understand the human being fallible nature; some basic principles of jurisprudence, restorative justice and human rights; compassion as an ethical principle that humanises and dignifies human actions; interview techniques that allow knowing how to interact, what to ask, how to do it and when to stop inquiring to avoid hurting or affecting the dignity of the students; and dialogic strategies that enable accompaniment guided by active listening, respect, and empathy.

All that has been said does not guarantee that each of the cases that are presented in the classroom will be managed compassionately, however, it was necessary to put the issue on the table, especially at a time where the academic cheating, like never before, has put to the test the mechanisms to avoid it.

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Chapter 8
Formalising Preservice Teacher Training to Work with Parents to Promote Academic Integrity in K-12 Education

Brenda M. Stoesz

Abstract Current academic integrity models suggest that holistic approaches that include the educational institution, faculty, and students are essential for promoting cultures of integrity (Bertram Gallant & Drinan, 2008). These models, however, typically centre on the postsecondary context and may be inappropriate for K-12 education unless adapted to include parents and preservice teachers as important stakeholders. One approach to further support academic integrity in K-12 students may be through parent councils as their intended function is partnership within the education system. Unfortunately, parent councils may not be effective in building parents' capacity for and confidence in educational decision-making (Stelmach, 2016), including the promotion of academic integrity, as they are often relegated to the role of bake sale and hot lunch providers (Stelmach & Preston, 2008). The reduced educational role of parent councils may be a consequence of the absence of direct parent contact within teacher education programs (Bąk-Średnicka, 2017), which has inadvertently discouraged parent-teacher partnerships. This is unfortunate as the quality of the parent-teacher relationships is essential for positive student outcomes (Eccles & Harold, 1996), including children's understanding of academic integrity (Lee & Rigueroa, 2012). Teachers who demonstrate respect, actively facilitate interactions, and value working with parents are vital for empowering parent councils to be part of holistic academic integrity strategies. This chapter argues for formalised training in academic integrity, community values, and ethics, and fostering teacher-parent relationships to better prepare preservice teachers for the teaching profession and for working with parents to promote academic integrity in K-12 education.

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Introduction

> It takes a village to raise a child. (Proverb)

As a child, I knew this to be true. When my parents needed a little help to care for me and my siblings, family, friends, teachers, and others were there to lend a hand. Now, as a parent myself, I often rely on grandparents and other family members, friends, teachers, bus drivers, coaches, doctors, among other adults in my community, to help raise and educate my children. The collective role of a village is to support the healthy development of its children, including teaching them about appropriate and inappropriate behaviours in various contexts, and other life lessons, values, and morals. Supportive communities involved in educating, caring for, and keeping children healthy and safe are crucial for knitting together a strong social fabric. Teachers and other school personnel are especially important for development as school aged children spend most of their waking hours with these essential adults. The values and habits that children learn at home and at school can be reinforced as children move between home and school environments, suggesting that home-school partnerships are crucial for ensuring positive educational outcomes and other areas of development.

Unfortunately, inconsistency in expressing universal values, such as respect, responsibility, and honesty (see Kinnier et al., 2000), across multiple environments can be a source of confusion for children during their formative years. This confusion may be most obvious in the area of academic integrity, where rates of academic cheating in K-12 levels seem to be increasing (Galloway, 2012; Josephson Institute Center for Youth Ethics, 2012; Schab, 1991). To make matters worse, the perception that "virtually nothing is being done currently about the problem [in K-12 education] (and students know that, too)" (Cizek, 2003, p. 117) persists. If K-12 educators as a collective lack knowledge or are uninterested in laying the foundation for integrity, we need to look to future teachers to acquire the relevant knowledge, provide leadership, and work with parents and the broader community. This chapter argues for formalised training in academic integrity, community values, and ethics, and fostering teacher-parent relationships to better prepare preservice teachers for the teaching profession as a whole (Malone, 2020; Maxwell et al., 2016; Young et al., 2014).

Academic Integrity and Misconduct in K-12 Education

Creating cultures of academic integrity and holding students to account in K-12 education systems can be difficult. Teachers have recounted challenges when identifying academic cheating, especially when the offending students are children of colleagues (Edino, 2018). In some jurisdictions, those who serve as examination proctors in K-12 education systems have been bribed and threatened by teachers and principals so that students caught cheating would not be reported (Edino, 2018) and would not suffer the consequences. In my experience speaking to school principals, academic integrity is not a topic worthy of specific education in a high school setting. This is an important ethical issue for various reasons. Disregarding academic integrity and misconduct as topics of discussion suggests negligence (and ignorance) on the part of educators to inform students about expectations and acceptance of invalid assessments used to inaccurately determine the extent of student learning and growth and inform instructional plans. Weak academic integrity policies at school and government levels (Stoesz, 2022) may partly explain why little attention is paid to academic integrity in K-12 and why cheating rates in junior and senior high school are increasing. Strong leadership at the school and community (including individual teachers, parents, and parent councils), division/district, and government levels are needed to provide a foundation of respect, responsibility, fairness, trust, honesty, and courage among students, and all members of an educational community.

In a Canadian study, Christensen Hughes and McCabe (2006) asked first year university students to reflect on their high school years; they found that 58–73% reported cheating on tests and written work. Consistent with these findings, Stoesz and Los (2019) found that 62–77% of junior and senior high students in two Canadian private schools confessed to similar cheating behaviours and 6–17% confessed to contract cheating (i.e., outsourcing their academic work to a third-party). In both studies, students who admitted to violations were more likely to believe that the behaviours were not at all serious. Similarly high rates of academic misconduct in high school students have been observed in the United States (US) (Galloway, 2012; Josephson Institute Center for Youth Ethics, 2012; Schab, 1991) and other countries around the world (Miller et al., 2015).

Students may justify their cheating behaviour by blaming teachers or parents (Murdock et al., 2004; Murdock & Stephens, 2007; Strom & Strom, 2007), but personal issues, competing objectives, low academic aptitude and self-discipline, and the inability to persevere are also associated with decisions to cheat (Amigud & Lancaster, 2019; Sisti, 2007). High school cheating patterns are not only detrimental for students who seek to continue their education, but students who enter the workforce directly after graduation will also be disadvantaged if unethical decision making is part of their daily thoughts and actions. Not only will these new workers have less knowledge and fewer skills for the workplace, the values and behaviours practiced as a student will follow them into the workplace. Indeed, research shows that student cheating is significantly correlated with workplace deviance (Graves,

2008; Nonis & Swift, 2001). Property (e.g., theft) and production (e.g., inappropriate use of time or reduced quality of work) deviant behaviour are quite common with approximately 33% and 66% of employees engaging in these types of deviant behaviours (Hollinger & Davis, 2006).

Preservice Teachers' Engagement in Academic Misconduct

During my preservice teacher training two decades ago, I observed numerous examples of inappropriate collaboration in the form of some group members completing the academic work for the group whereas others did not contribute their fair share. I observed my fellow preservice teachers help others cheat on final examinations or engage in other forms of misconduct and I was asked to do the same. These students were later hired as high school science, mathematics, and physical education teachers, and some even before they had completed their education degrees. Therefore, the statistics on the academic integrity violations of preservice teachers reported in the peer-reviewed literature come as no surprise.

Two to three decades ago, researchers estimated that half to three-fourths of preservice teachers in various US universities engaged in some form of academic misconduct (Cummings et al., 2002; Ferrell & Daniel, 1995). More recently, in the province of Quebec, Canada, researchers found that 15% of preservice teachers admitted to cheating while studying in university and 35% reported cheating during their high school years (Fontaine et al., 2020). In other research, 46.9% of student respondents believed that students who committed academic integrity violations in the past (i.e., in high school) were more likely to engage in such behaviour at present (i.e., in university) (Peters et al., 2021). Clearly, the understanding of academic integrity (or lack thereof), poor decision making, and other inappropriate scholarly behaviours practiced while in high school follow students into their preservice teacher training and then into their professional practice (see Malone, 2020).

Whether preservice or professional teachers admit it or not, teachers are role models (Lumpkin, 2008) and are expected to demonstrate ethical decision-making. When teachers set poor examples, junior and senior high school students (in particular) may not understand why they are held to a higher standard than their role models and may be emboldened to cheat (McCabe, 2005). When these K-12 students later enroll in postsecondary studies or enter the workforce, they take with them the attitude that plagiarism, exam cheating, inappropriate collaboration, and contract cheating are acceptable in scholarly work. If these university students become cheating preservice teachers and make their way in the K-12 classrooms, some may choose not to instill integrity in their students and fail to hold them to account when they engage in academic misconduct. These students may develop the belief that academic cheating is acceptable and/or that there are no consequences for such acts and take these attitudes and beliefs with them to university, putting them at greater risk for making poor decisions in their academic work. The vicious cycle continues. This cycle can only be disrupted when educators value, model, and

actively promote academic integrity by providing direct instruction to their students (Peters & Cadieux, 2019; Stoesz & Yudintseva, 2018). Therefore, teacher leadership in promoting academic integrity is of great importance and has the potential to impact K-12 students in ways that extend beyond the K-12 classroom.

Models of Academic Integrity

Knowing what we know about academic integrity and academic misconduct in K-12 education and preservice teachers, what can we do? Before we answer this question, it is important to examine models of academic integrity to determine the best collection of strategies for building and maintaining cultures of integrity in K-12 education.

Current theoretical models for academic integrity in postsecondary contexts suggest that holistic approaches that include the educational institution, faculty, and students are essential for promoting cultures of integrity (Bertram Gallant & Drinan, 2008; Eaton, 2021; Morris, 2016; Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), 2020; Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2002). Developing and implementing effective academic integrity policies and procedures, providing a range of educational opportunities for students to improve their knowledge and skills in areas related to academic integrity (e.g., citing, writing), and supporting educators as they hone their teaching practice are important components of holistic approaches to academic integrity. To ensure that these components are addressed appropriately, other members of postsecondary educational communities, such as librarians, teaching and learning centre staff, experts in learning technologies, and academic integrity specialists are required. Scholars also argue that long-term strategies for fostering academic integrity must include a concerted effort to build trusting relationships between students and educators (Tippitt et al., 2009).

Eaton (2021) used the micro-meso-macro-mega or 4 M Framework, a social network model that situates the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) within institutional culture framework (Poole & Simmons, 2013; Williams et al., 2013; Wuetherick & Yu, 2016), to illustrate how various levels within higher education can work together to build cultures of integrity. Eaton explained that students, faculty, administrators, and other individuals with their own perspectives about academic integrity comprise the micro level of the educational system. At the meso level, individuals interact with each other within their departments or units, and create expectations around academic integrity that may be distinct from those developed in other departments or units. The macro level represents how the educational institution itself governs through policies and procedures, including those related to academic integrity. The macro level should not be viewed as an isolated entity, but also represents the dynamic interactions that occur between departments and units within an educational institution. It is the collective of individuals and interactions between individuals, along with the governing documents and how they are enacted that help to define a culture of academic integrity at the meso-institutional level.

Finally, the mega level represents the connections between the institution and the community. Stakeholder groups that are external to the educational institution are often interested and invested in the successes and challenges of the institution and its governance structure. According to Eaton, parents and families are included in the mega level, along with other members of the broader community, including quality assurance, government, and industry, are also key stakeholder groups at this broad level.

Despite the holistic nature of academic integrity models, they typically focus on the postsecondary context and may not be appropriate for K-12 education unless adapted to explicitly include preservice teachers and parent councils (i.e., home and school, school-parent, or parent-teacher associations/organisations, or parent support groups) and elevate the role of parents in fostering cultures of academic integrity. In K-12 education, including preservice teachers and parents and their councils at the micro and meso levels in Eaton's 4 M Academic Integrity Framework (Eaton, 2021) may help to elevate the academic integrity discussion in elementary and secondary schools. However, it is not simply a matter of conceptualizing parent councils and preservice teachers in this way, the interconnections and partnerships between various levels must also be strengthened to foster cultures of integrity in meaningful and lasting ways.

Role of Parent Councils in Supporting Academic Integrity

The intended function of parent councils is one of partnership with educators within the K-12 education system (Khong & Ng, 2005; McKenna & Willms, 1998; Ozmen & Canpolat, 2010). Around the world, parent councils are intended to be formal venues through which parents can provide feedback to educators about educational programming, policies, and activities (e.g., Manitoba Education Citizenship and Youth, 2005; OECD & MoNE, 2005; Ontario Ministry of Education, 2002) and plan events and activities to enrich the educational experiences of school-aged children.

Parent councils are ideal partners for promoting academic integrity because they can support teachers in ways that are crucial for building solid foundations for ethical conduct and academic success of their children. Unfortunately, in some jurisdictions, parent councils have not been perceived as efficient (Ozmen & Canpolat, 2010) or effective in "building parents' capacity for and confidence in educational decision-making" (Stelmach, 2016, p. 271). Stelmach examined the participation of six parent councils in the province of Saskatchewan, Canada. Through focus groups and interviews with parents, parent-council chairs, principals, and directors of education, the author discovered that parents largely deferred to educators on educational decisions, and educators denied that parents were interested in matters of education. In Stelmach's view, parent councils were arrested at the "tokenistic" level of Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation and had no power to influence outcomes (Arnstein, 1969). It is, therefore, not surprising that parent councils are

often relegated to the roles of bake sale and hot lunch providers (Henderson et al., 1986; Stelmach & Preston, 2008) and "distant assistants" and "chaperones" (Bąk-Średnicka, 2017, p. 30). Although organising social activities, providing food for students, and lending other types of support to teachers should not be underrated, these activities should not take priority over other ways in which parents and parent councils can partner with educators to support the education of children.

The reduced role of parent councils in K-12 education may be due to the perceptions of education professionals that parents are unprepared, unqualified, and uninterested in participating in academic goal-setting and supporting learning outcomes (Stelmach & Preston, 2008). Parent councils may also not be valued as much as they should be because their roles are quite diverse, somewhat unclear, and depend largely upon the expectations defined within specific countries, regions, school divisions or districts, and/or schools. Khong and Ng (2005) have argued that partnerships between parents and teachers, and parent councils and schools, may also approach collaboration with the intent on accomplishing short-term goals rather than considering long-term goals. The authors go onto criticize the establishment of parent councils "merely for the sake of implementing policy or meeting the basic requirements of evaluation by quality models" and that "school-home-community partnerships [should] be driven by a search for substance and not form" (Khong & Ng, 2005, p. 6).

Despite these challenges, parents and school personnel agree that parent councils should and do act as bridges between the schools and their communities (Stelmach & Preston, 2008). Parent councils can serve to support parents, teachers, and students in various ways, including being part of decisions that include academics, learning outcomes, and academic integrity. Various suggestions for activities of parent councils have been made in the literature and several of these coincide with recommended best practices for building cultures of academic integrity in postsecondary education:

- Advocate to be seen and heard on academic issues by administrators. Parents are willing to be more involved in educational initiatives if there is support and encouragement from administrators (Henderson et al., 1986).
- Learn how to review relevant school, division/district, and government policies and procedures on academic integrity, academic misconduct, assessment, and technology use by speaking to and learning from policy and academic integrity experts. Then conduct reviews of these documents regularly. From my personal experience speaking to school principals, parent councils' role in policy review (depending on the jurisdiction) is not prioritized or is hidden from them because administrators may have the misconception that parents are unable to conduct such reviews.
- Make recommendations for changes to strengthen academic integrity and related policies (e.g., assessment) when the need arises.
- Provide workshops for parents on the importance of building cultures of academic integrity at home and at school and why engagement in academic misconduct is damaging to learning and achievement (Strom & Strom, 2007).

- Promote a focus on learning beyond the elementary school years. Educate parents about the shifts in focus to grades as indicators of successful learning during the late middle and high school years and that this shift is linked to engagement in academic misconduct (Anderman & Midgley, 2004).
- Avoid being distant from the school and its administrators and teachers and work to build trust and confidence between parents and educators (Henderson et al., 1986). This may begin with bake sales and fundraising initiatives but work to go beyond these activities (Stelmach, 2016).
- Invite preservice teachers to parent council meetings and encourage involvement in academic integrity initiatives. Preservice teachers are K-12 students' future educators and assessors. As argued below, building strong teacher-parent partnerships early in a teachers' careers and learning how to communicate and interact with each other are important for collaborating with families and supporting student learning (Boit, 2020).

By working as a strong unit, parent councils can do a lot to support cultures of integrity in K-12 education. This means, however, that parents must participate meaningfully by making contributions to not only support the emotional and social development of their children within the school setting, but that concerns around learning outcomes and academic integrity are voiced and then addressed as well. The activities of parents and parent councils must move toward partnership with teachers for promoting academic integrity and ethical decision making, rather than having roles largely defined as tokenistic (Stelmach, 2016).

Formalising Preservice Teacher-Parent Interactions

The continued reduction in the role of parent councils on decision making around academic goals of a school may be a consequence of the absence of formal and direct contact with parents within teacher education programs (Bąk-Średnicka, 2017; Flanigan, 2005; Hiatt-Michael, 2001; Patte, 2011). The general perception within preservice education programs that being a teacher means "standing up in front of a classroom delivering a lesson and as long as it's defined that way anything else will be seen as peripheral" (Flanigan, 2005, p. 5). Such a narrow definition of what it means to be a teacher may inadvertently discourage new teachers from developing partnerships with their students and parents, or to view parent-councils as valuable contributors to the education of children. Limited interactions between home and school can also result in the formation of stereotypes and misconceptions about parents (Bąk-Średnicka, 2017; Goodwin & King, 2002), such as *parents who don't visit the school don't care about their children's education*; *parents with financial difficulties cannot support the school*; and *all parents have the same goals for their children* (Goodwin & King, 2002, pp. 9–10).

Misperceptions of parents may persist when limited school-centric or school-defined approaches (Lawson, 2003) are implemented in attempts to involve parents

in their children's education in tokenistic ways. School-centric activities may facilitate the development of particular worldviews of "how things should be,' which … shape and reinforce teachers' deficit-based, pathological assumptions about parents' beliefs and behaviors. It also contribute[s] to the silencing of parents' voices" (Lawson, 2003, p. 117).

As I remember it, continued direct contact with parents or with parent councils was not a formal expectation in my teacher training program. Fortunately, I was given several opportunities to interact with parents because my supervising teachers encouraged me to participate in student-parent-teacher interviews during my various teaching practica. All five supervising teachers stressed the importance of meeting and building relationships with parents and that this should be considered an important component of my training for the teaching profession. Positive co-caring teacher-parent relationships support children's competence and social emotional development and reduce conflict between parent and child (Lang et al., 2020). By meeting with parents and students outside of the regular daytime classroom setting, I could begin to appreciate my students and their parents as individuals and what they valued most in terms of their children's educational experience. Experiences such as these can help preservice teachers to begin to challenge misconceptions they may have about parental involvement in education.

Preservice teachers who have more experience with parents can also begin to feel more confident about building partnerships with parents and are more likely to involve parents in classroom and other learning activities directly (Uludag, 2006). Alanko (2018) surveyed program managers of teacher training programs in Finland – 64% of respondents indicated that the topic of cooperation between home and school was incorporated across the teacher education curriculum. Some respondents reported that preservice teachers were prepared to cooperate with families, whereas others were not as confident. The opportunities to hone practical skills through real-life interactions with parents during their pre-service teacher training and working together with organisations and associations were seen as missing from the teacher training programs (Alanko, 2018).

New teachers also often experience "job shock" where much of what they learn about being a professional teacher happens on the job and with little guidance or opportunity to ease into the professional responsibilities. As was with my experience, others have voiced that:

> ... preservice teachers don't see the beginning of the year when the teacher introduces herself to the parents. That initial introduction is huge because it sets off the entire year. Then, the open house, the conferences, the portfolio nights, the field trips, and how you begin inviting parents into your room…. I'd be scared for a first year teacher not to know how to handle those situations. (Flanigan, 2005, p. 6)

As a school year unfolds, working in the classroom and with parents can continue to be challenging because of various barriers, such as time constraints for teachers and parents, lack of knowledge of how to work with parents, and lack of parent and/or teacher interest. Given these barriers to direct teacher-parent interactions, preservice teachers would benefit from explicit training on communication with parents in

teacher education programs to help them gain confidence to work with parents (Hiatt-Michael, 2001; Uludag, 2006). This confidence in working together with parents in general can lead to confidence in tackling the often-difficult conversations related to academic integrity and ethical teaching and learning.

Recommendations

Several recommendations for supporting the knowledge and competencies in working with parents and promoting academic integrity have been proposed for preservice teacher training including:

- Preservice teacher training programs should be restructured so that practica begins at the start of the K-12 school year to provide preservice teachers with the opportunities to witness early interactions with students and parents.
- Case studies and role-playing can be powerful tools for building knowledge and skills to effectively interact with parents and parent-councils (Flanigan, 2005; Hiatt-Michael, 2001). As part of this training strategy, "prospective and new teachers should visit master teachers in classrooms to observe and critique parent conferences" (Hiatt-Michael, 2001, p. 4).
- Attending and participating in parent councils (Flanigan, 2005; Hiatt-Michael, 2001).
- Incorporating academic integrity education into existing ethics courses as part of the preservice teacher curriculum (Malone, 2020; Maxwell et al., 2016). Specific professional development programs can be helpful for training teachers to educate their students about academic integrity (Stephens & Wangaard, 2016).
- Education on the connections between academic integrity and how parents can support their children's learning with integrity.

When teacher education programs are infused with learning activities that familiarize preservice "teachers with the intricacies of a positive parent conference" (Hiatt-Michael, 2001, p. 4), preservice teachers are more likely to work together with parents as they enter their professional practice. Professional development opportunities for working with parents are limited outside of formal preservice teacher training programs, therefore, it is imperative that these be included in the formal curricula. In addition, professional ethics education (Warnick & Silverman, 2011) could include case studies involving academic integrity and misconduct to ensure that preservice teachers are equipped with knowledge and skills for making ethical decisions in these and related areas (e.g., assessment). It is not enough, however, to implement changes to preservice teacher curricula; these changes must be evaluated by examining the impact on teacher-parent partnerships and cultures of academic integrity in K-12 education.

Conclusion

This chapter has argued for formalised training in academic integrity, community values, and ethics, and fostering teacher-parent relationships to better prepare preservice teachers for the teaching profession as a whole (Malone, 2020; Maxwell et al., 2016; Young et al., 2014) and for working with parents to promote academic integrity in K-12 education. Teachers who value working with parents and parent councils, actively facilitate interactions, and demonstrate respect (Tsurkan, 2017) are essential for building positive relationships with parents and empowering parent councils to be part of holistic academic integrity strategies in K-12 education. Unfortunately, education on the role of parent-councils and the importance of interacting with them is largely absent from current teacher education programs. The absence of contact between preservice teachers and parents may prevent future development of quality relationships between parents and teachers who are new to the profession. This is unfortunate as the quality of the relationships between home and school is essential for a variety of student outcomes (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1996; but see Mattingly et al., 2002 for a review), including helping children develop their understanding of academic integrity (Lee & Rigueroa, 2012).

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Chapter 9
Proposing a Preservice Teacher-Training Module to Manage Parental Involvement in K-12 Assessments

Zeenath Reza Khan (ID) **and Veena Mulani**

Abstract Managing parental involvement in assessments is an underrated issue but one that needs to be brought to attention now more than ever. Parents play a pivotal role in their child's development, academics and understanding of what is right and wrong. Pre-service teachers need to be taught how to carefully balance the delicate expectations of parents, all the while keeping student expectations clear, real and within the values of academic integrity. As educators ourselves, we believe that teachers, often seen as the experts, need to build an environment of trust and acceptance within their classrooms to allow for individual student's creativity to shine through. To enable this process, we have proposed a carefully designed module that will train teachers on designing effective assessments that foster values of academic integrity, managing parental involvement and balance, setting guidelines for student expectations, and evaluating their strategies in the classroom. The module has been designed after conducting proper due diligence and we believe it may provide a platform for a much-needed debate and action in the education industry to inculcate values of academic integrity at an early age.

Keywords Pre-service teacher · Parental engagement · K-12 · Teacher training · Contract cheating · Module

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Introduction

Academic integrity values make up the foundation of education in K-12 and beyond. Teachers play a vital role in developing and fostering a culture of academic integrity at all levels of education. However, there is always a concern over the teachers' ability, knowledge, and possibility to establish the values as identified by the International Centre for Academic Integrity's Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity, such as fairness, trust, honesty, courage, respect, and responsibility (ICAI, 2021). Ashe and Manning (2007) indicated that teachers can find themselves in situations where they may lack enough knowledge of integrity values, policies, procedures, ways to design assessments, ability to manage external interventions or even on ways to handle cases of dishonesty. This can be detrimental not only to the students' future, but also to academia.

Of particular interest to this chapter is parental involvement as external intervention throughout K-12 that has been shown to raise concerns that we have faced over the duration of our careers as teachers in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). A study by Khan and Mulani (2020) proposed that parents doing projects for students conveyed a dangerous message to students, that it was okay to submit work completed by someone else. As parents and teachers, we became aware of and concerned with parental involvement in students' completion of assessments as part of some schools' practices in the nation. "The Desert Diorama Dilemma" published by International Center for Academic Integrity in 2019 provided a harrowing account of flawed assessment designs, and what excessive parental involvement meant for students, even going to the extent to draw parallel to contract cheating behaviour in later years (Khan, 2019).

Based on a study conducted in the United Arab Emirates, Mulani and Khan (2022) have suggested that teachers find themselves unprepared to handle excessive parental involvement and assessment design because they are not necessarily taught such skills in their pre-service training. It then becomes incumbent that we look at pre-service teacher training to recognise how future teachers may be better trained and prepared for such situations in the future.

This chapter proposes a training module based on various existing frameworks and preparedness modules for preservice teachers to provide a holistic training for teacher-students so that they may be better prepared when they become teachers in the future.

United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Quality Education

UAE is a new nation, having just celebrated 50 years but with a strong leadership that has already delivered a successful Mars mission in 2020 (Emirates Mars Mission, 2021) and launched a nuclear energy plant in 2020 for sustainable and clean energy for the nation (Emirates Nuclear Energy Corporation, 2021). The UAE

has a population of around nine million, with 80–85% expatriates and remaining locals, often called Emiratis. It is made up of seven emirates (or states) and ranked 25th in the Global Competitiveness Report by World Economic Forum and recognised as a tolerant nation housing expats from more than 200 countries (UAE, 2022a).

The UAE is home to over 1000 schools across its seven emirates, some state-owned and majority privately run and catering to around 400,000 students, and approximately 80 institutes catering to nearly 140,000 higher education students (Puri-Mirza, 2020). The country has a federal-level Ministry of Education (MOE) that mandates policies and governance of education standards in the country, while some of the emirates of state-level government and semi-government agencies such as Department of Education and Knowledge (ADEK) in Abu Dhabi, capital of the country that oversees both higher education and schools, Knowledge and Human Development Authority in Dubai which oversees all private schools and higher education institutions licensed but not accredited by MOE, and Sharjah Private Education Authority located in Sharjah.

Quality education has been at the forefront of the country's planning and positioning. In the first 50 years, Vision21 clearly stated the goal to achieve "first-rate education system" in the country as part of the national agenda (UAE Vision, 2021; 2018) while for the Next50, the guiding principles that

> …will focus on fostering a high-quality education system that ensures competitiveness at the early childhood stage; an innovative global educational system that enhances future skills; alignment of higher education outputs with the needs of the future labor market; and an advanced and flexible national qualifications system that copes with the requirements of future economic development (Dr Mohamed Ebrahim Al Mualla, Undersecretary for Academic Affairs, UAE Ministry of Education as told to Gulf Today, 2021).

MOE drew up the Education 2020 strategy that focused on significantly improving the quality of education across K-12 programs, incorporated smart learning, and promoted inclusive education for all, in keeping with the United Nations Sustainable Goal 4 - Quality Education (UAE, 2022b).

Assessments in Education

Assessments, be it exams, testing, evaluations, or assignments, are a crucial part of teaching and learning because they support learning, teach accountability, and help in certification (Archer, 2017). As educators, we understand the importance and value of assessments, but only when they aid in ensuring quality of education and help to evaluate the outcomes of the teaching and learning process that has priorly taken place (Mundrake, 2000). Ghaicha (2016) defined assessment as

> a part of the educational process where [faculty] instructors appraise students' achievements by collecting, measuring, analyzing, synthesizing and interpreting relevant information about a particular object of interest in their performance under controlled conditions in relation to curricula objectives set for their levels, and according to the procedures that are systematic and substantively grounded (p. 213).

Assessments in education setting have evolved over the years to transform into something that truly aids in classroom learning (Black & William, 1998); however, research has also posited the dangers posed by poorly designed or not appropriately conducted assessments that can even undermine student learning (Ghaicha, 2016). Moreover, Holden et al. (2021) have suggested that when stakeholders such as students and staff involved in assessment process act in a "manner [that] reinforces an institution's reputation…at a broader level, [assessment outcomes] instill (…) a shared framework for professional work, making explicit the value of the mastery of knowledge, skills, and abilities" (para 1).

In the UAE, the National Qualifications Authority, MOE, ADEK, KHDA, Abu Dhabi Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training, and Institute of Applied Technology developed a new system for teachers' licensing to manage qualifications and ensure quality of teachers (UAE, 2022b). At the same time, the country also has an established school inspection framework that overlooks the proprietorial and governance systems of schools across the UAE (2022b), including looking at assessment practices, grading and so on. Studies have also been carried out highlighting the innovations in assessment design in UAE institutions (Musa, 2020; Khan, 2013; Sabri, 2015; Al-Shammari, 2020).

Academic Integrity in Education

Academic integrity has been defined by the European Network for Academic Integrity (ENAI) as:

> Compliance with ethical and professional principles, standards, practices and consistent system of values, that serves as guidance for making decisions and taking actions in education, research and scholarship (ENAI, 2018, para 1).

Plenty of studies have addressed the issue of lack of integrity when students engage in some form of assessment or other (King & Case, 2014; McCabe, 2005; Prentice & Kinden, 2018; Awosoga et al., 2021). Moreover, studies have also identified types of misconducts (plagiarism, exam cheating, contract cheating, collusion) or behaviours that undermine the integrity of assessments (Khan, 2017). Newstead et al., (1996) proposed 21 such behaviours while Khan (2014) proposed 19 that defined e-cheating (see Appendix A for more details). Studies have also looked at why students cheat. Using a grounded scientific process such as Interpretive Structural Modelling to develop a factor model followed by use of Structural Equation Modelling to test the model, Khan (2014) identified 39 factors such as peer pressure, parental pressure, advancement in technology, prior cheating behaviour, lack of prior knowledge and others, which help to highlight how in fact parents' attitude has direct impact when it comes to students' likelihood to e-cheat (see Fig. 9.1). This implies stronger ethical parental attitudes act as a positive influence to deter students' likelihood to e-cheat (Khan, 2014).
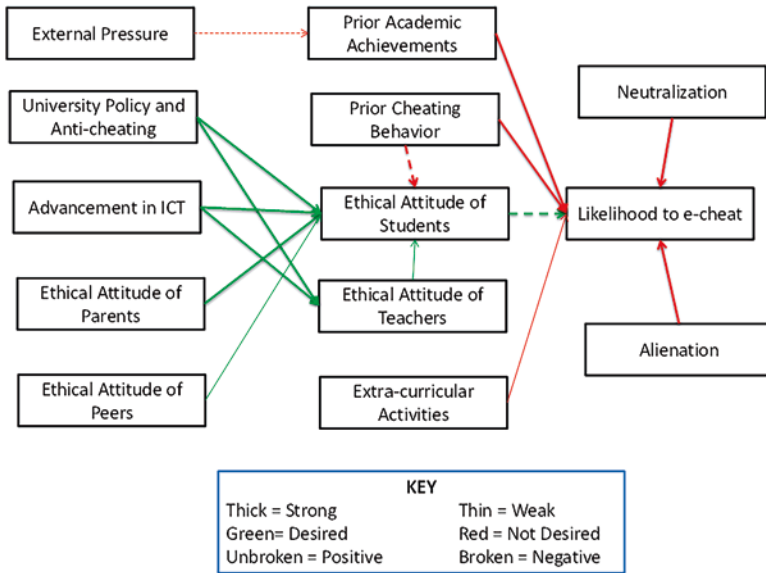
Fig. 9.1 Khan's factor model. (Khan, 2014)

With the onset of the COVID19 pandemic and education sector's move to the digital space, plenty of studies also highlighted the concerns over academic integrity in online assessments (Lancaster & Cotarlan, 2021; Walsh et al., 2021; Meccawy et al., 2021). Studies in the UAE have also highlighted cheating among students (Khan & Samuel, 2009; Khan & Subramanian, 2012; Jawabreh, 2009; Alkaabi et al., 2017; Abdulrahman et al., 2017; Tabsh et al., 2009; Vaccino-Salvadore & Hall Buck, 2021), contract cheating (Khan et al., 2019; Pacino, 2021), understanding perceptions of stakeholders (Abdelfatah & Tabsh, 2010), understanding why students cheat (Khan & Balasubramanian, 2019), and policy review (Khan et al., 2019a, b).

Parental Involvement in Assessments in K-12 Schools

As teachers in the UAE, we have observed within the K-12 sector here that irrespective of whether the mode of teaching and learning is traditional or online, a lot of primary teachers struggle with the involvement of parents. In fact, in our recent study of teachers from both British curriculum and Indian curriculum, teachers expressed these concerns, irrespective of which type of schooling system they were in (Mulani & Khan, 2022).

Parental involvement is very important when it comes to the development of students as learners. Wolfendale described parental participation as any form of liaison between parents and schools and the greater communities (1983) while

Jowett and Baginsky (1988) defined parental involvement as a partnership of sorts between schools and homes. From the early-years and throughout the course of a child's educational journey, the level and type of parental involvement is an important variable and has a great impact on their conceptual understanding and even student outcomes; for this reason, schools often come up with various strategies and written expectations for parents to follow such as parent councils, funding days, school events, tutoring programs and parent-teacher communication days (Campbell, 2011; Larocque et al., 2011).

Larocque, et al. (2011, p. 115) state that "parents cannot be viewed as a homogenous group because they do not participate in the same ways; some have more of a presence in the school than do others." In a study conducted by Smith et al. (2019) aimed to research the differences in the level of parental involvement at various levels of schooling, found that parents are more engaged in their child's learning during the elementary years than in middle-school. Nonetheless, providing academic support, spending quality time, setting a daily reading routine, having qualitative academic dialogue to provide guidance, being involved in the child's assignments and other extracurricular activities are some norms that most modern parents must take up for the betterment of their child (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011).

In fact, a study published by Al Sumaiti (2012) as part of Dubai School of Government Policy Brief posited how parental involvement was vital in helping children learn and improve, particularly given the diverse nature of the country's population which includes 80–85% expatriates from over 100 countries and 10–15% nationals (Emiratis). Furthermore, the study highlighted this need particularly given that a lot of the families, whether expatriate or Emirati, depend on caregivers such as maids or nannies who do not necessarily speak English as a first language (Al Sumaiti, 2012). This report has focused on encouraging and engaging parents to enhance student learning.

However, although we do acknowledge that parents' involvement plays a very important role in helping children in their learning journey (Cooper, 2001; Patall et al., 2008; van Voorhis, 2011), issue arises when their involvement becomes unacceptable support that leads to unfair advantage for the children, so much so that it is their efforts assessed rather than their child's (Pomerantz et al., 2006; Hill & Tyson, 2009). It is interesting to note here that this kind of unacceptable parental involvement is seen among primary and elementary schools, rather than secondary and high school years (Wei et al., 2019). In fact, studies such as Patall et al. (2008), and Hill and Tyson (2009) have stressed on the dangers of such unfair and unacceptable parental involvement to actually become barriers to students' learning, growth and their long-term understanding of what is allowed and what is not.

Case-based research conducted in 2020 shows how this problem may not be very simple (Khan & Mulani, 2021). The "Desert Diorama Dilemma" vividly explains the issue (Khan, 2019). When a child gets a project or assessment and the parent or parents provide unacceptable and unfair support, even going as far as to complete the entire project for the child, this behaviour raises concerns over the values of learning and practice that the student is exposed to. Moreover, when schools knowingly continue to acknowledge and recognise such work, ask students to display and

present these tasks done by parents as their own, they may well be potentially sowing the seeds of contract cheating behaviour in the student's later educational career (Khan, 2019; Khan & Mulani, 2021). Furthermore, our case study also highlighted the issue of assessment design, rubric and expectations of teachers - projects sent home had more unfair parental involvement and those that were completed in schools had a better chance of actually assessing the student's learning (Khan & Mulani, 2020). In fact, the study quoted the case agents as saying how "it's ok", "all moms help them", "not a big deal" and how these projects were well recognised in classrooms (p. 1).

Our study conducted towards the end of 2021 reiterated that parental involvement in a student's education is helpful, but can be ethically more effective when teachers openly discuss parents' expectations with them to manage their involvement in the student's assessment work. In this study, some 22 teachers were surveyed to understand their perception of parental involvement and if they felt their pre-service training had prepared them to manage parental involvement in assessments, expectations, and assessment rubric designs to help assess student work. The results showed how parental involvement in fact posed a hindrance to the assessment of students in primary schools as high mean factors indicated parents helped their students in completing the projects at a level that was not acceptable (Mulani & Khan, 2022).

Preservice Teacher Training and Academic Integrity

As teachers, we know how K-12 teachers have truly faced barriers in teaching and learning moving to emergency distance learning with little to no time for preparation. This has been captured by many studies during the months since COVID19 pandemic hit in 2020 that have talked about the lack of guidelines, the challenges of redesigning content and assessments for online delivery, difficulty in engaging students and parents and many more such challenges (Francom et al., 2021; Leech et al., 2020; Khan, 2021). An additional source of challenge has been having parents in "classrooms" (Khan & Mulani, 2021). From bullying to peeping to calling teachers out to taking tests for students and more, teachers have shared harrowing experiences of having to manage parents and expectations during the emergency distance learning months (Maloy, 2020; Sharma, 2020; Jargon, 2020).

We studied some more existing literature and from our experiences we have seen a lot of focus has indeed been given to in-service teacher training on assessment design and development (Anderson, 1978; Uysal, 2012; Kivirand et al., 2011); even pre-service teacher training on such topics (Papanikolaou et al., 2013; Xu & He, 2019; Lutovac & Flores, 2022). During one of our studies, teachers stated how managing parents, parental involvement and expectations wasn't something that was necessarily addressed in their pre-service training (Mulani & Khan, 2022). Furthermore, in our study, teacher respondents indicated they felt pre-service

training on how to manage expectations of students and parents, on assessment design to elicit originality and manage parental involvement would help them in their jobs.

We conducted a literature survey of existing, open-access, pre-service teacher training degrees offered in the UAE to see if there were any indications of courses or lessons that highlighted parental involvement in assessment completion and assessment design and grading. To do this, we identified 94 total programs through the MOE's Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA), a body that is responsible for upholding quality of education across all accredited universities and their programs. Once we identified these programs, we used the following exclusion criteria to narrow the search:

- Diplomas or certifications - we decided not to include diplomas or certifications at this stage as diplomas are more condensed and may generally have fewer courses or be more focused. Excluding diplomas meant rejected 24 programs from the list
- PhD/Doctoral degree program - we did not include doctoral degrees as these do not necessarily include coursework or subjects taught. This excluded seven programs
- Professional certification institutes - this mirrored the reasoning we have provided above for diplomas. One institute was accredited on the CAA list but had 29 diplomas which were rejected.
- Degrees for narrow specialisation – we decided not to include degrees that were too specialised, again because they may already contain fewer courses, less broad content and by default exclude any pre-service training on parental involvement and other focus of our study, thus skewing the results. This excluded 11 programs
- Teaching mode not English – as we were primarily looking at all institutions that taught in English, we rejected one university and program not in English.
- Not open access or links not working – this meant we could not access the content, study plan or course progression of the programs. This excluded two programs.
- Inservice – as our study focused on preservice training, we rejected the one program that was targeting in-service training.

Given the above exclusion criteria, out of 94 programs listed under the CAA, we had 18 programs across 12 universities to compare. We then conducted a content analysis on the 18 programs based on subjects and any subject descriptions after coding the universities. The detailed results are provided in Appendix B. The results show that the programs varied in duration and level of education. There were 14 Masters/post graduate level courses while only four Bachelors/undergraduate level courses. Thirteen broad areas of content were identified as being offered, these were: psychology, curriculum/pedagogy/assessment design/mapping/etc., technology in education, inclusivity/special needs/diversity, language, research and innovation, policy and governance, international education and leadership, management and operations, specialised courses such as in health, sciences, etc., theories,

general education, and professional codes of conduct. While we found no courses that explicitly addressed the issue of unacceptable parental involvement or integrity in assessment design and grading, we did find the following:

- One course included "Schools as learning communities" talking about parental engagement from the perspective of conducting parent-meetings, getting parents involved in school events, etc.
- One course included "Professional Cultural Issues in Education" which did not mention parental involvement but focused on teaching with integrity and fairness, not assessing.
- One course on "Governance and community engagement" did not provide detailed description of the content, but the explanation seemed to reflect somewhat like the "Schools as learning communities"
  Researchers such as Kirschner and Selinger (2003) call upon frameworks to be developed that force teachers to include all stakeholders such as parents. This is because current literature continues to omit the importance of parental involvement within the realm of teacher training or expected qualities. Studies that dwell on the importance of teacher education focus on two categories - instructional pedagogies and classroom management (Berliner, 1994; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Conway & Clark, 2003). However, neither include managing parental involvement or setting clear expectations for students or parents with regards to academic support. The Singapore National Institute of Education includes "service to the profession and community" as a pivotal attribute for teachers in the new millennium; however, it fails to explicitly define parental involvement (UNESCO, 2021).

This analysis coupled with our recent study of schoolteachers leads us to identify this gap in pre-service teacher training and hence propose a framework in this chapter.

Developing a Pre-service Teacher Module

To propose a holistic framework as part of pre-service teacher training, we refer to the qualitative feedback received from parents (Khan & Mulani, 2020), teachers (Mulani & Khan, 2022) and the in-depth content analysis presented above. The triangular analysis allows us to reflect on the depth of issues faced in the classroom and then create a module to help student teachers develop 'authentic' assessments with clear guidelines and rubrics, keeping student grade-level in mind, and dissuade any overt parental involvement. The intention of the above module will be to prepare pre-service teachers to manage expectations of all stakeholders - students and parents.

According to Khan and Mulani (2021), Lim et al. (2011) have designed a framework to allow pre-service teachers to develop competencies in using technologies while National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (1999) extensively

Table 9.1 Comparing and mapping steps to develop and implement curriculum for pre-service teacher training module between two studies

Kern et al. (1998) and Thomas et al. (2016)	Muzaffar et al. (2011)
Step 1 – Problem identification and general needs assessment	Step 1 – Conduct assessment of existing state of pre-service teacher education (PSTE)
Step 2 – Targeted needs assessment, determining and prioritising content	Step 2 – Create a Strategic Plan – targeted or holistic
Step 3 – Writing goals and objectives	
Step 4 – Selecting teaching/education strategies	
Step 5 – Implementation of the curriculum	Step 3 – Implement the Strategic Plan
Step 6 – Evaluation and application of lessons learnt	Step 4 – Monitor and Evaluate PSTE inputs and outcomes

implores teachers to reflect about their practice and experience, and the study by Manasia et al. (2019) offers a model to groom pre-service teachers for sustainable development. These studies largely inform how we looked at developing our pre-service teacher training module. In addition, we found the Curriculum Development for Medical Education - Six Step Approach by Kern et al. (1998) and Thomas et al. (2016) to be a comprehensive guideline that can be used to help us develop our module. Our development process was also informed by the eight principles and four steps proposed by Muzaffar et al. (2011). The steps proposed by the studies are compared and mapped in Table 9.1.

It can be seen that Kern et al. (1998) and Thomas et al. (2016) are more comprehensive for Step 2 of Muzaffar et al. (2011). However, it is also important to note here that Muzaffar et al. (2011) is directing steps to implement a pre-service teacher education program and is governed by the following eight principles:

1. A coherent pre-service system predicted on shared vision
2. Eliminate fragmentation in teacher education system
3. Effective pre-service teacher education aligned with professional standards for teachers
4. Inclusion of strong practicum
5. Good program develops and maintains strong linkages with local schools
6. Teacher education institutions require sufficient infrastructure and resources to implement
7. Effective professional development of teacher educators leads to better program development and implementation
8. Develop professional learning outcomes

Keeping the above guidelines in mind, we have designed our module to pursue the above-stated principles as has been demonstrated in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2 Khan-Mulani (KM) preservice teacher training module on parental involvement in assessment

Kern et al. (1998) and Thomas et al. (2016)	Muzaffar et al. (2011)	Evidence of implementation to design our module
Step 1 – Problem identification and general needs assessment	Step 1 – Conduct assessment of existing state of pre-service teacher education (PSTE)	Khan & Mulani (2020, 2021)
Step 2 – Targeted needs assessment, determining and prioritising content	Step 2 – Create a Strategic Plan – targeted or holistic	Mulani & Khan (2022) Content analysis of existing pre-service teacher education programs in the UAE
Step 3 – Writing goals and objectives		See Intended Learning Outcomes
Step 4 – Selecting teaching/ education strategies		See Theories Underpinning Teaching/Education Strategies
Step 5 – Implementation of the curriculum	Step 3 – Implement the Strategic Plan	Future scope
Step 6 – Evaluation and application of lessons learnt	Step 4 – Monitor and Evaluate PSTE inputs and outcomes	Future scope

Intended Learning Outcomes

Using Bloom's action verbs based on the taxonomy and in order to highlight deeper learning and critical thinking that are measurable (Newton et al., 2020), the following intended learning outcomes have been proposed:

– To analyse the importance of parental involvement in education and student assessment,
– to construct effective assessments to gauge student learning and originality,
– to develop ability to manage student/parent expectations and involvement in student assessment, and
– to evaluate the effectiveness of assessment strategies within a classroom.

Theories Underpinning Teaching/Education Strategies

To propose such a module, we considered Kolb's experiential learning model (cycle) to recognize that a student goes through a simple learning-reflecting-creating-testing process of experiences, "whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). In the first stage, the student-teacher is given something to learn or do which creates an experience for them. Following this, the student-teacher is given a chance to review or reflect on their learning, probably through in-class questioning or assigned tasks. At the third stage, the

student-teacher can create new experiences based on their existing learning or from the existing abstract concept. Finally, the student-teacher applies their ideas to make sense of real-world learning.

As teachers ourselves, we find that from delivering the concept to designing the assessments, teachers need to consider maintaining authenticity during all of Kolb's four stages of learning. For example, when delivering a concept teachers must themselves provide original or cited work to set a good example for students. Furthermore, teachers must design effective assessments which regard student's uniqueness and individual capabilities. There is no point in rewarding a 'perfect' assignment if that perfection is not due to a student's individual effort but that of their parents. Since the four stages are an integrated process, it is important that the learner goes through all four stages to be successful in their learning.

Following the ideology of a constructivist view of learning, pre-service teachers will be expected to construct new learning ideas based on their prior experiences. This ideology will also be passed on to the teachers to enable them to adapt their assessments keeping the individual learner's ability in mind (Seifert & Sutton, 2009).

We are of the position that our proposed module will 'educate' pre-service teachers on the importance of the above theories and how to effectively implement it in their classrooms by designing assignments that provide the reflective opportunity to their students and allow them to apply their conceptual understanding to real-world situations, all the while keeping in mind their learner's individuality, ability, and experiences. Teachers will learn to design effective assessments whereby their students may take cues from their parents; however, the 'right balance' should be maintained to accept the student's creativity and allow for a more reflective learning process within the scope of a student's development.

Assessments are crucial to any teaching and learning that takes place, even for pre-service teacher training (Black & Willliam, 1998; Gitomer & Duschl, 1998). Continuous and authentic assessments that take place in classrooms are meant to be dynamic interaction between teaching and learning (Buck et al., 2009). This is known as formative assessment and can take place in formal and informal settings. Moreover, summative assessments are those that basically test or measure the student's achievements up to a point in time (Taras, 2005). We also believe situation-specific skills in the perception- interpretation- decision-making (PID) model is a vital strategy to design assessments for our module because these will help determine if the student's disposition (cognitive components) will transform into performance succeeds (Blomeke & Kaiser, 2016; Buchholtz et al., 2018). Finally, studies such as Darling-Hammond et al. (1999) and Wei and Pecheone (2010) have posited that using performance-based assessments can be valuable as educational experience for the students. We foresee assessments to be formative and summative and sometimes a combination with case studies, surveys, rubric development and assessment design exercises, role plays and practicum for authentic scenarios and more.

Proposed Module for Preservice Teachers

Based on the content analysis carried out on existing modules offered as part of pre-service teacher education, we propose the module to be a 10-h 6-credit point module which will have 5-h of facilitated learning and 5-h of self-directed study based on the following topics:

Rethinking Assessment Instructions and Rubrics

- What is an authentic assessment?
- Why is authentic assessment important?
- How to prepare rubric that ensures integrity of assessments?
- Exercises on developing assessments, instructions, and rubrics.

Recognising Parents as Integral to Student Development

- Why are parents important for student development?
- Types and stages of parental involvement and how they impact student development.
- How do parents' attitudes to assessment integrity impact students?
- Exercises on understanding parental involvement in student development

Managing Boundaries of Parental Involvement in Student Assessments

- Kinds of parental involvement detrimental to assessment integrity and how to identify them.
- What do boundaries in student assessment look like?
- How do boundaries help in managing parental involvement?
- Exercises in identifying and managing parental involvement and boundaries in assessments.

Developing Communication and Partnership with Parents and Students

- Establishing a trusted relationship between Triple Ts – The Trio Team, i.e. teacher, parents and student.
- Initiating conversation with parents and students on assessment integrity
- Developing clear guidelines for acceptable parental involvement and communicating them in an open and non-threatening manner.
- How to engage in difficult conversation with students or parents on unacceptable parental involvement in student assessments?
- Exercises to practice conversations, develop guidelines and role play handling

Reflecting on Practice

- Evaluation of assessment strategies that are followed in class to gauge student learning.
- Evaluation of guidelines that are developed for student work and expectations.
- Evaluation of strategies to educate, support and accept the level and type of parental involvement.
- Exercises on evaluative practices that define next steps.

Future Path and Conclusion

Teachers are fundamental to our education system; quality teachers are vital. But quality comes from teachers' own preparedness and education in the form of pre-service training. Proper, in-depth and well-designed pre-service teacher training can prepare a teacher for a classroom to prepare their students with future-ready skills (Lewin, 2004). However, rarely do such pre-service teacher training take into consideration assessment design and rubric development with parental engagement in mind.

Parental involvement is very important in helping children grow and can have a significantly positive impact on their learning and achievements (Cotton & Wikelund, 1989). Studies have mostly focused on this positive impact, citing improvement in reading, literacy and so on (Cotton & Wikelund, 1989). However, we have seen in our own experiences as teachers in the UAE and through exploratory and case studies how parental involvement can also be unfair and unacceptable, even going as far as to become seeds for contract cheating behaviour.

This chapter has provided an in-depth overview of the issue of overt parental involvement, and how in-service teachers feel they are not prepared or taught how to manage parental expectations from this angle, nor how to develop assessments and rubrics to grade student originality.

This chapter also records a content analysis that has been conducted on existing pre-service teacher training programs in the UAE to highlight a gap that does not address the above-mentioned issue. We finally propose a pre-service teacher training module on introducing, teaching, and preparing student-teachers so that in the future they can manage expectations of parental involvement, develop and grade assessments that upholds integrity and recognises student originality.

We recognise that there are limitations to this chapter. The content analysis carried out on existing programs is based on open-access content which is, in most parts, limited to course names and occasionally descriptions. Another limitation of the chapter is that at the time of writing this chapter, we are still in the process of approaching institutions that will be willing to implement the proposed module on a trial basis to record its effectiveness.

The chapter is intended for any pre-service teacher training program; the proposed module set about in this chapter can be a starting point and guideline for policymakers and curriculum developers to consider the gap we have identified and use the proposed module in its high-level state to further build on it, customised to their own institute. Finally, we foresee carrying on a follow-up study after we do follow the steps to implement the module to test the effectiveness of the module in the future.

Appendices

Appendix A

Behaviours that define e-cheating (Khan, 2014)

1.	Using ICTs to copy and paste another person's ideas, thoughts, images, photos, creativity, and words from online sources as one's own
2.	Using ICTs to copy another person's music, movie, or program from electronic sources as one's own
3.	Using ICTs to copy and paste another person's words from another student's work with their acknowledgement
4.	Using ICTs to copy and paste another person's words from another student's work without their acknowledgement
5.	Using ICTs to allow other students to copy and paste one's own words
6.	Using ICTs to buy ready-made essays or reports via websites that offer such services either free or for a (minimal) fee
7.	Using ICTs to buy pre-prepared essays from past students
8.	Using ICTs to write an essay or report for another student
9.	Using ICTs to collude without prior permission with other students by emailing, texting, sharing documents online, sharing references, words between students especially in an individual assessment requirement
10.	Using ICTs to access restricted websites, specially sites that are meant for instructors or examiners, to access questions before exams
11.	Using ICTs to access restricted databases from instructors' or schools' computer systems to access questions before exams
12.	Using ICTs to access other students' accounts to steal their work and use it for one's own gain
13.	Using ICTs such as Bluetooth, smartphones and such to provide answers to other students during examinations
14.	Using ICTs to gain answers from other students in or out of classrooms for questions during an examination
15.	Using unauthorized ICTs such as graphical calculators during examinations to solve equations, sketch graphs for equations and more where clear instructions restrict such use of advanced calculators
16.	Using ICTs to steal other students' user account details and passwords to access their work, research, printing privileges they may have paid for
17.	Using ICTs to falsify medical documents to avail special consideration during exams or assessment submissions
18.	Using ICTs to falsify data, images, figures, tables, graphs to make an essay or report seem worthwhile
19.	Using ICTs to falsify identity of students to allow one student to take exam for another

Appendix B

Literature survey comparison of existing pre-service education of open-access courses

Code	Level UG/PG	Total no. of subjects	Subject content coverage	Parental involvement	Assessment and integrity
U1	PG	10	PSY	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			LANG	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
U2	PG	7	CDA	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			POL	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			LANG	nil	nil
			LANG	nil	nil
			SPE	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			INT	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
U3	PG	16	CDA	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			POL	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			LANG	nil	nil
			SPE	nil	nil
			SPE	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil

(continued)

Code	Level UG/PG	Total no. of subjects	Subject content coverage	Parental involvement	Assessment and integrity
U4	PG	12	PSY	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
	PG	12	PSY	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			Schools as learning communities	Yes	nil
U5	UG	42	IDA	nil	nil
	PG	10	RS	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
	PG	12	RS	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			Professional, Cultural issues in Ed	nil	teaching where Integrity and fairness
U6	PG	10	ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			PSY	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil

Code	Level UG/PG	Total no. of subjects	Subject content coverage	Parental involvement	Assessment and integrity
U7	PG	7	CDA	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			SPE	nil	nil
U8	PG	9	Theories	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			Governance and Community engagement	yes	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			SPE	nil	nil
U9	PG	12	PSY	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			Theories	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			MGMT	nil	nil
	PG	12	Theories	nil	nil
			POL	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
	PG	12	Theories	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			POL	nil	nil
	PG	12	Theories	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil

Code	Level UG/PG	Total no. of subjects	Subject content coverage	Parental involvement	Assessment and integrity
U10	UG	30	SPE	nil	nil
U11	UG	40	SPE	nil	nil
U12	UG	40	GENE	nil	nil
			Theories	nil	nil
			EdTech	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			LANG	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil
			IDA	nil	nil
			RS	nil	nil
			ITLLEAD	nil	nil
			CDA	nil	nil

Content code	Frequency
PSY	5
CDA	22
EdTech	16
IDA	13
LANG	5
RS	5
POL	4
ITLLEAD	20
MGMT	9
SPE	7
Theories	6
GENE	1
INT	1
PG	14
UG	4

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Chapter 10
Incorporating Ethics into Everyday Classroom in Science Education

Shivadas D. Sivasubramaniam

Abstract Ethics education is an essential part of life-long learning. It seeks to mobilize acceptable conduct in all contexts of life including human/animal rights and the environment sustainability. The purpose of ethics education is to develop cognitive capacities and critical thinking skills which enable individuals to identify ethical dimensions of problems and reflect/address these problems by minimising any detrimental effects. However, the complexities of primary/secondary education mean there is less room for moral or ethics education in schools. This chapter aims to provide practical guidance for pre-service teacher trainees to understand the importance of student learning about ethics, morals, and their subtle differences, and how to incorporate lessons on ethics for secondary students.

The chapter differentiates the aspects of moral and ethical behaviour, followed by the emphasis of ethical education in primary and secondary schools. It gives examples and compares the ethical education initiatives in different parts of the world. The main context of this chapter focuses on the incorporation of classroom-based learning/activities into learning and teaching. It describes different scenarios to deliver ethics education as part of co-curricular activities in secondary schools. It also recommends some classroom-based activities in the form of debates or problem-based learning. Examples of ethical case studies representing different disciplines have also been provided to assist in the teaching of ethics in secondary schools and encourage ethical behaviour amongst school children. It is believed these examples will support the teachers in developing their own scenarios for classroom-based activities.

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Ethics education is emphasised and expected by many professions, including medicine, law, psychology, teaching, etc. It directly or indirectly determines how people make decisions and lead their lives; in a way '*ethics governs everything we do*!' (Young, 1993). In the nineteenth century, one of the prime functions of public education was to prepare a moral citizen. Interestingly, this is often influenced by societal and religious beliefs, and it might not have exactly provided an understanding of ethics, ethical behaviour, and its applications. As complexities of education grow with diversified primary and secondary subject specific focus, the need for moral or ethics education becomes less important in schools. In many countries, students are now being taught according to a national syllabus/curriculum. Due to the way the curricula are designed, ethical education has not been fully incorporated in secondary education in many countries. This creates problems or conflicts when the students enter higher education, where ethics and ethical behaviour are expected. This is particularly true for science related subject areas (such as medicine, psychology, behavioural sciences etc.) which expect situational ethical decision making. Would it then not be better to emphasise ethics education in the schools? Are there any ways to incorporate ethics in classroom-based learning? Can this be achieved by extra/co-curricular activities within the schools? This chapter aims to provide practical guidance for pre-service teacher trainees to understand the importance of student learning about ethics, morals, and their subtle differences. It will emphasise on how to incorporate in-classroom-based learning/ activities. It would then try to briefly explain the commonalities between "being a virtuous person" and the actions that would make a "righteous person". It also aims to provide some practical based and problem-based examples that can be used in teaching ethics to encourage ethical behaviour amongst school children. It is believed these examples would provide the teachers to develop their own scenarios for classroom-based activities.

Early Learning Years About Ethics and Values

Learning about ethics, and values begins at a very early stage of children's development – in their home, via their moral development, mainly influenced by their parents. This moral development is essential for their social and emotional growth. Young children begin to develop their own ideas of '*right* and *wrong*' mostly by trial and error. Children often learn from their parental instructions/responses towards their own actions. They are indirectly motivated to behave ethically or morally to avoid punishment or attain praise (Devaney et al., 2006). They also begin to sense

the importance of fairness and acceptable behavior. Later in primary school, their interactions with their peers, teachers, and the wider community influence their understanding of ethical or moral behaviour and clarify values to live in a society. As Knowles et al. (2012) put, some of these so-called values are personal preferences about 'what we feel is important' and may be influenced by a variety of rules. Since different community-based or cultural values are different and could be influenced by their own religious and cultural beliefs, their moral rules might differ from one another, or it might also differ from one situation to another. For example, there is a saying in English "*Find a penny, pick it up, all day long, you'll have good luck*" and many in the Western world consider this 'penny' as a gift. However, in some of the Eastern countries picking a coin from the floor is considered a sin as it is believed to be a cursed coin (because of the suffering that it might have caused to the person who lost that coin). In contrast if someone finds a large sum of money, they might be in an ethical dilemma between whether to hand it over to an authority, take steps to find the owner and return it or to keep it. Therefore, early learning of ethics, ethical behaviour and values are not always universal.

They might even be influenced by religious beliefs, parental/siblings and/or peer values and behaviours. This is where the term ethics/ethical value differs from the term's morals/moral values. Interestingly, many definitions of the term ethics are often coined with the term 'morals'. The Encyclopaedia Britannica (2010) links ethics to moral philosophy and defines it as *"the discipline concerned with what is morally good and bad and morally right and wrong"*. In fact, almost all the dictionaries define the term ethics by linking it to moral values or principles. Despite this, they are different in many ways – these are summarised in Table 10.1 [slightly modified from Sivasubramaniam et al., 2021; also see Surbhi (2015)].

Perhaps the closest matching between the terms morals and ethics can be drawn from Gulcan (2015) who defined morality as basic principles that guides us to live a "righteous" life, whilst ethics is the appropriate application of these principles via conscious reflection according to the situation. Considering this, the children's early learning most probably revolves around morals (than ethics) but this situational learning process does help them understand the basic differences between right and wrong in a societal setting.

Table 10.1 Important differences between morals and ethics

Morals	Ethics
Mos which means custom	*Ethikos* which means character
General principles set by a group	Response to a specific situation
Morals are the beliefs of the individual or group as to what is right or wrong	Ethics are the guiding principles, which help the individual or group to decide what is good or bad
Social and cultural norms	Legal and professional norms
Principles of right and wrong	Right and wrong conduct
Morals may differ from society to society and culture to culture	Ethics is generally uniform

Learning Ethics Education in Primary Schools

Primary education is the foundation of building up knowledge, skills, and students' practical applications via simple activities such as listening, peer activities and role-plays. They learn the basic moral skills such as listening to others, taking turns to speak, and giving reasons. In addition, primary school education focuses on the development of critical thinking and discussion-based skills. Although there are usually no defined curricula for ethics education in primary schools, many countries indirectly address it, by making the children understand the moral values such as respect, kindness, peace, and co-operation (Knowles & Lander, 2012). Their minds are reinforced by the awareness of right and wrong. As explained in the recent book by Struthers (2019), the awareness of human rights (including equality, diversity, social justice, and social inclusiveness) can also be incorporated in primary education.

In fact, different human rights organisations, such as Amnesty International, UK (2019); OHCHR (Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner) of the United Nations (2003), etc. have provided a variety of primary school education resources, and teacher lesson plans to create awareness of human rights as a part of the children's ethics/moral education (the links for these resources can be found in extra teaching resources in the Electronic Supplementary Material for this chapter). In the author's point of view, emerging issues such as homelessness, migrant rights, gender neutrality/LGBT rights, racism and ageism should also be incorporated in the primary ethics education. By organising tree planting events in primary schools, different countries indirectly influence the young children to appreciate and respect their environment. These activities can be followed up with classroom-based discussions about climate change. Through these primary teachers can make the children learn about different aspects (or perspectives) to decide and apply the course of action. Interestingly, many primary schools already enthuse the children with moral education, some of which are underpinned by the religious/faith related beliefs. An earlier survey-based study amongst primary teachers (Denisa Manea, 2014) to investigate the influence of religious education on enhancing moral consciousness, has reported that the majority of participants have shown a high level of confidence in using interdisciplinary approaches to religion and morality. However, the effectiveness of (whether the teachers and the students have meaningfully engaged in this) approach was recently questioned by many authors (Kavonius & Ubani, 2020; Gravel, 2019; Jafralie & Zaver, 2019).

A good example can be drawn from the Ethics and Religious Culture (ERC) programme of Quebec, Canada. This mandatory program was introduced to all schools (both primary and secondary) with the aim to provide a liberal approach to create a pluralistic society. However, recent studies conducted (stated above) show an ambiguity in this success in strengthening students' ethical behaviours. Likewise, in Australia, the New South Wales Primary Ethics programme incorporated secular ethics into curriculum and has been successful in many schools (Knight & Ladenson, 2015). This programme was offered as an alternative to religiously based moral

education and focussed on providing a systematic way to generate moral education amongst students. In summary, primary schools play a vital role in teaching moral and ethical values by forming the foundation for students to independently decide the right ethically (or morally) acceptable decisions in their day-to-day lives. Yet, much work is needed in the secondary schools to make the student understand the subject specific ethical principles, and their applications in situational decision making. This is especially true in a variety of scientific and non-scientific fields such as medicine, psychology, law, business.

Challenges of Ethics Education in Secondary Education

Ethics classes for secondary students should focus on the development of critical thinking, respectful discussion, reasoning (specific to subject areas) and the ability to make balanced decisions about ethical issues. In addition, science related subject areas are often challenged by the need to educate the students to make situational ethical decisions. Therefore, deliberately providing a learning experience to help students to grow ethically or motivate them to expand their ethical awareness is a difficult task. Before discussing any classroom-based activities, we need to understand the challenges of ethics education in secondary schools. As explained above, many countries have set up their own statutory secondary national curriculum, including programmes of study and attainment targets. For example, in England (UK), it is expected that all secondary level stages should provide classes for English, Maths and Science (Framework document for the national curriculum in England, 2014). In addition to these, the details of individual programmes within early secondary schools include the following subject areas:

- Art and design
- Citizenship
- Computing
- Design and technology
- Geography
- History
- Languages
- Music
- Physical education

These standardized curricula with predetermined delivery modes and assessment hinder the freedom of teachers to migrate from traditional subject delivery modes to a broader exploratory area such as practical ethics education. As can be seen, there are no expectations for ethics and/or ethical behaviour in the secondary schools. In fact, many authors in the past have highlighted this lack of focus on ethics education in the secondary schools (Bourke et al., 2017, 2020; Josefová, 2016; Gülcan, 2015; Berkowitz & Bier, 2014). Unfortunately, secondary education in many countries has

become a highly competitive environment for the students, not only to select their preferred field of study, but also to excel with 'grades' that are linked to their success (Farrell, 2001). Likewise, for many teachers, secondary education is a 'challenge' in their hand to prove their school's excellence. Interestingly, a survey-based study conducted in five different Western countries by Maxwell et al. (2016) have found no evidence for offering ethics courses to preservice teachers. In addition, the assessments within nationwide examinations such as General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE's and its Advanced level in the UK (or their equivalents elsewhere), make the students learn for 'knowledge reproduction' rather than 'theory application'. Overall, this subject specific teaching enhancement does not allow them to concentrate on anything other than that are included in the curriculum and therefore, there is little scope for personality development and/or character training.

The adolescents in secondary education can easily be positively influenced by dynamic classroom strategies, and school-wide innovative approaches to enhance their ethical/moral behaviours (Teke, 2021; Bourke et al., 2020; Armstrong, 2016). Nevertheless, there are successful examples of incorporating (and/or piloting) ethical education in some countries. The Irish government introduced a reform named as "Educate together" in 1984, which became an act in 1998 (Government of Ireland. Education Act, 1998; Lapsley & Narvaez, 2004). This act has helped in transforming the faith-based moral education into a skill and values-based training to produce ethically caring individuals in a culturally diverse society (McMackin & Dooley, 2018; Bourke et al., 2020). As stated in the above section, there are other examples of a few successful ethics education programmes but overall, classes focussing on ethics and ethical decision making are largely absent from schools' curricula. This would mean that students entering higher education have minimal (or no) ability to make ethical decisions (autonomy), to see problems from multiple viewpoints (analysis), or to consider the potential harm to others that a decision can cause (non-maleficent).

Considering the above, it is not irrational to expect that students enter higher education without any exposure or training on ethical decision making. Would it then be better to start priming students about the importance of ethics, ethical behaviour and subject specific decision making? If so, how could this be achieved in secondary education? Following section suggests some solutions to address these questions.

Incorporating/Promoting Ethics Education in Secondary Schools

Contemplating the current focus of secondary curricula and the way they are delivered in different parts of the world, the only practical way to implement/incorporate ethics in secondary education is to deliver it as co- or extra-curricular activities.

From the author's experience, there are two interrelated ways to incorporate ethics education in the schools. First, the teachers/pre-service teachers need to be enlightened and/or trained to engage in incorporating ethics education in secondary schools. They should be taught how to incorporate ethics education as co−/extra-curricular activities. Secondly, generating student interest in ethic education. In the author's point of view, ethics education based only on principles is perceived as boring by students; it may affect their intellect but not their emotions. In fact, there is little evidence that knowledge-based teaching of ethics translates into ethical behaviour (Silwa, 2017). It is also worth noting that the learning styles of students could directly influence ethical behaviour (Susilowati et al., 2021). Therefore, teachers need to employ practical application-based ethics education. Another issue is delivering ethics education as co/extra-curricular activities (Walters et al., 2017). There is limited time to do this, as regular classroom activities with subject specific underpinning take precedence in the secondary schools.

The MRC's (Medical Research Council, UK) ethics framework recognises ethics often as a complex phenomenon and accepts the fact that different kinds of methodologies may be needed to address ethical questions in different subject areas (MRC, 2014). Therefore, the approach at secondary schools should be application-based discussions to develop personal, organizational, and societal values, and explore potential situational ethical decision-making paradigm. The sessions should be designed to be attractive. They should examine personal, organizational, and societal values, and explore potential tensions between them.

Then the question is how to find time in secondary schools for ethics education? In some countries such as the UK, there is a subject called 'key skills' allocated as a part of a curriculum (www.Directgov.uk). This subject aims to encourage learners to develop, demonstrate, select, certain skills and appropriately apply them to their respective context. It may be possible for the teachers to use these sessions to enhance ethics education and its application. In fact, the author has been working with some of the secondary schools as a part of a university-school partnership programme to deliver some sessions to the sixth form students in the UK. Also, it is interesting to note that in many countries, there is allocated time for extracurricular activities, but most of it is being used for sports and physical education. Given the choice, the students may choose physical activities to classroom-based ethics education. In fact, UK-awarding bodies such as AQA (Assessment and Qualifications Alliance, England, Wales, and Northern Ireland) offer Extended Project Qualification (EPQ), an opportunity for the sixth form students to show their own initiative-based projects to stand out and prepare for higher education. It is also possible to design student-led projects to investigate ethical dilemmas in relation to their chosen/preferred subject areas for future education. This way, they may learn ethics via their own initiatives.

Classroom-Based Models for Ethics Education

As argued in the above section, ethics education is learnt by experience, rather than taught by introducing the concepts. The latter can be learnt through the former, but it may be difficult to gain the former by simply focussing on the latter. Therefore, the aims for classroom-based models for ethics education should be based on interactive discussions to enthuse the students to "experience" the learning as suggested in the Delors report (Burnett, 2008), namely '*learn to know, learn to do, learn to live together, and learn to be'*.

This section will focus on some useful scenario-based strategies (stories with ethical dilemmas that would enthuse them to be critical) that can be employed to design co−/extra-curricular activities for students to engage in ethics education. The aim of these strategies is to provide opportunities for secondary school students to indirectly learn about ethical principles via situational ethical reasoning. Since these are going to be delivered either as non-subject specific learning (i.e., as a part of 'key skills' development or EPQ) or as extra-curricular (or even optional) activities, care should be taken to deliver them (a) as attractive as possible, (b) as student led, peer assisted learning, and (c) with examples from different disciplines, but underpinned by teacher-led debriefing at the end to link them to ethical principles. The author named these activities as "*feedback-led, peer-assisted continuous learning enhancement*" (Sivasubramaniam, 2013, 2014). The important ethical principles to be covered in secondary education and different teaching scenarios to be used are summarised in Table 10.2 and Fig. 10.1 respectively (further information can also be found in Australian Human Rights Commission, 2016; Ćurko et al., 2015; Mathurn & Corley, 2014). Examples of the scenario-based approaches and their preferable ways to deliver them are listed as case studies given in the appendix. These are based on the author's own practice as a medical ethics educator and with his experience as an out-reach educator for Higher Education (HE) – School partnership programme.

The scenarios given in Table 10.2 are examples only, they can be adopted and/or transformed according to teachers'/students' needs. It is important for teachers to understand that delivering ethics education as co-/extra-curricular activities should not hinder their daily roles as teachers. Therefore, these activities should entirely be student-led to minimise any extra burden to the teachers. Some example case studies from the author's experience are given in the appendix. These examples are selected to underpin the main ethical principles that were deemed to be appropriate at secondary school level education. These examples are believed to scaffold and/or form the basis for expanding students' critical skills needed for ethical decision making in the HE and beyond.

Example case studies can either be (a) real life (past) ethical crisis, (b) written short stories, or (c) animated/cartoon/videos based ethical dilemmas. A recent study by Rayment et al. (2022) suggested video-based activities positively impact cognitive load and therefore would enhance student engagement. These suggested

activities are mainly suitable for higher secondary school children at the university-entry level classes (such as GCE advanced level, or its equivalent). The author believes the importance of encouraging the GCE advanced levels students to understand and most importantly own the fundamental ethical principles. These videos/case studies aim to focus on presenting ethical problems and therefore should not be more than 5 min in duration. Many such short videos are available in YouTube® [mostly with Generic CC BY 2.0 (free to use and adopt) or CC BY-NC (use only) for non-commercial purposes under creative common's licence].

Table 10.2 Scenarios to deliver ethics education as case studies in secondary schools[a]

Scenario	Delivery mode	Teacher input/debriefing
Debate-based enhancements	Students work in two groups Each group will study one short story (or real-life news/stories) related to a controversial issue in science After reading and discussing the issue each group will argue for and against the ethical decisions taken in that story and the differences that underlie the conflicting positions	Teacher takes the moderator role and provides points for each group to discuss and argue (S)He will also highlight the underlying principles behind those controversial storey or decisions made in that storey
Dispute-based peer assisted learning	Students work in small groups on a scenario, or a set of brief scenarios, that illustrate specific ethical issues associated with science. They will have a brief discussion for 10–15 min. They are then given a set of questions to respond	Teacher becomes the facilitator to generate a lively discussion. (S)He probes the students to answer the questions in accordance with ethics and values and go through their answers and discuss them
Simulated activities	Students engage in a simulation of some real-life scientific scenarios that requires them to make ethical decisions	Teacher to provide appropriate scenarios which require ethical decision making and provide correct answers at the end
Individual student journal (Capturing ethical controversies encountered by the students in the form of diary)	Each student is expected to write one (or more) ethical controversies that they come across for a month. Then students take turns to describe them to their peers, generating discussions	The teacher selects one student diary entry for each classroom-based discussion
Mock trials using scientific or other misconduct case studies	Students conduct a court trial based on their self-made ethical misconduct case. Individual students take roles such as defendant, prosecute ring & defending attorneys and witnesses. The rest of the class will be public viewers	Teacher acts as a moderator taking the role of the judge to make sure the students argue using the ethical principles and provide the final verdict with explanation

[a]Table contents are based on methodologies developed by the author as illustrated by Murphy (2004). See also Teke (2021) for the rationale and justifications for using student centred scenario-based delivery for increasing students' ethical awareness
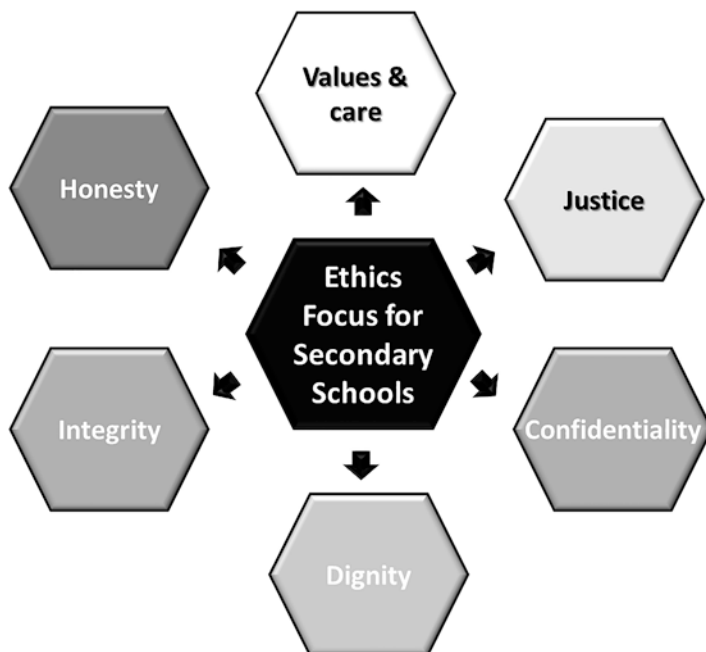
Fig. 10.1 Main Ethical principles to be covered in secondary education. (The figure shows the basic principles that need to be scaffolded for the university-entry level school students. (The figure is based on the information provided by Mathurn & Corley, 2014)

Concluding Remarks

Ethics has an important contribution in this rapidly transforming world. Professionals in STEM related subject areas need to take action that requires ethical decision making. Expecting to learn and apply situational ethical decision making only from HE is impossible. Therefore, ethics education should begin and build from schools. Although ethical education is started in the form of moral education in primary schools, it is not clear whether it is reinforced/scaffolded in secondary schools. This may be mainly due to the emphasis of subject based focus, giving less importance to skill-based decision making (such as ethical reasoning). This creates a gap in the students' understanding of ethical decision making. As a result, when the students enter higher education, they find it difficult to understand ethics, ethical behaviour and ethical decision making. Because of this, some students unwittingly carry out academic misconducts; whilst many students struggle to engage in 'situational ethical decision making' (which is expected in many professions).

Since teaching and learning ethical principles are perceived as tedious and uninteresting, this chapter has aimed to provide some engaging ways to teach ethics as co-/extra-curricular activities in the secondary schools with some example

activities. As many authors agree, the learning styles of students could directly influence ethical behaviour, it has targeted discussion or debate-based approaches to generate student interests and engagement.

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Chapter 11
Educational Integrity in Schools: A Framework for Young Learners

Irene Glendinning

Abstract Research to date about academic integrity has mainly focused on higher education. However, the question keeps surfacing about why many students have not acquired appropriate understanding and skills relating to ethical conduct and integrity by the age of 18, to adequately prepare them for their future career and on-going educational and work-related needs.

In the course of my own research, I have encountered many recent examples of corruption and malpractice involving school pupils, their teachers, parents and even head teachers, usually reported in the press and media (Glendinning et al., 2019; Glendinning, 2022). Based on my experience, most of the cheating behaviour involving school students concerns poor adult role models or misguided assistance into educational misconduct led by the adults responsible for directing their "moral compass".

The body of evidence amassed to date convinces me that there is an urgent need to investigate ways of gently introducing concepts and values related to ethics, integrity, information literacy and honesty, starting in early years education, then gradually developing the associated knowledge and skills throughout secondary education. There is also the need to educate the adults upon whom young people depend for advice.

This chapter builds on my earlier research on the same topic (Glendinning, 2022), combined with evidence from teacher education and educational practices in different countries (Sage, 2001; IIEP, 2015). I propose how the subject of integrity could be gradually introduced throughout pre-university education, culminating in transition to tertiary education or working life.

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A range of challenges and obstacles must be overcome for this to be a viable proposition. Convincing decision-makers that there will be genuine benefits from adding this content to the school curriculum is crucial. Although approaches and challenges will vary in different educational settings, my proposal includes themes that are globally applicable and relevant.

Keywords Educational integrity · Information literacy · Secondary education · Teacher training · Early years education · Corruption · Plagiarism

Introduction

In common with most other research into educational integrity and the converse (plagiarism, academic misconduct, fraud, and corruption), my own research has focused on higher education (HE). Focusing research on HE can be justified on many grounds, including: the quality and standards underpinning the degrees delivered by HE providers depend on academic integrity and ethical values; students studying at higher education level and academic researchers can be expected to appreciate the need for ethical conduct and integrity in their academic work; failure to maintain acceptable standards of integrity in HE leads to degradation of qualifications; lack of public trust arises if graduates are found to lack the necessary knowledge and skills; and, not least, security and safety in the workplace relies on maintaining professional standards, which are largely underpinned by qualifications delivered by HE providers. If higher education providers fall short of the expected and required quality and standards, then there are serious implications for individuals and society as a whole.

Despite these compelling arguments, I am becoming increasingly convinced that education on academic integrity needs to begin much earlier. Research findings demonstrate a disconnect between skills in academic writing, source use and referencing expected of new HE students and the skills acquired from their previous education (Howard, 1999; Hayes & Introna, 2005; Borg, 2009). This disparity can be especially acute when preparing incoming international students for study or research, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels (Davis, 2011).

Given the globalised nature of HE and differences in perceptions about academic conduct and ethical values in different parts of the world, there will always be a need for education and training for incoming HE students about academic integrity, research ethics and related topics. Students need time to absorb potentially new concepts and expectations and to develop related skills.

In every survey I have conducted about academic integrity, in various parts of the world, participants (HE students, teachers, managers) have recommended that academic integrity is taught earlier, to prepare student for academic life when they enter HE (Glendinning, 2016; Foltýnek et al., 2017; Glendinning et al., 2019, 2022).

In every research project report to date we recommended teaching about academic integrity no later than secondary school level. In this chapter I will explore ways this can be achieved.

Pre-University Education on Educational Integrity and Related Skills

I endeavour to answer these questions during this chapter:

- In what ways would teaching integrity from an early age benefit schools, children, families and society in general?
- What would integrity mean in the educational sphere of a child and how should their understanding, skills and knowledge develop as they mature?
- What role do primary and secondary schools have in educating pupils about integrity?
- What additional resources are needed to include integrity in school curricula for children ages five to 18?

In interpreting these questions there could be an assumption that "integrity" is a well-defined subject that could be encapsulated and taught. There is also an implied presumption that integrity is not already included in some form in school curricula. I will address both concerns in the forthcoming discussion.

Who will benefit from introducing educational integrity and related skills earlier in education? The simple answer is that there are benefits for everyone, but it does depend how it is introduced and whether it is sustained throughout the learning journey. Schools should see an improvement in behaviour and overall attainment of pupils. Teachers may increase their focus on the value of learning, improve their ability to reason with pupils about motivational and personal aspects of their education and learning. Less time should be needed for disciplinary matters and more time for learning. Pupils should benefit in terms of enabling their potential for enhanced learning, access to knowledge, communication skills with teachers and other pupils. If parents and families are involved in the transformation, they should be aware of their child taking responsibility for their learning and communicating more effectively about their schoolwork and future plans, perhaps more engagement with learning and homework. In the longer term, higher and further education providers, industry and commerce, civil society will benefit from having more adults who appreciate the need for honesty and integrity, with enhanced skills in information literacy. Although not everyone will be convinced, those who do engage are more likely to behave ethically in public and private and challenge inappropriate behaviour of others.

From the perspective of children starting their education, at the very basic level integrity is about honesty, owning up to mistakes, and facing the consequences, which can be a tough call, requiring considerable courage for a 5-year-old child. It is also about ownership, rights and responsibilities, being a good person, sharing and caring, showing respect for other children, teachers and parents. In an increasingly information-rich world, skills in how to access, evaluate and apply information have never been more important. If we apply all these concepts to early years education, the child needs to be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning from the start and value their own achievements and acknowledge, give thanks to others for help they receive.

It could be argued that teaching about these concepts is the role of parents and family. Clearly parents have an important part to play in developing children's values and conduct, but these matters are also fundamental to learning. To ensure every child benefits, these topics need to be seamlessly embedded as part of the school curriculum. Related concepts are already included in the school curriculum in some schools, perhaps as part of personal development, citizenship, religious or moral education, but these topics and skills need to be included in all schools. It is essential that the connection to education and personal learning and achievement is emphasised to ensure the child begins their journey towards behaving and learning with integrity. In addition, the child must become aware of the significance of integrity to their life and education, encompassing what they are learning and how they learn and develop. Above all, developing skills about integrity should be a pleasurable pursuit, it must not become routine dogma or rote learning exercises, a tick-box on the learning plan, a set of concepts and terms for children to memorise and recite.

What Should Be Included in Education About Integrity?

We are all surrounded by and continually bombarded with information. It has never been easier to access answers to difficult questions or to find fascinating facts and explore beautiful artefacts, such as videos, artworks, and music. However, not all the information we access is equally valuable and useful, there is a lot of misleading and downright "fake news" around. Information intelligence is a key part of the basic toolset for educational integrity, skills associated with searching, locating, evaluating, and discriminating sources of information. All young people need to learn to question whether something is true, then how to distinguish between valid and invalid information, as early in their life as possible.

Each child brings to school different family customs and learned experiences from the home, some good and some less desirable. Children from societies and communities where fraud and corruption are normalised are likely to learn inappropriate or unethical behaviour from an early age by observing how adults interact and conduct their day-to-day transactions. When learning about integrity, if any of the "baggage" brought from home to school is challenged, by the teacher or the child, there may be direct conflict with beliefs and values held by parents, and

society in general. To avoid such problems, it is essential to remain mindful of the local context when planning the introduction of concepts relating to integrity.

Individual teachers charged with inculcation of a culture of integrity in their classroom, need adequate preparation for this task, personal conviction that it is a worthwhile, long-term process. Teachers also need strong backing from the school leadership and external quality monitoring bodies. The teacher must serve as a role model, with exemplary conduct, which is why introducing teacher codes of conduct is important (IIEP, 2015).

I have tried unsuccessfully to initiate dialogue on this subject with several local contacts from secondary schools. Although there is usually acceptance that something needs to be done about plagiarism and other forms of cheating in UK schools, this is not normally seen as a high priority issue by school heads and senior staff. However, the COVID-19 pandemic changed things somewhat, with home-schooling, much less direct contact between pupils and teachers, more trust placed on secondary students and their parents and carers to be honest and ethical when undertaking on-line assessments.

In England, because on-line exams could not be trusted as reliable measures of learning and achievement, there was a move away from A-level examinations and the students were assessed on their teachers' "predicted grades" in 2020 and 2021. This decision led to unprecedented grade inflation in both years, with 44.8% of UK candidates being awarded the top grades (A* or A) in August 2021, up from 38.5% the previous year, which itself was a step change from the pre-Covid-19 exam results in summer 2019 when only 25.5% of candidates achieved the top grades (Coughlan et al., 2021; JCQ, n.d.). The A-level grade inflation was predictable, because, unlike independent external markers for examination scripts, the teachers had serious conflicts of interest, with obligations to the school, parents and pupils, to do the best for the pupils' future careers and the school's reputation. Why would they assign a lower mark than necessary and possibly jeopardise their own standing? Suggestions have been made that, although this unusual form of assessment advantaged many pupils, it could have led to poorer outcomes for already disadvantaged pupils (Major, 2021).

Although many teachers I know have well-established skills in academic writing and use of sources, I found that a significant minority of serving secondary school teachers that I mentored and evaluated did not have a good grasp of concepts such as copyright, how to use academic sources or how to reference them. Before academic integrity and related skills could be introduced to secondary education, or earlier, there would need to be a programme of guidance and support for teachers on how to develop their own skills as well as pupils' skills. In addition, time must be allocated within an already packed curriculum to deliver – teach and assess – the necessary information.

Of course, any transformation carries certain costs and risks. How much curriculum time can be found to sustain the delivery of this new subject? What topics will be squeezed out to make space? How will new and existing teachers be equipped to teach something new? How will those pupils who are already less engaged, for various reasons, react to what they may perceive as yet more pointless information?

Care must be taken not to overwhelm young people with information for which they have no use or see as irrelevant, so timing and context are both important.

Literature on Educational Integrity Pre-University

Although I would like to strike a balance between negative and positive aspects of educational integrity as revealed in the literature, unfortunately, when focusing on pre-university education, evidence about breaches to integrity by far outweighs the evidence on positive aspects relating to academic integrity. I will refer to academic sources where possible, but much of the evidence about academic integrity breaches comes from the media and investigative journalism. A natural question to ask at this point is how much cheating happens involving school pupils? I will draw on a few examples from my earlier research and publications to illustrate the key points (Glendinning et al., 2019; Glendinning, 2022).

All countries around the world face corruption and malpractice that affects the education of young children. Some countries are often associated with endemic corruption and others less so. I will use data from Transparency International's 2020 Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) to illustrate the local context of each example (TI, n.d.). However, irrespective of where in the world they happen, almost every case of cheating that I have come across by a pre-18 pupil/student involved a responsible adult, usually a parent, teacher or educational agent, who supported, facilitated, encouraged or condoned the action of the pupil or student.

The most bizarre story I have come across to date, is about a headteacher in Burundi found sitting a public examination, impersonating one of his young pupils, dressed in school uniform (BBC World News, 2018). This is a clear example of teacher-facilitated examination cheating in a country that is known to be steeped in corruption (scoring only 19% and ranking 165/180 in Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) 2020).

According to two academics in Nigeria "Examination malpractice is noted as fraud within the school system, which occurs right from primary, secondary to tertiary level of education in Nigeria" (Amadi & Opuiyo, 2018, p. 13) (Nigeria scored 25% in the 2020 CPI and was ranked 149/180 by TI). Examination fraud does appear to be common in countries where assessment is mainly by examination, particularly focusing on research about Romania, Bulgaria, Poland, France, Belgium (Glendinning, 2013), despite some rigorous countermeasures to both detect and deter cheating.

In 2018 a BBC investigation found that YouTube was openly endorsing Ukraine-based essay mill EduBirdie, with over 1400 videos advertising their services, with global targeting of, not just university students, but especially aimed at school pupils (Jeffreys & Main, 2018). Hundreds of thousands of young followers from all over the world were exposed to the messages in these videos. As a result of the investigation, many of the videos were removed, but this remains a vast and dynamic public space.

An article in the *Times Educational Supplement* (TES) in October 2021, a publication aimed at school leaders and teachers, reported that legislation on contract cheating was included in the Skills and Post-16 Education Bill, which will become law in England in 2022 (Creasey, 2021). The article explores so-called homework help web sites and exposes evidence that these companies are increasingly targeting school aged children, with an example of a £11 (GBP) annual subscription fee providing access to real-time support and categorised freely available educational materials. The article also touches on the problem of young people finding out about different ways of cheating when at school, not being told this is wrong, then taking their "bad habits" with them when they progress to university or the workplace. The secondary school teachers interviewed for the TES article explained how they recognise and deal with cut-and-paste plagiarism, but they were less aware of more serious threats presented by ghost-writing, essay mills and homework sites (Creasey, 2021).

Many examples of cheating by pre-university students from different countries concern HE admissions fraud. This could involve bribery to overlook or fake entry qualifications, sometimes aided and abetted by family, recruitment agents, or both. A long-standing admissions disparity exists in the USA, allowing preferential entry to prestigious universities through the award of sports scholarships, with weak academic qualifications sometimes ignored (Glendinning et al., 2019, p. 70). The sports scholarship loophole was taken several steps further in the "varsity blues" scandals (Downes, 2017, pp. 11–12) when celebrities and many other people paid bribes to agents to falsify sporting achievements of their children in return for scholarships. Many Ivy League universities routinely favour admission by children of alumni and rich donors (Downes, 2017) over better qualified applicants with no previous connection to the institution, which I would certainly classify as a form of corruption. (TI ranks USA 25/180 with a CPI score of 67%).

Agent-led admissions fraud, including employing imposters to sit English Language tests, featured in media reports in Australia (ABC, 2015; Besser & Cronau, 2015) and UK (Watson, 2017), based on investigative journalism (UK and Australia are both ranked joint 11/180 by TI with CPI score of 77%). A case of fraud, nepotism and bribery in admission surfaced in Japan, when the Director General from the Ministry of Education arranged for his son to be fast-tracked into a prestigious medical school, in return for a government subsidy for the University (Kakuchi, 2018). This exposure led to the Director's resignation. (Japan is ranked 19/180 by TI, with a CPI score of 74%).

Success or failure in the GaoKao national university entrance examination in China can be life-changing for young applicants and their families. There are many accounts of cheating to gain an advantage, for example, involving parents who complained when technology was used to prevent communications with candidates during the exam, saying that they had a right to help their children cheat (Telegraph, 2013). Another newspaper article exposed an impersonator who found a way to hijack another student's successful GaoKao result by stealing their profile, which he used for admission and studied at university himself (Liu, 2020) (China is ranked 78/180 by TI with CPI score of 42%).

These few examples, selected from many possible accounts, demonstrate that systematic serious forms of cheating in pre-university education, often corruption-based, are ubiquitous. If young people do not master the educational fundamentals, but instead rely on cheating to get by, then there is the potential for them to continue to use outside help as their education progresses, missing out on essential education and skills and also unfairly depriving other more worthy students of a university education.

After exploring literature on approaches to educational integrity prior to HE I reached the conclusion that research on this topic is uncommon. The work by the USA-based International Center for Academic integrity (ICAI) transcends age-related boundaries. However, even ICAI focuses mainly on higher education students in communications and publications. What ICAI strongly advocates, and some US secondary schools may have in their favour, is the adoption of student honour pledges or honour codes that are often student-led initiatives and designed to encourage a culture of honesty and integrity. Sadly, again, almost all the literature on this topic focuses on what is happening in HE (McCabe, 2015; Rettinger, 2018).

A rich source of literature that is pertinent to this discussion concerns child development theories and different approaches to education, from early years to secondary. Many researchers specialising in this field favour the concept of "funds of knowledge", introduced by Vygotsky (1978) and since developed by many others. If it is acknowledged that young learners bring a range of experiences from their home environment that they draw upon to construct meaning and navigate their time spent in school, this can provide valuable learning opportunities for teachers to build on (Chesworth, 2016). The same author also emphasises the importance of input from parents and understanding how the culture in the home affects early years development. These perspectives carry particular resonance when considering how to introduce concepts related to integrity to young learners.

One organisation that focuses on the global needs of education at all levels is the International Institute for Educational Planning, which is part of the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (IIEP/UNESCO). Their Platform for Ethics and Corruption in Education (ETICO, n.d.) contains a range of relevant materials and reports from investigations about fighting corruption in education and improving integrity, standards and quality in schools and universities. They regularly run training for different stakeholders, often to promote new resources and guidance. One of their most useful resources is a code of conduct for teachers, and associated toolkit, that sets out how national governments can develop and implement teacher codes, with examples of codes from several countries (IIEP, 2015).

Developing a Model for Pre-University Educational Integrity

This chapter is exploring ways to introduce the values and concepts of educational integrity in early education and to continue to develop related knowledge and skills throughout the pre-university learning journey. As mentioned earlier, in my view,

the classroom approach and school context are key components in the successful delivery of this topic.

The most powerful way to introduce educational integrity into schools would be an endorsement, or better still a requirement, from the education department or national regulator, quality body for standards in schools. This would need to be backed with guidance and support for schools on how to deliver. However, even in the absence of an overarching national mandate, individual schools may opt to take the initiative to introduce these important concepts.

In the school context, it would be a difficult prospect for individual teachers to try to introduce integrity without strong support from school governors, the leadership and senior team, the parent-teacher association. They must all be convinced that introducing this subject is worthwhile and important and that the steps taken to implement this are both necessary and sufficient. A whole school approach is by far the most preferable way to introduce integrity, otherwise there is no way for the skills to be developed over time. Teachers and parents should be given guidance to ensure they are clear about the impending changes to the curriculum and how these will impact on their role. Parents especially may have to face novel and sometimes difficult questions from their children and know how to respond. It would help if parents reinforced the same concepts in the home that have been introduced and discussed in class. Therefore, regular communication with parents and families is important.

Use of different pedagogical approaches can make a huge difference to how learners perceive education and engage with their learning. As the second child and eldest girl of eight children, mother of two, grandmother of four, with countless nephews and nieces, I continue to derive great enjoyment from watching children learn through experiencing life, playing games and reading, and grasping new concepts. My own experience of teaching at secondary level, further education and adult education, many years ago, leads me to favour a lively and interactive, often rather noisy classroom. Much later in my career in HE, applying and evaluating activity-led learning (ALL), a form of problem and project-based learning, for undergraduate students and taught master's programmes, convinced me that active learning methods involving student participation produce far superior learning outcomes for every student, when compared to passive learning methods (Glendinning & Michalska, 2012).

I recently came across the "Communication Opportunity Group Scheme" (COGS), an interesting experimental approach to teaching that was trialled at both primary and secondary levels (Sage, 2001), with very positive results. This approach acknowledges how children use both verbal and non-verbal information to construct meaning within specific contexts. According to Sage (2001), communication involves "organising intonation, facial expressions, gestures and words involving symbols, narrative thinking and structure". She argues that meaning and learning can be greatly enriched for children if context and non-verbal communication methods are factored in (Sage, 2001, p. 1). For children the act of grasping a situation and formulating a response, (answer, question or opinion), is a major challenge that takes more effort than reading, writing or speaking. COGS is about developing skills in perception and understanding both verbal and non-verbal clues. A COGS

learning approach encourages dialogue with and between students, where conversation and use of multi-way, multi-medium communication is seen as central to the learning process. It provides students with confidence to take the lead and create their own initiatives, support the learning of other children, but not be afraid to fail.

In developing COGS, Sage observed and participated in primary school classes in many countries, including experiences of use of similar approaches in Japan, Italy and Cuba. The technique was trialled in UK schools involving 2000 primary and 2000 secondary school pupils, with great success, whether implemented intensively over 10 h or spread over several weeks. Feedback from these pupils included these statements: "talking makes you better at school"; "when you talk ideas come and become real"; "COGS helps me do more work on my own" (Sage, 2010, p. 427). Teachers and parents involved in the research were also very positive about the improvement in behaviour, engagement and interest in learning of the pupils (Sage, 2001, 2010). The feedback from COGS and my own experience of the success of active learning approaches, leads me to suggest that the pedagogic approach adopted for education about difficult concepts like integrity, and developing related skills, is key to successful delivery.

The teacher development process is important. Teachers need to be prepared and confident in the related subject matter and guided on how best to introduce it, in what contexts would it work best, how fast to take it and how to judge whether children/pupils are understanding or confused. In-service training is essential to help inspire and guide teachers on how the relevant skills and concepts can be developed. In addition, adaptations to initial teacher training programmes are required. By adding concepts relating to academic integrity to teacher training curricula, they become part of the vocabulary and skillset of a large number of graduates, who are likely to become highly influential members of civil society.

Teachers and school leaders need to appreciate both the positive and negative sides of integrity. The school should have clear, transparent but proportionate procedures for how to handle breaches to integrity that may arise involving teachers, parents, or children. The teacher code of conduct should underpin the training and, with due care, elements of this could be extended to include guidance for parents. The requirements stated within a code of conduct should not come as any surprise to an ethical teacher or parent. The school needs to set out what additional topics to include in the curriculum, where these can be embedded, in practical terms, within the existing subjects, and how and when these topics can be introduced and later developed.

Introducing Educational Integrity to Young Learners, Version 1.0

Appendix 1 contains a model showing my initial ideas for what content could be added to gradually introduce the concepts of integrity to young learners. The model is divided into four educational stages (ages five to eight, nine to 12, 13 to 15, and over 16). Each stage has several themes, each containing a set of intended learning

outcomes (ILOs) that learners should be encouraged to achieve by the end of that stage of their education. I have not at this stage attempted to elaborate in what context these topics could be delivered or how an individual learner's achievement could be measured and assessed. I have assigned a version number 1.0 because it is anticipated that this model will evolve over time with input from other people and potentially after experience of implementation.

The three themes I have proposed for primary school children, ages five to eight, are: Personal values relating to integrity and learning, Conversational skills and Respecting other people. The overarching purpose of the ILOs I have listed is to gently introduce concepts of truth, honesty, fairness, respect, responsibility and courtesy (ICAI, n.d.) and to try to instil a set of expectations about the children's behaviour, both inside and outside the classroom. It is likely that these or related topics are already included informally in most schools, although they may not always be formally recorded at present. Finding ways to acknowledge, measure and reward a child's achievements under these themes will help to reinforce the importance of the skills and knowledge gained. Adding these themes and ILOs to formal curricula will help to raise awareness about these topics, to both teachers and parents.

By the age of nine, most children have developed skills in reading, writing and communication, which opens up the potential for introducing new themes and more advanced ILOs. For ages nine to 12 I have retained the first theme, Personal values related to integrity and learning, but included four new themes: Information literacy, Teamwork, Ethics and morality and Reflection and communication. The staging of ILOs for each of the themes must reflect the capacity of the child for grasping increasingly difficult concepts. For example, it is anticipated that the average 12-year-old child should be able to understand the concept of integrity, at least in terms of fairness, honesty and responsibility, and grasp the implications of integrity on their learning, sharing, getting help and claiming credit for achievements. Information literacy concerns searching for and finding information, but also concerns awareness that not all information they find can be trusted, particularly material found on-line or accessed through social media. Teamwork is included because sharing behaviours often progress into inappropriate collusion or free-loading, dependency on the strongest team member to do the lion's share of the work. Ethics and morality may sound rather advanced for this age group, but what is advocated here is a gentle introduction to some of life's fascinating complexities that will be developed later.

The five themes introduced for ages nine to 12 provide the basis for the remaining two stages, with minor adaptations. From age 13 the theme of Writing skills has been added and Teamwork is extended to include leadership. The existing ILOs develop to reflect the increasing maturity of the learners and their capacity to understand and take responsibility in more complex situations. The ILOs for Writing skills introduce the reasons for referring to sources of information created or authored by other people within their own writing and how to distinguish the work of others from their own writing. For younger learners it would be appropriate to require a simple form of acknowledgement, such as an in-text citation linking to

author name and URL, rather than a full-blown reference, but by the age of 16 more able learners should appreciate why references are needed and, with support from teachers or software, begin to add formal references to their work. Related ILOs under other themes include understanding about plagiarism and starting to develop skills in discriminating between sources that are relevant and accurate from uncorroborated statements, speculation, and opinion.

Above the age of 16, most students should be mature and skilled enough to cope with academic and scientific concepts, including learning how to construct and use standard references, for example using APA referencing style within their own writing. Their writing, reading and information literacy skills should increasingly demonstrate good academic practice that prepares them in the transition to further study or the workplace. Young adults should have the capacity to appreciate the need to follow ethical standards when conducting any form of research and the school or college should have in place the infrastructure to support this requirement. Students should demonstrate respect for others, particularly in social and digital spaces and teamworking. They must take responsibility for their own learning and understand what is meant by academic and research misconduct. By this stage they must know how to conduct their learning and assessment with integrity.

Recommendations

I have made the case that the acquisition of knowledge and skills about integrity applies at all stages of education, but consideration is needed on how to introduce these concepts. It is recommended that a mandate is issued by the national or regional education department or quality assurance body, setting out requirements for schools, with guidance on how to implement, adapting the themes and ILOS set out in Appendix 1 for the local context.

A school can only control its own implementation, but they should consider communicating with associated feeder and destination schools to create some synergy and synchronisation about how integrity is delivered. One approach would be to introduce at the lowest level and allow that cohort to pioneer the implementation throughout their learning journey, but that would mean lost opportunities for older pupils and considerable delays in improving integrity. To maximise the impact, the recommendation is to introduce relevant content at every level of education simultaneously.

Managing the required changes is an important consideration at the early planning stage. Piloting in a small number of classes by more experienced and confident teachers would be a good way to start. After evaluating the results of the pilot and learning any lessons, a more general roll-out, with on-going monitoring, should produce a stable trajectory for introducing the changes. The potential for success will vary depending on class sizes and teacher commitment and expertise. The national and local social culture and context will be a huge influence on how acceptable this content is perceived to be, by all stakeholders.

The current model does not specify how the knowledge and skills on integrity could be assessed and recorded, because this will depend on local requirements and systems. However, these are important elements to establish before implementation. The ILOs in the model are cumulative, therefore at each stage any deficits in knowledge and skills need to be absorbed and factored into future delivery and assessment methods.

Conclusions

It is clear from the research and examples presented that the threats to learning from corruption, fraud, plagiarism, essay mills, and other types of inappropriate and dishonest actions, don't just apply to tertiary education. Therefore, measures to counter these threats should start in early education. Some of the themes and ILOs identified in Appendix 1 may already be included in national and local curricula in different countries and institutions, but the experiences of tutors in higher education settings show that many students are arriving unprepared for their HE experience in terms of understanding expectations about academic integrity. This tells us that much more should be done to educate young people about these dangers.

There will always be the need for HE providers to identify gaps in understanding about integrity, ethics, and related subjects of newly arrived students and to continue to develop the knowledge and skills in these areas of all students. However, everyone will benefit, except perhaps the fraudsters, by ensuring that young learners are better prepared for the real-world and can maximise the available opportunities for learning throughout their student journey. This model is very much a first attempt and a personal take on how pre-university education could be enhanced. The next stage is to further refine and operationalise these ideas.

Appendix 1: Introducing Educational Integrity to Young Learners, Version 1.0

Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Ages five to eight	Personal values related to integrity and learning	Taking personal responsibility; Honesty, fairness; Understanding consequences of not being truthful
Ages five to eight	Conversational skills	Gaining meaning from non-verbal clues in learning and conversation; Listening skills, taking turns to speak; Developing confidence to express own views and ideas; Learning when to speak and when to remain quiet or silent;

Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Ages five to eight	Respecting other people	Sharing property and ownership, taking turns; Respecting views of others; Helping and supporting other children in their learning and receiving help from other children; Giving credit and thanking others for help, verbally;
Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Ages nine to 12	Personal values related to integrity and learning	Introducing the concept of integrity in terms of fairness, honesty, responsibility, and how that relates to their learning and claiming credit for achievement; Respecting privacy and ownership, asking for and giving permission, the right to refuse; Having the courage to admit to mistakes, apologise when needed and learn lessons;
Ages nine to 12	Information literacy	Learning about ways of accessing information and ownership: Finding out about truth and lies, accuracy and reliability of information; Learning how to acknowledge help and support received, both verbally and in writing;
Ages nine to 12	Teamwork	Contributes as part of a team to complete tasks, sharing responsibility and respecting and valuing input from other people;
Ages nine to 12	Ethics and morality	Understands that there may be no easy answers to certain questions; Creativity, appropriately including ideas and objects belonging to other people; Valuing equality and diversity.
Ages nine to 12	Reflection and communication	Reflects, articulates, presents ideas and answers questions relating to learning and achievement;
Ages 13 to 16	Personal values related to integrity and learning	Takes responsibility for their own work, achievements and failures; Demonstrates confidence and responsibility when working and learning independently and individually; Shows courtesy and respect for others; Understands how integrity relates to personal behaviour and values, applying to learning and development both inside and outside school;
Ages 13 to 16	Information literacy	Introduction to intellectual property rights and copyright for written work, photographs, creative and artistic work, music; Starting to develop skills for locating, accessing and evaluating sources of material for value, relevance, accuracy and quality; Appreciates why sources of information are important for learning and creating new knowledge;

(continued)

Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Ages 13 to 16	Writing skills	Introduction to how, why and when to use materials from other sources to enhance one's own writing; Knows why quotation marks must be used when directly copying text from other sources; Knows how to add simple acknowledgments to one's own written work relating to sources referred to; Learning how to structure, review and edit written work;
Ages 13 to 16	Teamwork and leadership	Contributes to teamwork and demonstrates skills in cooperation, listening and supporting others; Understands the need for team leadership and the difference between the roles of leader and team-worker;
Ages 13 to 16	Ethics and morality	Introduction to ethical problems in specific contexts and related decision-making methods; Understands what is meant by plagiarism and why it is wrong; Knows how to avoid plagiarism;
Ages 13 to 16	Reflection and communication	Confidently can present verbally and in writing to a specific audience about specific activities, giving a reflective account of positive and negative achievements and lessons learned;
Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Age 16 and older	Personal values related to integrity and learning	Appreciates the value of their own learning and the need to continue to develop skills and knowledge; Behaves with integrity inside and outside school and encourages others to follow their example; Has the courage to challenge unethical conduct by other students;
Age 16 and older	Information literacy and reading skills	Knows how to search for and access information stored in a range of different formats (printed, published, unpublished, digital: writing, music, graphics, etc); Understands legal aspects of copyright and intellectual property rights and takes care not to infringe these rights; Learning how to identify reliable sources of information and distinguish from questionable sources; Appreciates why references are valuable in published work;
Age 16 and older	Writing skills	Understands how to construct and present a reference to written sources, web-based materials and in other media; Understands how to construct in-text citations for different types of text use; Understands the need to justify claims made in their own writing by referring to reliable sources; Learning how to build a logical argument in their own work by reference to reliable sources of information that either support or contradict their own ideas; Understands that language and structure will differ when addressing different audiences; Effectively applies a range of vocabulary relating to integrity;

Stage	Theme	Intended learning outcomes
Age 16 and older	Teamwork and leadership	Demonstrates integrity and ethical awareness in both teamworking and leadership roles; Effectively contributes to the successful completion of at least one substantial team project;
Age 16 and older	Ethics and morality	Is able to comprehend, listen to and present arguments for and against real examples of ethical dilemmas; Is able to respect the perspectives and empathise with the views of diverse people about decisions involving aspects of ethical and moral judgement; Starting to gain an appreciation of how to conduct research with integrity;
Age 16 and older	Reflection and communication	Is able to objectively reflect on, evaluate and communicate to others about their own individual activities and achievements; Able to objectively reflect on, evaluate and communicate to others about activities and achievements of themselves and other students, undertaken as part of group work.

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