
[All ETDs from UAB](#)

[UAB Theses & Dissertations](#)

2012

Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link Between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State

Jennifer L. Greer
University of Alabama at Birmingham

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.library.uab.edu/etd-collection>

Recommended Citation

Greer, Jennifer L., "Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link Between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State" (2012). *All ETDs from UAB*. 1793.
<https://digitalcommons.library.uab.edu/etd-collection/1793>

This content has been accepted for inclusion by an authorized administrator of the UAB Digital Commons, and is provided as a free open access item. All inquiries regarding this item or the UAB Digital Commons should be directed to the [UAB Libraries Office of Scholarly Communication](#).

BECOMING SCHOLARS: EXAMINING THE LINK BETWEEN
MORAL PROBLEM-SOLVING AND ACADEMIC AUTHORSHIP PRACTICES
IN FUTURE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN ONE SOUTHERN STATE

by

JENNIFER L. GREER

LINDA SEARBY, CO-CHAIR

GARY PETERS, CO-CHAIR

JULIA AUSTIN

JEFFREY ENGLER

MARCIA O'NEAL

STEPHEN THOMA

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the graduate faculty of The University of Alabama at Birmingham,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA

2012

Copyright by
Jennifer L. Greer
2012

BECOMING SCHOLARS: EXAMINING THE LINK BETWEEN
MORAL PROBLEM-SOLVING AND ACADEMIC AUTHORSHIP PRACTICES
IN FUTURE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN ONE SOUTHERN STATE

JENNIFER L. GREER

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

ABSTRACT

The public expects its educational leaders – from instructional leaders and principals to college administrators and deans – to be moral exemplars. Nowhere is moral behavior more central to the central mission of teaching and learning than in the realm of academic integrity, where decisions are made daily about grading, testing, promotion, admissions, placement, and awards. Moral problem solving, one essential and teachable component of moral behavior, has been studied in teachers and, to a lesser extent, principals. Yet little empirical research has been conducted on moral problem solving, or reasoning, among educational leadership graduate students in training for positions of responsibility. In particular, no studies have addressed this population’s moral reasoning in relation to their academic authorship practices while they are writing for high stakes and becoming scholars. The purpose of this doctoral research was to explain the relationship between moral problem solving and academic authorship practices for educational leadership/administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in five advanced schools in one Southern state. Using a correlational, explanatory design, the researcher administered an online questionnaire that included two established measures, the Defining Issues Test (DIT)-2 and the Academic Practices Survey (APS), along with an

exploratory authorship/leadership dilemma and writing histories to assess master's and doctoral students. Of 539 students contacted for the census study, 113 respondents, or 21%, were considered a core group of completers for analysis. Results showed that these EDL/EDA students scored significantly lower on advanced, or postconventional, moral thinking, than those in a 2005-2009 national norm for graduate students across the disciplines. Additionally, the educators' moral problem-solving scores were significantly correlated with their self-reported behavior on a plagiarism subscale, but not a cheating subscale. Notably, EDL/EDA students reported relatively low levels of authorship activity and significantly lower levels of confidence in their summarizing skills than in their academic reading skills. Given prior research showing lower-than-average scores for moral reasoning among educators as well as proven gains from professional ethics and academic writing instruction, this study has multiple implications for higher education faculty and administrators who seek to train graduate students to become exemplary educational leaders and scholars.

Keywords: moral reasoning, educational leadership graduate students, DIT-2, academic integrity, plagiarism and cheating, academic writing

DECICATION

To Robert, my inspiration

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

If it takes a village to raise a child, then it takes a community of scholars and people who believe in the importance of new scholarship to bring dissertation research to life. Memory permitting, I wish to acknowledge the contributions all of those who have guided and nurtured this work – and this scholar – over the past four years.

First, I recognize the five members of my doctoral committee, Dr. Linda Searby, my co-chair, for her wise counsel and steady mentoring; Dr. Gary Peters, my co-chair, for his timely support in my proposal writing and research process; Dr. Marcia O’Neal, my methodologist, for her indefatigable coaching and interest in my work; Dr. Steve Thoma, my moral psychology professor, for his generous intellect and confidence in my ideas; Dr. Julia Austin, my mentor and colleague, for her tireless commitment to the cause and collaborative spirit; and, finally, Dr. Jeff Engler, my mentor and colleague, for regularly sharing his optimism and expertise about research ethics.

Second, I would like to thank a group of scholars who formed my virtual network of mentors – Dr. Tracey Baker, Dr. Darcia Narvaez, Dr. Miguel Roig, Dr. Rhoda Cummings, Dr. Muriel Bebeau, and Dr. Jason Stephens – and responded to email questions, requests for resources, and phone calls at critical times. I am also profoundly grateful to my peer mentoring group, the “Dissertation Divas,” without whom this would not have happened and certainly would not have been much fun: Dr. Veronique Zimmerman-Brown, Dr. Kellie Carter, and Dr. Abby Langham.

Third, I would like recognize an important team of people who helped me in a wide variety of ways, every one of which made a positive difference in my research: Thomas Harris, Jan Baird; Laura Burchfiel; Margariette Hoomes; Amy Badham; Philip Gibson; Hong Jiang; Yangxue Dong; Dr. Susan Spezzini; Dr. Kristi-Shaw Saleh; Dr. Matt Fifolt; Dr. Loucrecia Collins, Dr. Susie Olmstead-Wang; Cari Oliver; Brian Shaw & Mary McCord; Jane Henry; Nancy Wingo; Josh Carter; Ashley Floyd; Imelda Vetter; Jeff Graveline; Jasmine Hodges; Dr. Harold Kincaid; Dr. Marilyn Kurata; Dr. Nataliya Ivankova; Dr. George Theodore; Dr. Bruce McComiskey; Dr. Andrew McKnight, and Scott Plutchak.

Finally, I would like to thank one special colleague, Lori Naramore, and my family members – my parents, Curtis & Ruby Greer, my late uncle, Harry E. Murphy, and my husband, Robert N. Gandy – for their unfailing support. Even on frustrating days, when I threatened to box up my laptop, calculator, and dog-eared copy of *Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach*, they never once doubted that I would finish this journey.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xii
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	15
Academic Ethics and Academic Integrity in Higher Education	17
Problem in Practice: Plagiarism in Higher Education	20
Defining Plagiarism and Authorship Ethics	22
Plagiarism in Perspective: A Centuries-Old Practice	23
Factors Influencing Plagiarism and Authorship Ethics	25
Authorship Ethics in Graduate Education	28
Theoretical Framework.....	29
Cognitive Moral Development	30
Transformational Leadership and Leadership Ethics	39
Educational Leadership and Scholarship.....	41
Summary: Developing Ethical Leaders and Scholars	44
3 METHODS	45
4 RESULTS	58
5 DISCUSSION.....	83
REFERENCES	104
APPENDICES	122

A LITERATURE MAP	122
B RESEARCHER'S LETTER TO PROGRAM COORDINATORS.....	124
C DATA COLLECTION AND CONFIDENTIALITY ASSURANCES	128
D APPROVAL FROM INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD	130
E QUESTIONNAIRE	132
F COORDINATOR'S EMAIL TO STUDENTS.....	155
G RESEARCHER'S INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE	157
H SHORT ANSWER RESPONSES	164

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Tables</i>	<i>Page</i>
1 Respondents and Response Rate by School and Overall.....	61
2 Characteristics of EDL/EDA Graduate Students Reporting Complete Demographics.....	63
3 Preferred Problem-Solving Schemas: DIT-2 Score Mean Proportions and Standard Deviations for EDL/EDA Graduate Students	65
4 Comparison of Respondents' Moral Judgment Schemas by Educational Level: EDL/EDA Master's and Doctoral Students	66
5 Comparison of EDL/EDA Graduate Students with National Norms: DIT-2 Score Means and Standard Deviations for Respondents and 2005-2009 Composite Sample	69
6 Self-Reported Behavior on Academic Practices Survey (APS): Means and Standard Deviations for EDL/EDA Graduate Students	70
7 Means and Standards Deviations for P-score Thirds and Academic Practices Survey (APS) Subscales.....	71
8 Analysis of Variance for P-score Thirds and Academic Practices Survey (APS) Subscales	72
9 Academic Writing History and Experience Reported by EDL/EDA Graduate Students	74
10 Intermediate Ethical Decision Making: Means and Standard Deviations on Writing Dilemma for EDL/EDA Graduate Students	79
11 Correlational Matrix: DIT-2 P Scores, Academic Practices Survey (APS) Scores, and Ethical Writing Dilemma Scores for EDL/EDA Graduate Students	80

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure</i>	<i>Page</i>
1 Ethical Authorship Continuum	28
2 A Look Inside Moral Reasoning.....	33
3 Four Component Model or Morality.....	35
4 Moral Schema Theory.....	36
5 Postconventional Thinking: A widening circle of cooperation	38
6 Moral types by subgroups for EDL/EDA master's and doctoral students	67
7 Respondents' levels of confidence for academic literacy skills	75
8 Levels of confidence by number of published papers authored or co-authored	76
9 Ranking of most important source of instruction in formal academic writing	77
10 Conditions of the online test-taking environment.....	81

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APS	Academic Practices Survey
DIT	Defining Issues Test
EdD	Doctor of Education
EDL/EDA	Educational Leadership/Educational Administration
ICM	Intermediate Concept Measure
IRB	Institutional Review Board
ORI	Office of Research Integrity
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
RCR	Responsible Conduct of Research
UAB	University of Alabama at Birmingham

INTRODUCTION

Most educators and scholars of leadership in the United States would agree that educational leaders serve as moral exemplars in society, and that ethical decision making is a core competency for these professionals, from K-12 principals and superintendents to college administrators and presidents (Bertram Gallant, 2011; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Burns, 1978, 2003; Ciulla, 2003, 2004; Gardner, 1995, 2008; Gill, 2006; Johnson, 2009; Keohane, 2006; Northouse, 2010; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2011; Shils, 1997; Starratt, 2004; Strike, Haller, & Soltis, 2005). Indeed, for educational leaders, moral dilemmas arise from daily routine, from student discipline and teacher evaluations to grading/promotion and budgeting and finance. Although educators make a broad range of ethical decisions daily, among the most important are those that they make about academic integrity (Anderman & Murdock, 2007; Bertram Gallant, 2008a; Braxton, 2011; Cummings, Maddux, Harlow, & Dyas, 2002; Gross, 2011; Langlais, 2006; Marsh, 2007; McCabe, 2005). To that end, current training for Educational Leadership/Educational Administration (EDL/EDA) doctoral students in nationally accredited programs requires them to manage and understand “dispositions of integrity, fairness and ethical practice” based on standards developed by the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC, 2002, p. 13). Other guidelines, such as the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards and the University Council for Educational Administration, include similar language. Nevertheless, academic integrity breaches by educational leaders make the news frequently. Headlines range from “Educators Implicated in Atlanta

Cheating Scandal” (Koebler, 2011) and “Nine Schools Cited for Exam and Credit Irregularities” (Phillips, 2012) in the K-12 setting to “Gaming College Rankings” (Perez-Pena & Slotnik, 2012) and “Malone U. President Steps Down Amid Plagiarism Accusations” (Laster, 2010) in higher education. Anecdotal evidence aside, of cause for concern are studies showing that preservice teacher education students self-report high rates of cheating, from 50% (Ferrell & Daniel, 1995) to 75% (Cummings, Maddux, Harlow, & Dyas, 2002). Although these rates are similar to self-reported academic misconduct by students across the disciplines (McCabe & Trevino, 1996; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001), they are problematic considering the role teachers play in the lives of their students and the influence they wield when they move up into positions of educational leadership.

Moreover, for several decades, studies (Bloom, 1976; Chang, 1994; Cummings, Dyas, Maddux, & Kochman, 2001; Cummings et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2010; McNeel, 1994; Yeazell & Johnson, 1988) have reported that teacher education students score significantly lower than other majors on one critical measure of character: moral judgment or problem solving. A requisite capacity for moral behavior (Piaget, 1932/1965; Kohlberg, 1969, 1976; Rest, 1979, 1983, 1986), moral reasoning also correlates with pro-social behaviors, civic engagement, reflective judgment, verbal and academic aptitude, among other desirable professional attributes (Rest, Navarez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999). To assess teacher education students, the above-mentioned studies relied on a well-validated cognitive test, the Defining Issues Test (DIT), which has been used to measure moral reasoning for nearly four decades (Rest, 1979; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006). Some scholars have asserted that evidence of disciplinary variations in moral reasoning among college students is inconclusive (Derryberry, Snyder, Wilson, & Barger,

2006; King & Mayhew, 2002; Livingston, Derrysberry, King & Vendetti, 2006), yet reviews of the educational literature continue to show that teachers score below their peers in this critical area (Cummings, Harlow, & Maddux, 2007). More recently, two studies (Slavinsky, 2006; Vitton & Wasonga, 2009) of public school principals also reported below-average scores on moral judgment for educators. In the latter study, 60 elementary school principals in the Midwest were found to be just below moral reasoning levels for the general adult population, but substantially below those who have attained graduate degrees. Vitton & Wasonga surmised that three factors contributed to the principals' overall low moral judgment scores: fixed, change-resistant mental maps (or schemas) on the part of almost half of the educators; changing regulatory and school environments that create more complex ethical dilemmas; and inadequate preparation in moral leadership. "Leadership preparation programs have not kept pace with [today's] complex challenges," the authors asserted (p. 112). They further argued that leadership preparation calls for more than "a set of codes and standards" or status quo instruction; it requires engaged interventions that "may lead aspiring school leaders to new, different, and more comprehensive ways of thinking" (p.112).

Background & Context

Amid claims in the popular press that 21st century America has evolved into a "cheating culture" (Callahan, 2004) are specific educational leadership concerns over shifting ground in the core values of academic or scholarly integrity. For example, by one study, approximately 66% of college students report engaging in some kind of plagiarism (McCabe et al., 2001), and more than half of today's college presidents fear that student

plagiarism is on the rise, according to a recent Pew Research Center survey (Parker, Lenhar, & Moore, 2011). Administrators say their worries about plagiarism stem, in part, from continuing pedagogical shifts toward high-stakes written assessments (in place of multiple-choice tests) and writing-intensive online instruction. Both shifts are occurring against a backdrop of increasing accountability for academic achievement in K-12 because of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and higher costs and competition at all levels of higher education.

Among all academic integrity issues, plagiarism is reported to be one of the most ambiguous and difficult for both students and faculty to judge (Howard, 2010a; Howard & Robillard, 2008; Marsh, 2007; Roig, 2001). Potentially unethical acts range from the verbatim copying of unattributed text from the Internet (McCabe, 2005) and well-crafted mosaic plagiarism (Dee & Jacob, 2010) to honest, but problematic, patchwriting by developmental and second-language writers (Evans & Youmans, 2000; Hayes & Introna, 2005; Howard, 2010a; Pecorari, 2003). Howard argued that much of what is considered unethical may, in fact, be pre-ethical. Specifically, scholars point to the lack of professional consensus around definitions of common knowledge and what to cite among faculty and students (Shi, 2011). More generally, others asserted that much of what teachers consider ethical for students may be part of a “hidden curriculum” that is not explicitly taught (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008, p. 2).

Once thought to be an undergraduate problem, plagiarism has more recently been identified among graduate students (Holmberg & McCullough, 2005, 2006; Martin, Rao, & Sloan, 2009; McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2006; Nadelson, 2007; Sheard, Markham, & Dick, 2003; Wajda-Johnston, Handal, Brawer, & Fabricatore, 2001). In a rare

study to explore this problem among educators, Love and Simmons (1998) conducted in-depth interviews with six health and counseling graduate education students. Factors students thought contributed to cheating and plagiarism were pressure (relating to both grades and time), a lack of awareness of standards, negative personal attitudes, and leniency by faculty. Curiously, the graduate education students viewed their socialization in scholarly ethics as largely informal, or ad hoc, indicating that many faculty members avoided discussing these issues.

Making consistent and sound ethical decisions in the scholarly writing process is challenging for experienced writers, according to cognitive psychologist and ethical writing advocate Miguel Roig (2001). Although many faculty members focus only on students as an object of concern, Roig has focused on psychology professors and found that one third of them stayed too close to the original text when they were asked to paraphrase highly difficult passages. Moreover, Roig, who wrote the plagiarism prevention guidelines for the U.S. government's Office of Research Integrity (ORI, 2012), attempted to distinguish between cheating and plagiarism in his ethical self assessment known as the Academic Practices Survey (APS; Roig & DeTomasso, 1995). The APS features 16 questions that address questionable or unethical textual borrowing, sourcing, and citing practices and another eight that address cheating on test-taking; the measure also allows for separate scoring so that researchers can begin to tease out the differences between the two phenomena. This distinction is important because plagiarism has been defined historically in academia as a type of cheating (Mawdsley, 1994); increasingly, however, there is concern among faculty of the possibility of accidental plagiarism (Nadleson, 2007) or unauthorized textual borrowing without the intent to deceive (Howard, 2008). For the

purposes of this study, plagiarism will be defined using the ORI policy, as stated on its web site, which means the plagiarized text has the effect of “mislead[ing] the ordinary reader regarding the contribution of the author” (ORI, 1994).

Such a complex picture of modern scholarship calls for a new way of thinking about the old problem of plagiarism in higher education. This is especially true for education graduate students in educational leadership or administration if educational leaders are to ensure the integrity of their own written work as well as that of future students. Although many disciplines have studied the problem of plagiarism and ethical authorship, moral psychology literature offers a promising new framework for research and curriculum development: The Four-Component Model of Morality developed by the late cognitive psychologist James R. Rest (Rest, 1983, 1986; Rest, Bebeau, & Volker, 1986; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999). A holistic, evidenced-based approach, this model for understanding moral functioning is based on numerous empirical studies and interventions in the field of moral and professional development (Bebeau, 2002; Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 1994, 2006).

Basically, the model identifies four “inner psychological processes together that give rise to outwardly observable behavior” (Rest et al., 1999, p. 101). These processes are moral sensitivity (problem recognition), judgment (problem solving), motivation (identity and priorities), and character (ability and willingness to act). Although all four processes contribute to ethical behavior, mastery of the second component—moral problem solving—is key to making critical, reflective decisions like the kind that educational leaders face every day (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). This component is measured by the previously mentioned assessment, the Defining Issues Test (DIT), developed by Rest and his

colleagues in the 1970s. Based on schema theory, the DIT assesses whether a participant uses one of three general knowledge structures—Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, or Postconventional (advanced) thinking—to solve moral dilemmas. Now in its second iteration after hundreds of studies, the DIT-2 is one of the most well-validated (Thoma, 2006) and widely used (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003; Johnson, 2009; Rogers, 2002) assessments in ethics education.

The Purpose of this Study

Recent studies have investigated moral problem solving in teachers (Cummings et al., 2001; Cummings et al., 2002; Cummings et al., 2010) and elementary school principals (Slavinsky, 2006; Vitton & Wasonga, 2009), demonstrating some concern about lower-than-average scores. Yet no studies could be found that have examined this critical thinking ability in educational leadership and administration students seeking advanced degrees, such as a doctorate of education (EdD) or a doctorate of philosophy (PhD). Furthermore, no studies have investigated moral problem solving in this population in connection with academic integrity practices, including authorship issues like plagiarism. Studies and reviews of teachers and moral reasoning (Chang, 1994; Cummings et al., 2007; McNeel 1994) show that those with higher moral reasoning can, in turn, foster higher levels of development in their students. In fact, teachers with advanced moral reasoning “can be more empowering to student learning and healthy social development than teachers with lower moral reasoning” (Chang, p. 81). Furthermore, moral reasoning skills in higher education can be effectively enhanced through the right kinds of educational interventions (Bebeau, 1994, 2002; Cummings et al., 2010; King & Mayhew,

2002; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999). Graduate school is not too late for ethics education; indeed, Rest suggested that it might be an ideal learning environment: “Meta-analysis [of educational interventions] indicates that older subjects (i.e., graduate and professional school subjects rather than junior high school subjects) are especially receptive to moral education programs” (1994, p. 20).

Given the need to adequately prepare future educational leaders for an ethically complex workplace, it is necessary to document the moral problem-solving strategies of this uniquely influential population—EDL/EDA graduate students. Additionally, considering educators’ positions as moral exemplars, it is important to examine how their problem-solving strategies relate to their own academic integrity and authorship practices in graduate school. Although qualitative studies could prove useful in crafting future ethics interventions, an initial quantitative approach is needed to lay the groundwork for accurately framing the problem.

Hence, the purpose of this quantitative study was to create baseline profiles for moral problem solving and academic authorship practices in a target population of EDL/EDA students at five advanced degree-granting institutions (with both master’s and doctoral programs) in one Southern state. In addition, the study sought how the EDL/EDA moral reasoning profile compared with national norms of graduate students across the disciplines and if the problem-solving and academic practices profiles correlate in a way that calls for a new pedagogical approach to authorship ethics for these students. A Web-based questionnaire, based on the aforementioned DIT-2 and the APS, was used to create the two profiles and determine if they are correlated. An additional ethical writing dilemma was created, tested, and added to the end of the DIT-2. Demographic data

helped to further explain and correlate the two profiles and their relationship. The theoretical framework for the study was based on cognitive moral development, the Four-Component Model, schema theory, and leadership ethics. The goal of this research was to suggest a research and curricular framework for ethics interventions and academic writing support to educational leadership graduate students.

Significance of the Study

With increasing calls for accountability at all levels of education, “teaching ethical reasoning is a crucial responsibility of programs in professional development” (Rogers & Sizer, 2010, p. 247). This responsibility takes on even greater importance in the training of future educational leaders, who will be charged with modeling and mentoring academic integrity, pursuing action research and systematic inquiry, and developing ethical school cultures. Without adequate knowledge of the moral problem-solving profile of this population and their understanding of what it means to be a scholar, educational institutions cannot be confident that they are training and certifying the best possible leaders. In particular, those charged with setting standards, such as representative organizations like the University Council for Educational Administration, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards, and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council, may fail to prioritize moral and ethical leadership issues. Equipped with this knowledge, these organizations and graduate faculty in Schools of Education will be better able to assess the merits of existing ethics instruction generally and evaluate the need for specific courses that support EDL/ED students in their development as scholars, including additional support in academic writing for high-stakes assessments such as comprehensive

exams, theses, and dissertations. These schools must also be confident that ethical thinking assessment and instruction approaches they use are grounded in theory. This study is the first of its kind to use an empirically supported framework, the Four-Component Model of Morality, moral schema theory, and a well-validated test of moral problem solving, the DIT, to gauge education leadership students' preparedness in the context of graduate level research and scholarship. Perhaps more than any other group, these students are simultaneously becoming scholars while learning to lead on academic integrity and other ethical issues for decades to come.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following questions served to guide this study:

Question 1: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of educational leadership/administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2)?

Question 2: How do the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South compare with national norms, based on historic composites of scores on the DIT-2?

Question 3: What are the characteristic academic and authorship practices reported by EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the Academic Practices Survey?

Question 4: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South when deciding on

an intermediate concept, such as plagiarism, based on their scores on the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma?

The following hypotheses served to guide this study:

Hypothesis 1: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score lower on academic dishonesty, as measured by the Academic Practices Survey. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no negative relationship between DIT-2 and Academic Practices Survey scores.

Hypothesis 2: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score higher the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no positive relationship between the DIT-2 scores and the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma scores.

Definition of Key Terms

Academic Integrity. A particular branch of academic ethics that addresses institutional and individual honor, honesty, and reliability in scholarly conduct, such as high-stakes assessments that result in grades and graduation (Bertram Gallant, 2008a)

Academic Practices Survey (APS). A self-report, cognitive psychological paper-and-pencil survey developed by Roig and DeTommaso (1995) to test 16 potentially unethical academic writing and citing practices, and eight test-taking practices

Authorship Ethics. A specialized focus of scholarly integrity related to ethical—or unethical—academic writing practices, based on professional and educational norms

Defining Issues Test (DIT). A widely used cognitive test developed by psychologist James Rest (1986) and colleagues in the late 1970s that is now in its second version,

the DIT-2, which measures moral judgment by activating pre-existing moral schemas and prioritizing judgments based on them (Thoma, 2006)

Dilemma Discussion. A proven technique for assessing and teaching moral judgment, based on abstract or real-life hypotheticals (Bebeau, 1994; Kohlberg, 1976; Rest, 1986)

Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) Graduate Student. A student in graduate studies pursuing a master's, EdD, EdS, or PhD degree in an accredited EDL/EDA program training future principles, superintendents, administrators, college deans, and presidents, among other positions in leadership

Four-Component Model. A holistic, evidenced-based framework proposed by Rest (1983, 1986) and developed by the Neo-Kohlbergian scholars (Rest et al., 1999) for understanding the four psychological subprocesses involved in moral behavior: sensitivity, judgment, motivation, and character or action

Intermediate Concept Measure. A newer moral reasoning measure developed by Neo-Kohlbergian scholars to assess intermediate constructs (between bedrock and surface constructs) found in discipline-specific professional ethics, such as privacy, informed consent, and conflict of interest (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999)

Moral Development. A field in human development pioneered by Jean Piaget (1932/1965) that presumes morality has the potential to develop along a continuum from pre-ethical to advanced ethical action with experience and education over time

Moral Character/Action. One component of moral behavior that involves the ability to follow through on a moral decision by virtue of being courageous, competent, or fit

Moral Motivation. One component of moral behavior that involves the ability to prioritize a moral decision to ensure principled action

Moral Reasoning. One component of moral behavior that involves problem solving, or decision making, in a moral dilemma and understanding why

Moral Schema. One of three general knowledge structures—from Personal Interest to Maintaining Norms to Postconventional Thinking—proposed by Rest and the Neo-Kohlbergian scholars (Rest et al., 1999) as a way of understanding rationales for moral judgment

Moral Sensitivity. One component of moral behavior that involves interpreting a situation as a moral dilemma with the consequences for one's actions affecting others as well as self

Plagiarism. “The unattributed verbatim or nearly verbatim copying of sentences and paragraphs, which materially mislead the ordinary reader regarding the contributions of the author” (ORI, 1994)

Plagiarism variations. Textual borrowing that ranges along a continuum from serial cut-and-paste copying (Baggaley & Spencer, 2005) to ambiguous mosaic plagiarism (Dee & Jacob, 2010), such as carefully woven text from multiple concealed sources, to accidental plagiarism (Nadleson, 2007), such as novice mistakes in citing and summarizing, or memory lapses.

Schema Theory. A social cognition theory used by Neo-Kohlbergians (Rest et al., 1999) to explain behavior based on the construction of broad knowledge structures (such as categories, stereotypes, or worldviews) activated by external stimuli to facilitate quick decision making

Self-Plagiarism. A practice of recycling previously used work which is viewed as unethical in some contexts (such as re-publishing copyright text) but acceptable in other contexts, such as reusing portions of a methods section in grant writing (Roig, 2002)

Limitations

As with all research designs, this proposed study carried several limitations. The first was its focus on the five advance degree-granting, educational leadership institutions in one state in the South; it may be difficult to generalize the findings outside of this regional context and these educational contexts. Second, one instrument, the APS, relies on self-reporting; hence, it may contain bias if participants are too embarrassed to be honest and score themselves artificially high, contrary to their actual behavior. Two strategies attempted to mitigate this: Attempts to gain access to the total target population in the state, through a census design, resulting in as large a pool as possible; and exploratory factor analysis to detect outlier or extreme responses that may be biased.

In sum, this study produced baseline moral reasoning and academic authorship findings that offer universities a greater understanding of EDL/EDA students' ethical leadership abilities. This understanding, in turn, begins to inform university EDL and EDA program administrators, who wish to promote an integrative, evidenced-based moral development, across the curriculum, not just in a single ethics or methods course. Such a curriculum will help students develop ethically as they move through their educational leadership/administration programs and produce new scholarship.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

After nearly half a century of empirical research, policy development, and interventions, many scholars agree that academic misconduct remains all too common in schools and colleges today (Anderman & Murdock, 2007; Bertram Gallant, 2011; Dee & Jacob, 2010; McCabe, 2005). For example, one of the thorniest issues—student plagiarism—may be increasing with use of the Internet, according to college presidents surveyed recently by the Pew Research Center (Parker et al., 2011). Although there are no longitudinal studies to confirm a perceived rise in plagiarism (Howard, 2008a), this text-based ethical writing problem has remained a persistent and documented phenomenon in higher education since the early 1960s. One 30-year comparison study (McCabe & Trevino, 1996) found very little change in the prevalence of plagiarism, but indicated that two out of three students still use unethical writing practices. In 1963, 65% of undergraduate students admitted to cheating in written work; in 1993, 66% admitted to similar misconduct (McCabe, 2005). Moreover, when researchers compare the plagiarism and cheating behaviors of undergraduates to graduate students (Sheard et al., 2003), they have found that a presumed “maturity factor may” not be as strong as expected. More than half of the graduate students, 53%, admit to problematic practices, while 79% of undergraduates did so. In another study of graduate-level writing, Holmberg and McCullough (2005, 2006) found potential occurrences of plagiarism in 46 of 68 electronically published mas-

ter's theses in science and technology. Subsequent human text analysis found 43 of the 46 to be likely actionable infractions.

Writing in the popular press, Callahan (2004) concluded that student academic misconduct, including plagiarism, is not an anomaly; instead, it reflects a larger, societal integrity crisis, a "cheating culture" that stems from a perfect storm of globalization, competitiveness, economic insecurity, systemic corruption, and a lack of institutional oversight. Indeed, at no time has it been more important for educators to take a leading role in *Creating the Ethical Academy*, asserted Bertram Gallant (2011), arguing for a systems approach to reform. Other educational leaders (Ciulla, 2004; Gardener, 2008; Keohane, 2006; Shils, 1997) also stressed moral leadership by individuals. Nannerl O. Kohane, former president of Duke University wrote: "The most significant obstacles to civic education on campus today are our own practices and expectations" (2006, p. 102).

Such a leadership challenge calls for an investigation of individual moral development, not simply organizational change, to discover how each person develops an ethical sense of self in college. To that end, this review of the literature includes a brief history of academic ethics and academic integrity in higher education. Next, it focuses on a persistent and complex integrity problem in practice—plagiarism in the context of high-stakes academic writing, especially in graduate school. It summarized recent advances in two areas of relevant theory: cognitive moral development theory and transformational leadership theory, including an offshoot, leadership ethics. Finally, this review documented the scarcity of knowledge regarding moral reasoning abilities and perceptions of plagiarism as academic integrity in one important group—educational leadership graduate students, who, by virtue of their positions, will help shape academic integrity of gen-

erations of student writers. This organizational pattern can be seen in the researcher's literature review map (see Appendix A).

Academic Ethics and Academic Integrity in Higher Education

In the United States, research into academic integrity in higher education began with surveys into student academic misconduct the 1960s (Bowers, 1964; Bertram Gallant, 2008a; McCabe, 2005; McCabe & Trevino, 1996). Around the same time, scholars in higher education began to articulate the academy's larger role in ethics for the profession (Bertram Gallant & Goodchild, 2011). In the 1970s and early 1980s, for example, leading policy makers, such as those at the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies, addressed a broad range of ethical issues affecting both students and faculty with a series of texts, including one that spoke to an alarming decline in academic integrity among students. However, Bertram Gallant and Goodchild credited Edward Shils, at the University of Chicago, with a historic clarion call in 1983 that effectively launched the field of academic ethics. In his essay, *The Academic Ethic*, Shils (1997) conceived of the academy's ethical mission in words that are as true today that they were three decades ago: "Students who aspire to academic careers learn their academic ethic by seeing it being practiced by their elders" (p. 104).

Shils' monograph galvanized higher education leaders into development of the new discipline, which lagged behind older more established areas of applied ethics in law, business, and medicine, according to Bertram Gallant and Goodchild (2011). In the 1980s and 1990s, the authors wrote, new branches of applied ethics emerged in university-business ethics, faculty ethics, research ethics, professional ethics, and academic or

scholarly integrity. These last three areas focused on the various and complex contexts that college students, especially graduate students, found themselves in daily, such as the research lab, the clinical internship, and positions of authorship in which they were writing high-stakes papers for a grade, a degree, a grant, or publication. These ethics initiatives were motivated, in part, by moral breakdowns, including a dozen or more cases of abuse (e.g., the infamous Tuskegee syphilis study) by American researchers disclosed in the 1970s and early 1980s (ORI, 2012). Such abuses ranged from mistreatment of human participants to data fabrication and manipulation to plagiarism, prompting legislation in 1985 to strictly regulate the ethics of publicly funded research.

From this time on, the academy began to give special attention to the ethical conduct of faculty, students, and staff conducting studies with human and animal subjects (Anderson, 2011). Beginning in 1989, the federal government closely watchdogged research projects under the auspices of the ORI. A twin focus on integrity and oversight spawned the formulation of “two familiar restraints on behavior” (Anderson, p. 94); these restraints were strict professional norms and regulatory oversight, including mandatory training in protocols known as the responsible conduct of research (RCR). This initiative resulted in graduate schools moving toward the development of best practices in research and more closely monitoring and mentoring faculty and students, according to the Council of Graduate Schools (Carlin & Denecke, 2008; Tate & Denecke, 2006). The council’s research, coordinated with ORI and through National Science Foundation (NSF)-funded projects, supports the assumption that “ethics education leads to improved ethical reasoning and a higher level of ethical maturity, which can in turn be linked to improved behavior” (Tate & Denecke, p. 4).

In 1994, another notable text appeared as higher education faculty sought to align themselves more closely with the professions to better prepare students for making the right decisions in a “problematic work context” (Rest & Narvaez, 1994, p. x). Covering research in nursing, teaching, counseling, accounting, dentistry, medicine, veterinary medicine, sports, and journalism, the collection, *Moral Development in the Professions: Psychology and Applied Ethics*, was edited by educational psychologists Rest and Narvaez (1994) at the University of Minnesota. Working in the cognitive developmental tradition of Jean Piaget and Lawrence Kohlberg, Rest and Narvaez’s diverse collection of research articles and essays stood out for their theory-building approach, evidenced-based emphasis, and sharp insight into moral development in adults who aspire to be or are already members of a profession. They also focused on morality in the problematic work context where issues are more complex and fine-grained and often involve deciding between conflicting values; each value represents something good in itself, that is, “the school teacher who must decide whether to give more attention to students with learning difficulties or to give equal time to all students” (p. ix-x).

By the 1990s, academic ethics in the United States constituted a rich and diverse field of research and publication, according to Bertram Gallant and Goodchild (2011), with manuals and treatises emerging to address a wide range of academic integrity issues from cheating on tests to fudging admissions applications and test scores, plagiarism, and the use of ghosted papers. In 1992, academics came together to form the Center for Academic Integrity, a consortium of over 360 institutions in higher education, which is housed at Clemson University. Donald McCabe, a Rutgers University business professor and founding member of the center, had been studying issues like plagiarism at the col-

lege level for almost 20 years. He documented the same issues—perceived erosion of students’ ethical values and failure of existing policy—in the early 1990s as he did in a 2003-2004 survey of 68 institutions (McCabe, 2005). Observing that faculty could not model academic integrity alone, he called for university administrators to exercise more leadership, saying “many schools that have not reviewed their [academic integrity] policies in decades” (p. 29).

Problem in Practice: Plagiarism in Higher Education

From the early 1960s, researchers and scholars have studied plagiarism as a form of cheating, but this positioning has recently come into question. Decades ago, legally minded scholars like Mawdsley (1994) acknowledged the difficulty of identifying plagiarism without knowing a student’s intent. Nevertheless, he feared that unethical text borrowing, like other forms of academic misconduct, posed a grave, potentially “asphyxiating” threat (p. 98) to the academy, if unaddressed. Considering the lack of norms still around definitions of plagiarism (Dee & Jacob, 2010; Howard & Robillard, 2008; Marsh, 2007; Martin et al., 2009; Price & Price, 2005), it is difficult to know the true prevalence rate or to accurately assess the threat to institutional integrity. Still, reviews of empirical literature (Park, 2003) indicate that the problem is more serious than many faculty realize and merits attention.

What is obvious, though, is how complex and multi-layered the problem is. Some academics have argued that plagiarism and similar ethical breaches represent students’ shifting values about cheating and plagiarism, pointing to a clash or disconnect between faculty and students on these issues (Brown & Howell, 2001; Gross, 2011; Murdock &

Stephens, 2007; Nadeleson, 2007). For example, Power (2009), in a qualitative study of undergraduates in Maine, interviewed 31 student volunteers in two required college writing courses. Most of these students did not view plagiarism as a serious or compelling moral issue, in contrast with their views of cheating on a test. Many students had deep misunderstandings about what plagiarism is and felt they lacked agency or control over their own writing outcomes, ethical or otherwise. The author concluded that the students who opened up to her were not serial plagiarists, but “unfinished learners” (Power, 2009, p. 660) who would welcome the chance to create authorial identities and ethics if they understood why and how.

Other scholars have noted that even faculty do not agree on what constitutes plagiarism (Evans & Craig, 1990; Shi, 2011) or may be inclined to stay too close to the original text when asked to paraphrase difficult passages (Roig, 2001). Furthermore, evidence of plagiarism in graduate scholarship gives rise to questions about the possibility of plagiarism in published scholarship by professional researchers, who must, as the old saying goes, “publish or perish.” There, too, both research and anecdotal evidence exist. A recent study in the journal *Science* found over 212 potentially plagiarized articles already published and indexed in MEDLINE, the prestigious database of the U.S. National Library of Medicine (Long, Errami, George, Sun, & Garner, 2009). In 2011, the ORI Web site on plagiarism noted that the problem “historically made up a small percentage of research misconduct findings, until recently” when it disciplined four researchers for plagiarism in one year (ORI, 2011). Clearly, without cultivating an ethic of scholarship among students and faculty alike, university leaders could risk a potential decline in research quality and productivity as well as increased liability and risk to reputation and

funding (Bertram Gallant, 2011, 2008; Carlin & Denecke, 2008; Keohane, 2006; Langlais, 2006).

Defining Plagiarism and Authorship Ethics

As indicated, part of the problem for students and faculty alike is simply defining plagiarism and other types of unethical writing. Just what is plagiarism, or a potential occurrence of plagiarism, a POP, as Holmberg and McCullough (2005, 2006) call it? Indeed, in the United States, although there are firm conventions regarding citations (e.g., America Psychological Association, Modern Language Association, Council of Biology Editors), there is no widely established norm regarding (a) the quantity of original text that is appropriate to use, (b) the quality of the paraphrase (i.e., patchwriting vs. original synthesis), or (c) what is or is not common knowledge and must be cited. Although there is general agreement on the extremes (i.e., copying without attribution), there is disagreement on what happens in the middle of the spectrum.

Indeed, the literature identifies serial plagiarism, such as verbatim copying jobs (Baggaley & Spencer, 2005), mosaic plagiarism, based on synonym-substitution to achieve the appearance of paraphrase (Dee & Jacob, 2010), honest patchwriting by novice or second language writers (Howard, 2008a), accidental plagiarism (Nadleson, 2007), and self-plagiarism (ORI, 2012). Newer instructional web sites, like “What constitutes plagiarism?” at Harvard University, attempt to draw this distinction (Harvard, 2012), but not all faculty and students understand these fine points. In addition, commonly used software detection services like Turnitin identify strings of 6 words or more, which inevitably include harmless academic idioms and formulaic language, such as “the purpose of

this study is to investigate” Not only can software detection services detect false positives, they may also fail to detect intentional mosaic plagiarism (Brown, Jordan, Rubin, & Arome, 2010; Warn, 2006), leaving technological solutions vulnerable to criticism from both students and faculty.

Finally, even the federal government’s watchdog, the ORI, admits on a policy page on its Web site that “there is some uncertainty about how the definition itself is applied in ORI cases” (ORI, 1994). While most graduate students must be familiar with definitions of their institutions and their disciplines (as stated in style books), they would also be wise to learn the ORI’s definition, if they teach, work on grants, conduct research, or plan to do any of the above. Its core concept involves an impact of plagiarism on the reader, as evidenced by this language: “the unattributed verbatim or nearly verbatim copying of sentences and paragraphs, *which materially misleads the ordinary reader regarding the contributions of the author*” (ORI).

Plagiarism in Perspective: A Centuries-Old Practice

Plagiarism, presenting someone else’s words as one’s own, is as old as the written word, with perceptions of it morphing over time, according to the era, the writer, and the writer’s purpose. For example, St. Augustine, the great 4th century Christian thinker, freely encouraged a plagiaristic, text-borrowing culture in the early church that lasted for centuries, according to rhetorical scholars Bizzell and Herzberg (2001), who included large portions of Augustine’s *On Christian Doctrine* in their classical rhetoric anthology. In this text, Augustine summarized and cited earlier thinkers such as Cicero, so he clearly understood his role in mapping the scholarly conversation of the day. Yet, the theologian

was so committed to combating heresy and keeping new converts on message that he encouraged other priests to borrow liberally from his own sermons. Augustine reasoned, “There are, indeed, some men who can deliver a sermon well, but who cannot think out its matter” (On Christian Doctrine 4:62, as excerpted in Bizzell & Herzberg, 2001). If these priests take what is “eloquently and wisely written by others” and use it as their own, Augustine added, “they do no wrong.” Bizzell and Herzberg observed that Augustine’s “sanctioning of a kind of plagiarism” led not only to the widespread dissemination of his ideas, but also to the medieval practice of quoting heavily from sources without naming them (p. 454).

Today, plagiarism in academia and the publishing world is commonly viewed as the “theft” of another’s words and ideas (Marsh, 2007). This value dates back to Roman times, re-emerged during the Renaissance, and strengthened in late 17th and 18th century Europe with the advent of intellectual property laws. Some educators mistakenly think that this modern negative view of plagiarism is a strictly Western value, but which has, in part, led to stereotyping of the problem with non-English-speaking students from the East. Yet plagiarism as an unethical act also has ancient roots in China, according to Dilin Liu (2005), a native of China, professor and respected applied linguist at the University of Alabama. “In fact, the concept of ‘plagiarism’ as an immoral practice has existed in China for a very long time,” he wrote (p. 235). The Chinese have several words for plagiarism, including “piao qie,” which scholars have used in their writings to chastise plagiarists since AD 700 (p. 235). Moreover, Liu’s analysis of contemporary Chinese composition textbooks, written in the 1980s and 1990s, showed that they include stern warnings and ample explanations about plagiarism, ethical paraphrase, and citations. That

does not mean, Liu added, that plagiarism is not a “serious problem” in China; however, the solution involves communicating the value and demonstrating the practice of ethical writing to new Chinese scholars and enforcing plagiarism policies.

More recently, in the United States, students have been warned against unauthorized borrowing since the first composition handbooks and textbooks appeared in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, according to Marsh (2007). He cited instructions written in 1913 to students of rhetoric at the University of Minnesota calling for “the original work of the student” (p. 59). The use of another’s language or ideas was to be indicated by quotes and a footnote. The policy added: “Failure to observe these rules scrupulously will be regarded as cheating; and the offense will be reported to the Student Council” (p. 59). Today, college writing manuals take a more pedagogically sound approach, such as the one by leading composition scholar Rebecca Moore Howard (2010b). Howard describes and details “the writer’s responsibilities” (p. 4-5) to four key constituencies – to readers, to the topic, to other sources and to one’s self – in a popular new handbook. Yet it is difficult to know how much of this new “writing responsibly” ethic is reaching today’s graduate writers.

Factors Influencing Plagiarism and Authorship Ethics

One reason unethical writing practices like plagiarism are so persistent is that they stem from myriad causes, including: (a) poor ethical judgment (Mawdsley, 1994; Posner, 2007); (b) memory breakdowns known as cryptomnesia (Bredart, Lampinen, & Defeldre, 2003); (c) undeveloped reading, writing, and citing skills (Howard, 2010a; Howard & Davies, 2009; Howard & Robillard, 2008); (d) insufficient instruction and mentorship in

research (Yancey, 2008); (e) poorly designed writing assignments that invite copying (Williams, 2008); (f) flawed assumptions from those who are new to Western and/or academic publishing standards (Evans & Youmans, 2000; Hayes & Introna, 2005; Howard & Robillard, 2008; Liu, 2005; Power, 2009); and (g) a lack of agreement, even among faculty, on paraphrasing, citing, and referencing norms (Roig, 2001; Shi, 2011). In the past, researchers have sought to quantify the strength of certain variables to predict what type of student might plagiarize, with limited success. There is evidence to show that students in some disciplines, those with lower test scores, or those who have less intrinsic motivation may be more likely to plagiarize. For example, business students are more likely to plagiarize than nonbusiness students (McCabe et al., 2006), a finding that confirms an early positive correlation between careerism and unethical behavior (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). Lower academic achievement, as evidenced by low SAT scores, also correlates positively with plagiarism (Dee & Jacob, 2010), as well as low intrinsic motivation (Sheard et al., 2003). Nevertheless, such prediction research does not necessarily offer policy solutions.

Universities have turned to a variety of plagiarism prevention approaches—from stricter, better-publicized academic integrity policies and computer software detection services such as Turnitin—to deter, detect, and punish plagiarists. Although these measures have had limited, short-term success at reducing plagiarism in undergraduates, there is scarce evidence to show they offer a consistent, long-term approach with graduate students (McCabe, 2005; Warn, 2006). Honor codes, with strong peer mentoring and faculty support, have been somewhat successful (McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2003). Among experts, a consensus is emerging around need for educational approaches (Ber-

tram Gallant 2008 a, 2008b; Howard, 2001, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a; McCabe & Pavela, 2004; Mullen, 2001, 2006; Pennington, 2010; Roig, 2002).

Howard (2008), along with other experienced researchers in the rhetoric and composition field (Anson, 2008; Blum, 2009; Pennington, 2010), have argued that media and faculty fears have exaggerated the problem into an “epidemic” not supported by data. Much of the early policy research was based on self-report survey methodology, which is subject to inherent bias (Dee & Jacob, 2010). Discourse analysis and criterion-referenced studies (Dee & Jacob; Jamieson & Howard, 2012; Martin et al., 2009) have verified the complexities of the problem. For example, in a study of business students, Martin et al. combined Turnitin criteria with text analysis and self-report data to produce surprising findings. They found that students who rated themselves higher on a self-integrity scale were more likely to plagiarize in a writing sample, leading the authors to speculate whether students even viewed plagiarism as unethical. Indeed, in the field of rhetoric and composition, where English teachers are on the front lines of teaching and reading student papers, many faculty see college student writing along a continuum from novice to expert with student patchwriting and accidental plagiarism as more pre-ethical than unethical (See Figure 1). To document what is really happening with student writing, Howard has led groundbreaking research, The Citation Project (Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue, 2010) at Syracuse University. She and her team conducted text analysis on 174 undergraduate student papers with 1,911 citations and found that summary writing, or a true synthesis of sources, is rare to non-existent in student writing. In contrast, sentence-level paraphrasing abound (often from the abstract or first three pages of lengthy source material); Howard said that this raises the even more troubling question of whether students

are even reading and understanding an entire academic text, or just data mining for good quotes and quick paraphrases.

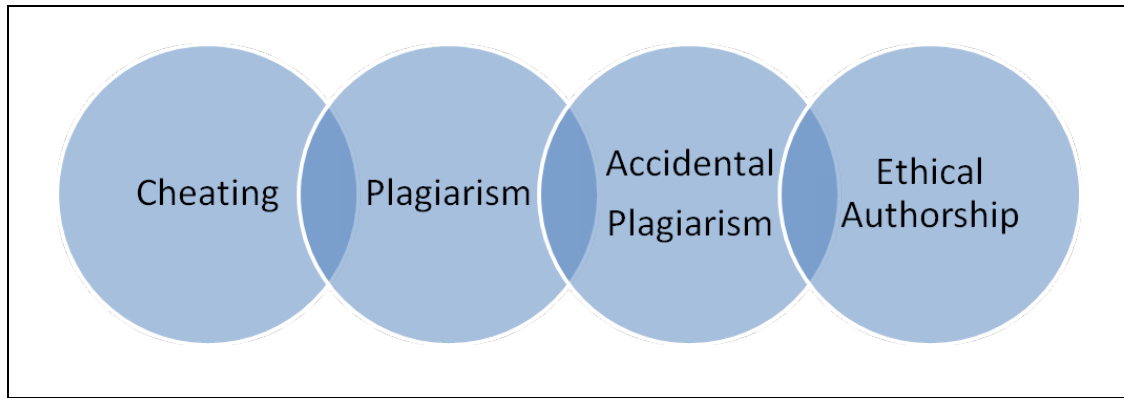


Figure 1. Ethical Authorship Continuum

Authorship Ethics in Graduate Education

In graduate school, the integrity of both students and faculty takes on some of the highest stakes during two core processes: conducting research and writing it up for publication in the thesis and dissertation process (Love & Simmons, 1998; McCabe et al., 2006; Sheard et al., 2003). Although these research processes appear to be closely monitored, recent events and studies suggest that the second part of the process—the reporting of research—may receive less attention than the first and be vulnerable to issues of academic misconduct. In the last five years, for example, computerized detection services such as Turnitin and human text analysis have helped detect plagiarism in dozens of published master's theses (Holmberg & McCullough, 2005). In 2006, one high-profile public institution, Ohio University, was forced to ask for rewrites, revoke diplomas, and discipline faculty in a scandal that involved 39 students and dated back 20 years (Wasley,

2007). These cases raise an even larger question: If universities fail to cultivate authorship ethics among graduate students, what kind of scholars do they produce?

Why should universities, especially graduate schools, single out plagiarism as an academic integrity priority over other kinds of cheating behavior? Research suggests that plagiarism is the most confusing of all types of academic misconduct for both faculty and students to define and identify (Brown & Howell, 2001; McCabe et al., 2003; Roig, 2001; Shi, 2011). This confusion, in part, leads to a reluctance or inability to effectively address the problem (Nadelson, 2007). Unfortunately, preach-and-police approaches often simply violate trust and do not succeed in helping students develop authorship values and norms (Williams, 2008). Indeed, recent studies have shown that neither warnings, nor policing, nor software detection programs offer a “magic bullet” (Warn, 2006). Scattershot or global approaches also have limited impact on helping students construct their own authorship ethics system across the disciplines (Jamieson, 2008). She wrote that “One size does not fit all” (p. 77). The most successful strategies thus far have been targeted ethics education interventions across a range of activities, including use of educational (not legalistic) policy statements (Brown & Howell, 2001), guided discussion (Evans & Youmans, 2000), honor codes (McCabe et al., 2003), and online tutorials (Dee & Jacob, 2010).

Theoretical Framework

Scholars across the disciplines have recently come to view academic integrity, including authorship problems and plagiarism, as a developmental issue (Blum, 2009; Cummings et al., 2010; Howard, 2010a; Marsh, 2007; McCabe, 2005; Pecorari, 2003;

Pennington, 2010; Pittman, Elander, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2009; Power, 2009; Roig, 2001; Shi, 2011; Warn, 2006; Williams, 2008). Further, the development of a moral identity, including an academic ethos, is clearly a core competency for future educational leaders. In this study, two theories are integrated to create a research framework for understanding the link between moral reasoning and authorship/plagiarism issues: cognitive moral development and transformational leadership/leadership ethics. Although the first theory has a long research tradition, the second is relatively new and offers a fresh approach to thinking about authors, ethical dilemmas, and scholarship.

Cognitive Moral Development

Jean Piaget: A cognitive development view of morality. Jean Piaget, the pioneering 20th century developmental psychologist, first articulated a modern, empirical view of morality as a cognitive developmental process in his seminal work, *The Moral Judgment of a Child* (1932/1965). To gather his data, Piaget conducted a series of empirical observations of and conversations with children along the developmental range, interacting early in life with their parents and later with their peers. Based on everyday interactions, like games of marbles, he witnessed children going through two primary phases in their moral development. The first phase is a morality based on “relations of constraint” (p. 395), in which preschoolers learn to follow the rules of adults, or risk getting caught and punished, and do not question this paradigm of justice. The second phase is a morality based on “relations of cooperation” (p. 395), in which 7- to 10-year-olds learn to negotiate and finesse the rules out of a sense of fairness, autonomy, and respect for each other as equals. Piaget believed this peer-inspired “functional equilibrium” (p. 399) laid

the groundwork for democratic cooperation in a larger society. Writing more than a half century later, leading moral psychologist Lapsley (1996) noted: “What seems startling about this account is Piaget’s claim that the more adequate, more ‘equilibrated’ moral orientation is one found not in the context of the family but rather in the peer group” (p. 18). Although Piaget still has his critics, Lapsley joined other prominent moral psychologists who agree that empirical research supports Piaget’s work on moral judgment as a cognitive developmental process (Lapsley & Narvaez, 2004; Nucci & Narvaez, 2008; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 1994). Yet, the moral development process is not as simple as physical maturation; hence, older is not necessarily wiser, as the next generation of researchers discovered with more powerful empirical tools.

Lawrence Kohlberg: Six stages of Moral Reasoning. Initially, U.S. educators and psychologists were slow to embrace Piaget’s work (Thoma, personal communication, 2012). In the 1960s, however, after several scholars translated it from French to English, Piaget’s thinking sparked new research directions for a young generation of scientists. Among them was Lawrence Kohlberg, a graduate psychology student at the University of Chicago. A veteran of World War II and a witness to Nazi atrocities, Kohlberg (1976) was driven by moral questions and found answers in Piaget’s theory of morality as a process of intellectual maturation. For his dissertation, he created a method of interviewing people about their reactions to complex moral dilemmas, calling it the Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) method (Kohlberg, 1969). Using this method, discourse analysis, and a complicated scoring protocol, Kohlberg documented six stages of moral reasoning, from novice to expert: Stage 1, heteronomous morality (egocentric); Stage 2, individualistic morality (transactional); Stage 3, interpersonal morality (maintaining personal norms);

Stage 4, social system morality (maintaining local society norms); Stage 5, human rights and social welfare morality (advocate for universal values beyond borders); and Stage 6, principled morality (a hypothetical justice-for-all goal). For 20 years, Kohlberg conducted hundreds of studies and held fast to stage theory, as it proved to be true based on longitudinal studies, interventions with pre- and posttests, and studies across cultures and nations. By the early 1980s, Kohlberg was credited for developing “what is arguably one of the most important theories in the history of psychology” (Lapsley & Narvaez, 2004, p. 40). Yet Kohlberg drew heavy criticism on a variety of issues (Lapsley, 1996; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006): gender bias (his studies had focused mostly on men); methodology (his scoring method was constantly criticized and revised); overemphasis on structuralism (his obsession with a progression through hard stages). It was left to one of his graduate students, James R. Rest, to reinvigorate his program and create a new paradigm that took moral development to the next level.

James R. Rest: The Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the Four-Component Model of Morality. In the 1970s, Rest began to expand on Kohlberg’s moral reasoning work, eventually suggesting another paradigm shift by identifying the four component processes involved in moral behavior. Previously, Rest and his graduate students had transformed Kohlberg’s interview/dilemma methodology into a paper-and-pencil cognitive assessment known as the DIT (Rest, 1979). Ease of administration and scoring facilitated even more systematic research; this disciplined approach, coupled with rigorous validation and reliability checks, soon resulted in general acceptance in the scholarly community of the DIT’s effectiveness in measuring moral judgment (Rest et al., 1999). As a graduate student, Rest had studied under Kohlberg, but amicably broke away from

him in the early 1980s after more than a decade of collaboration (Thoma, personal communication, 2012). By 1986, after a decade of research and a synthesis of over 500 studies in the United States and 20 other countries, Rest concluded that “moral judgment (as defined by our psychological constructs) is a robust phenomenon for which the DIT provides a useful assessment” (1986, p. xii). Today, researchers have access to an improved DIT-2, and the instrument continues to be one of the most popular measures for assessing ethical thinking skills (Bebeau, Rest, & Narvaez, 1999; Rest et al., 1999; Rogers, 2002; Thoma, 2006). They now see moral reasoning as being comprised of more than just bedrock or macro-morality (See Figure 2), but also including professional ethical constructs, such as privacy and informed consent, and surface-level ethics, or micro-morality, such as everyday manners and rules.

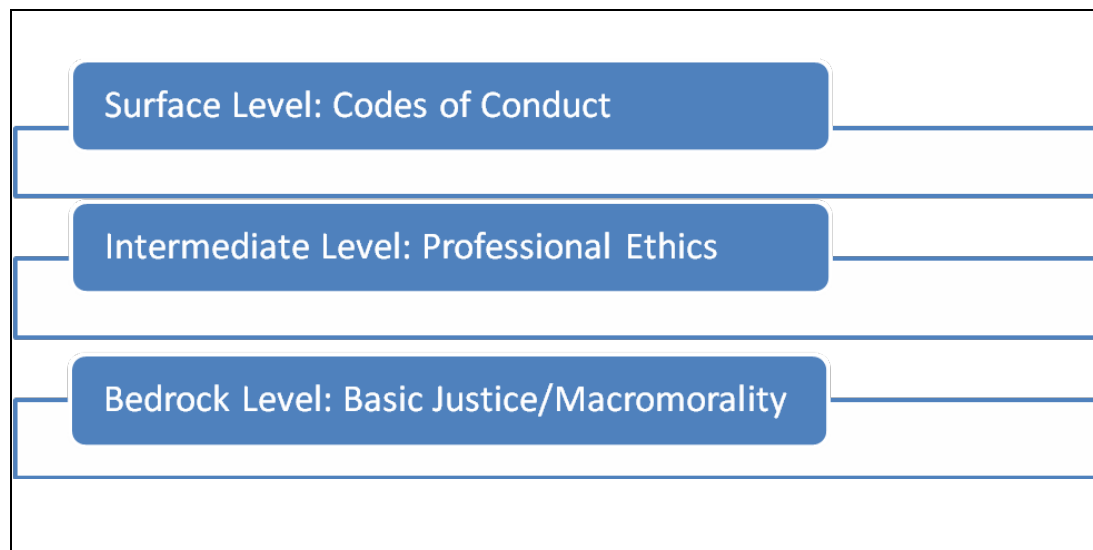


Figure 2. A Look Inside Moral Reasoning.

*Based on description from Thoma, S. (2006). Research on the Defining Issues Test.

During this time, however, critics of their research charged that the DIT focused too narrowly on one aspect of moral development—moral judgment—and failed to answer the central question of what predicts moral behavior. Indeed, in studies of moral reasoning and behavior, links between the two proved to be consistent, but modest, with correlations averaging 0.3-.0.4 (Rest & Narvaez, 1994, p. 21). In response to the critics, Rest reviewed and synthesized two decades of empirical research in psychology—including not just cognitive-developmental research, but also “research on morality in social learning, behavioristic, psychoanalytic, and social psychological approaches” (Rest & Narvaez, 1994, p. 22). Rest had one question in mind: “What must we suppose happens psychologically in order for moral behavior to take place?” (p. 23). Based on this review, he described a new umbrella concept (See Figure 3) called the Four-Component Model of Morality (Rest, 1983). The model included Kohlberg’s stage theory as the second of four distinct processes of decision making and action: (a) moral sensitivity; (b) moral judgment; (c) moral motivation; and (d) moral character, which is now called action (Rest, 1986). Rest, a colleague at Minnesota, Muriel J. Bebeau, and two graduate students, Darcia Narvaez and Steve Thoma, began to promote the Four-Component Model as a heuristic and a research framework in what came to be known as “the Minnesota approach” (Thoma, 2002). Rest founded the University of Minnesota’s Center for the Study of Ethical Development (now located at the University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa) and conducted three decades of research in the field before his death in 1999. By then, the Neo-Kohlbergians, as this team of scholars would be called, had spiraled up from Kohlberg in at least a half dozen important ways. Chief among them was a pursuit of a broad-

er, holistic, evidenced-based approach to measuring and assessing all four psychological processes involved in moral behavior.

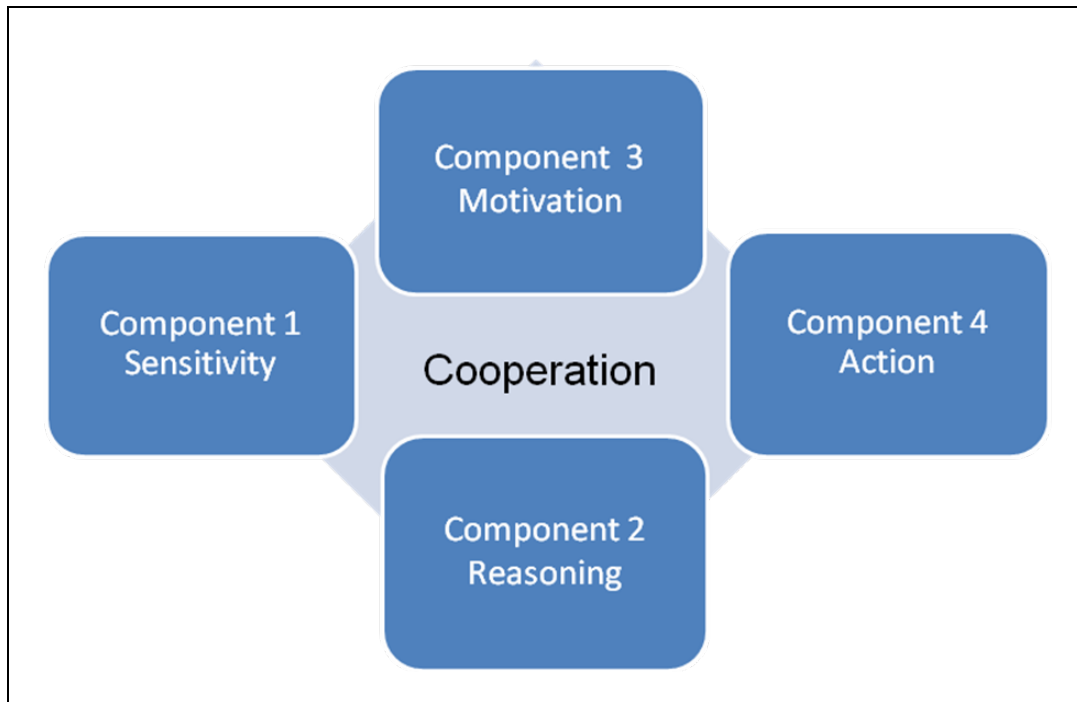


Figure 3. Four Component Model of Morality.

*Adapted from Thoma, S. (2006). Research on the Defining Issues Test.

The Neo-Kohlbergians & Schema Theory. Shortly before his death, Rest helped his colleagues complete a seminal work, *Postconventional Moral Thinking* (1999), which synthesized data from hundreds of studies using the DIT and repositioned their approach to moral psychology as Neo-Kohlbergian. Prior to this time, they had been known as proponents of the “Minnesota Approach” because their research came out of the University of Minnesota. From Kohlberg, they kept a focus on cognition and the role of the individual in constructing his or her view of morality. They also maintained Kohlberg’s emphasis on moral development as a life-span growth process and continued to assert that late

adolescence and young adulthood offered an opportunity to shift from conventional moral thinking to more advanced or postconventional thinking or the idea “that rules, roles, laws, and institutions must serve some shareable idea of cooperation” (p. 2). Rest and his colleagues (1999) broke, however, with Kohlberg in a half dozen important ways, and chief among these was a shift away from a hard stage theory of growth in moral reasoning to a softer schema theory (See Figure 4).

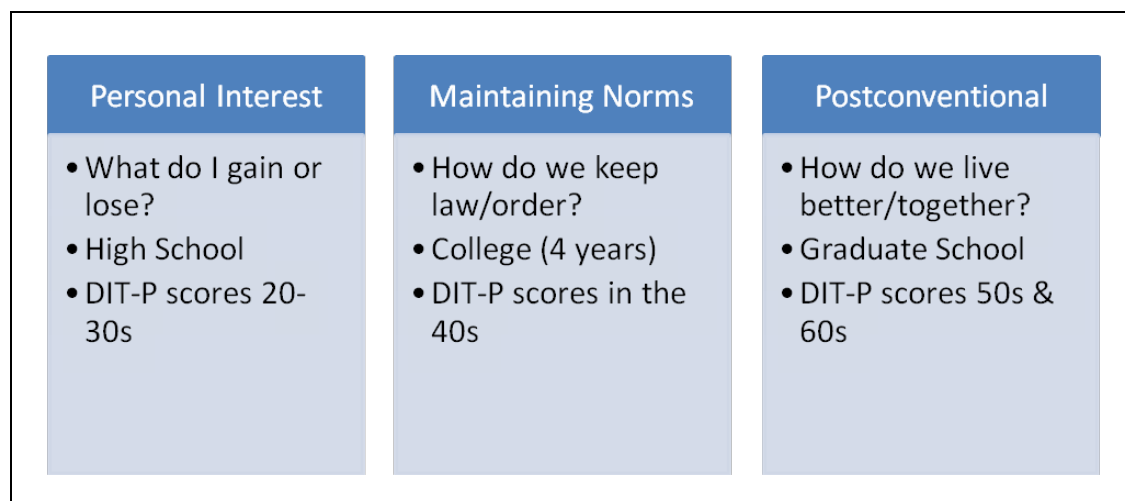


Figure 4. Moral Schema Theory.

*Based on description from Rest et al. (1999). Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach.

These Neo-Kohlbergian breaks included the continued preference for DIT methodology (instead of interview data) and the systematic and rigorous validation of the DIT for construct validity, adjusting theory to conform to the instrument’s evidence instead of adjusting the instrument to support theory (Thoma, 2006). Recognizing that moral judgment typically explained only 5% to 20% of the variance of behavior measure (Rest et al., 1999), they integrated other social-psychological theories (regarding domains and

culture) into their thinking. Importantly, the Neo-Kohlbergians reconceptualized the general knowledge structures that people draw on to make moral decisions by introducing moral schema theory. First proposed by F. A. Bartlett in 1932 (Bartlett, as cited in Rest et al., 1999), schema theory has since been well documented to explain behavior based on the construction of broad knowledge structures (such as categories, stereotypes, or worldviews) that are activated by external stimuli and facilitate quick and consistent decision making. The Neo-Kohlbergians argued that people essentially draw on one or more of three schemas—Personal Preference, Maintaining Norms, and Postconventional or principled thinking—to make decisions. Subsequent analysis of a mega-sample, 44,000, confirmed that the items on the DIT did, indeed, cluster around these three schemas (Rest, Thoma, & Edwards, 1997).

It is important to understand the difference between the sample's preferred schema, conventional moral thinking, and postconventional moral thinking, as described by the Neo-Kohlbergians (Rest et al., 1999). Conventional thinking is a hierarchal, rules-based, follow-the-book preference, which allows for uniform decision making, but offers little flexibility for resolving changing social mores or moral dilemmas that arise from legitimate, competing interests in diverse groups of people. By contrast, postconventional moral thinking draws a wider circle of cooperation around his or her world (See Figure 5). Postconventional thinking respects social norms, but places a "primacy" on moral criteria (in contrast with more pragmatic claims), and draws on "shared ideals" that are "fully reciprocal" (not hierarchal) and given to reflection, or "open to scrutiny," based on logical criticism or the collective experience of the community (Thoma, 2006, p. 79). In theory, postconventional moral thinking recognizes the possibility of an unjust rule or law

(American examples include 19th century child labor laws or 20th century segregation laws); hence, the more advanced schema would enable an educational leader to solve new and complex moral dilemmas that are beyond the scope of a traditional normative guides, such as a policy manual.

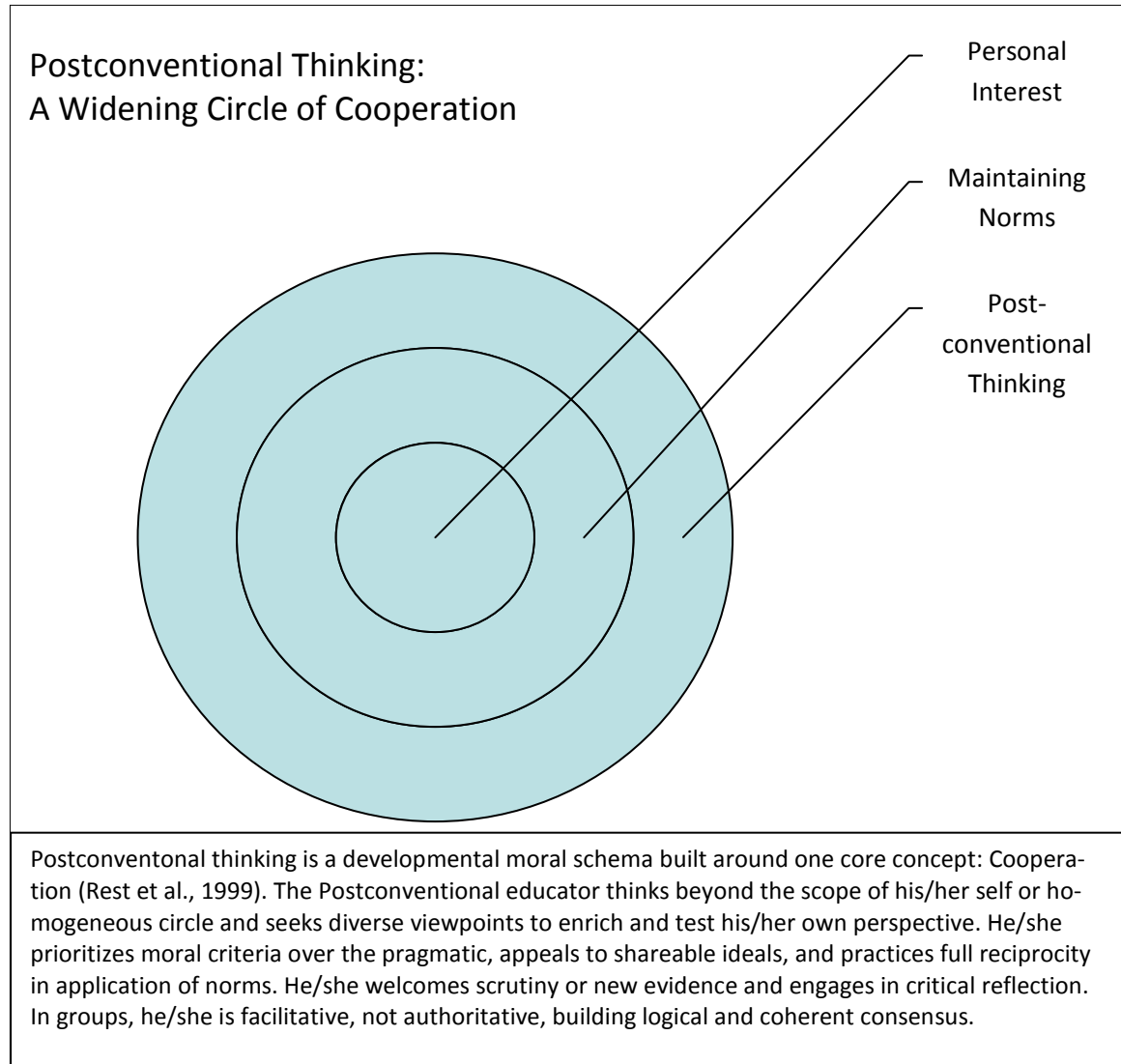


Figure 5. Postconventional thinking: A widening circle of cooperation.

*Based on description from Rest et al. (1999). Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach.

Finally, the Four-Component Model of Morality, was proposed as a new process paradigm for research and has since become a heuristic for ethics education curricula. Researchers in professional development (Bebeau 1993,1994, 2002; Bebeau & Monson, 2008; Bebeau & Thoma, 1994; Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999), began to devise instruments to measure other components—sensitivity, motivation, and character or action—in the context of professions like dentistry, accounting, law, medicine, nursing, and teaching. In fields like teacher education, for example, researchers have devised educational interventions that have achieved gains in moral problem solving (as measured by the DIT) in as little as 5 weeks (Cummings et al., 2010). Yet, to date, the Four-Component Model of Morality and the DIT have not been used to assess and develop curriculum for educational leadership graduate students who are undergoing an important transformation: While they are becoming leaders, they are also becoming scholars.

Transformational Leadership and Leadership Ethics

A growing number of scholars (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Burns, 1978; Gardner, 2008; Gill, 2006; Johnson, 2009; Keohane, 2006; Northouse, 2010) believe that ethics lies at “the heart of leadership” (Ciulla, 1995, p. 6) and that a shared sense of moral values inspires collective action by both leaders and followers. This contemporary emphasis on moral leadership stems, in part, from Burns’ seminal work (1978) in the field of leadership, *Leadership*. In this work, Burns tacitly endorsed the work of Kohlberg, but admitted that, for a leader, discerning collective moral purpose was not an easy task. Burns stated: “If the first task of leadership is to bring to consciousness the followers’ sense of

their own needs, values and purposes, the question remains: consciousness of what?” (p. 41).

Almost two decades later, Burns’ protégé, Joanne B. Ciulla, began to reframe the issue of “moral leadership” when she asserted that “ethics are the heart of leadership studies and not an appendage” (1995, p. 6). Ciulla, who blogs on leadership for *The Washington Post*, is a critic and theory builder, coining the term “leadership ethics” and carving out a niche for it. For students of leadership, she wrote, “the ultimate question is not ‘What is leadership?’ but ‘What is good leadership?’” (p. 5). Then, however, does “good” mean effective or ethical? To answer her questions, Ciulla (1995) conducted a literature search of 1,800 article abstracts (in business, political science, religion, philosophy, psychology, anthropology and sociology). In the process, she found that “there has been little in the way of sustained and systematic treatment” (p. 5) of ethics in the field of leadership studies. Given the frequency and the size of the moral failures of modern leaders, Ciulla (1995) found this avoidance of the question troubling. She suggested that leadership ethics may be a new field in applied ethics (similar to business ethics in the mid-1970s) and that leadership ethics might also serve as a source of critical theory in the field. A decade later, when she took stock of where the new field of leadership ethics lay, Ciulla (2005, p. 33s) cited Barbara Kellerman’s research on “bad leadership” as a point of contemporary reference for a new ethics/effectiveness framework. Ciulla grounded her thinking classically, in Aristotle, who believed moral and technical excellences were inseparable. She quoted the great philosopher “every excellence brings to good the thing to which it is the excellence” (Ciulla, 2004, p. 333). In simpler terms, she said, the ability to do something well inspires in a leader the desire to do it well, and that action, in turn, in-

spires him or her to well being, or good leadership. If Ciulla is right, then leadership ethics also brings a great deal to bear on academic integrity in the context of graduate scholarship.

Educational Leadership and Scholarship

If teachers are viewed as moral leaders, then future educational leaders, such as those who aspire to be school principals, superintendents, deans, department chairs, and administrators face an even higher bar for mastery of professional integrity (Bertram Galant, 2008a, 2011; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Ciulla, 2005; Gardner, 2008; Gill, 2006; Johnson, 2009; Keohane, 2006; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008; Northouse, 2010; ELCC, 2010; ISLLC, 2008). Yet mastery of an ethical mind is probably the last—and the most difficult—developmental achievement (Gardner, p. 128). Gardner has spent more than a decade studying why some people do “good work,” which he defined as excellent, responsible, and engaging, and why others do “compromised work.” With so many ethical scandals in the United States in the first decade of the 21st century, Gardner said that few issues are more urgent than ethics education: “No magic formula guarantees an ethical mind. Our studies show that good work is most likely to come about when all the parties involved with a profession want the same thing” (p. 146).

Currently, training for EDL/EDA doctoral students in nationally accredited programs is based on a series of eight standards developed by the Educational Leadership Constituents Council of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (2010). Among these standards, Standard Eight articulates an expectation that educational leaders will be responsible for “a school vision of learning,” “school culture and instruc-

tional program,” and “best practices” for management along with “understanding dispositions of integrity, fairness and ethical practice” (p. 28). Additional provisions for leading educators call for them to “model principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior,” based on Standard Five of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards (2008), developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers. Proactively, some EDL/EDA doctoral programs offer courses in ethical decision making, yet it is unclear how well-equipped today’s students are to handle the wide range of moral dilemmas they will face daily as future educational leaders (Johnson, 2009).

Chief among the challenges these doctoral students will be charged with is leadership in academic integrity, a core competency for any educational institution. Hence, one important area for inquiry in higher education EDL/EDA faculty members is how well they assess and instruct students in the professional academic integrity standards involved in completing advanced degrees. This is important because EDL/EDA doctoral students will no longer just be teachers, but they will assume new identities and researchers and scholars. They will assume this new identity in the process of writing high-stakes research papers, theses, dissertations, and comprehensive exams.

Ethical decision making calls for many skills, but among the most important is moral reasoning, or the ability to find the most principled course of action in complex moral dilemmas that often seem to pit right against right (Rest et al., 1999). Recently, moral reasoning in teachers has been a cause for concern among faculty who have reviewed over two decades of research on lower than average scores for teachers (Cummings et al., 2007). Although their scores are lower than many disciplines, teachers are as advanced ethically as their peers in nursing, for example. Nevertheless, Cummings et al.

remained concerned about the “consistently-found lower levels” of moral reasoning demonstrated by education majors (p. 75). They speculated that two phenomena may be at work: first, teaching attracts students who seek a more family-oriented and less intellectually rigorous career; second, the typical teacher education curriculum is technical-skill oriented, not critical and reflective, hence, does not foster moral development. On a positive note, Cummings et al. employed the DIT-2 and an online ethics intervention; they were able to document posttest gains in students in moral reasoning after only five weeks of instruction.

Hence, although moral reasoning and academic integrity have been studied in teachers, these variables have yet to be studied in educational leadership doctoral students. Few studies could be found that addressed the issue of academic integrity with education graduate students. One older study, Love and Simmons (1998) explored the factors that positively and negatively influence cheating and plagiarism by interviewing six first-year graduate students in the College of Education at Middle State University. They based their questioning on constructs developed from a previously used instrument, the Academic Misconduct Survey. Specifically, they interviewed master’s students from health education, rehabilitation counseling, and community counseling (two from each program, three females and three males). Among factors students thought contributed to cheating and plagiarism were pressure (relating to both grades and time), a lack of awareness of standards, negative personal attitudes, and leniency by faculty. Among factors that students thought inhibited academic misconduct were personal confidence, a sense of fairness to authors and other scholars (including the institution as a whole), a desire to learn, fear and guilt, and the risk of getting caught. Curiously, students viewed

their socialization in scholarly ethics as largely informal, or ad hoc, indicating that many faculty members avoided discussing these issues. The authors concluded by asserting that graduate faculty who take a neutral or hands-off position on academic integrity risk allowing a dominant student culture to prevail—ethical or otherwise.

Summary: Developing Ethical Leaders and Scholars

In sum, if future educational leaders are to create ethical school climates, conduct action research to address local school problems, and implement evidence-based pedagogy, they must develop as scholars as well as leaders. Today, higher education faculty have access to an empirically proven assessment for testing moral problem-solving (the DIT-2) and a curricular framework (the Four-Component Model of Morality) with the potential to enhance students' ethical decision making across the curriculum. This study used these tools, grounded in Neo-Kohlbergian moral development theory, along with transformational leadership ethics, to research the link between educational leaders' moral problem-solving strategies and their authorship ethics in a graduate school setting. The findings of this study will inform the question of how to better prepare EDL/EDA students for moral leadership in the area of academic and scholarly integrity.

METHODS

Introduction

The researcher's goals with this study were to (a) describe the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of educational leadership/administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in one state in the South, including a comparison with national norms; (b) create a baseline profile of these students' academic and authorship practices; and (c) document participants' responses to an ethical academic authorship and leadership dilemma. Further, given prior research documenting a link between moral problem solving and behavior (Bebeau, 2002; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006), the researcher sought to analyze the students' moral problem-solving strategies to see if their preferred schema influenced their academic and authorship practices as well as their ethical decision making in an authorship and leadership integrity context. Through the choice of research questions and instruments, the researcher also attempted to reframe the problem of plagiarism as a situated professional ethical development issue (Rest & Narvaez, 1994) for purposes of future research and curriculum development with EDL/EDA graduate students. To the researcher's knowledge, this study was the first of its kind to use evidenced-based moral schema theory (Thoma, 2006) and a well-validated test of moral reasoning, the DIT-2, to gauge EDL/EDA students' moral reasoning in the context of academic integrity in graduate school, specifically practices relating to authorship and leadership ethics. A quantitative approach—a correlational, explanatory study—was used to lay the groundwork for future studies.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following questions served to guide this study:

Question 1: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of educational leadership/administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2)?

Question 2: How do the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South compare with national norms, based on historic composites of scores on the DIT-2?

Question 3: What are the characteristic academic and authorship practices reported by EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the Academic Practices Survey?

Question 4: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South when deciding on an intermediate concept, such as plagiarism, based on their scores on the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma?

The following hypotheses served to guide this study:

Hypothesis 1: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score lower on academic dishonesty, as measured by the Academic Practices Survey. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no negative relationship between DIT-2 and Academic Practices Survey scores.

Hypothesis 2: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score higher the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma. Or, as stated in the

null form, there is no positive relationship between the DIT-2 scores and the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma scores.

Participants

A "census study" (Creswell, 2008, p. 394) was employed to test and survey all master's and doctoral students enrolled in EDL/EDA programs in one state in the South. These students included those seeking either a master's degree, a doctorate of education (EdD), or a doctorate of philosophy (PhD). This design was warranted because the population is relatively small and easily identified. Like other types of census, this study design permitted conclusions to be drawn about an entire population. Participants included EDL/EDA master's and doctoral students at the five advanced degree-granting institutions in the state, which are randomly listed below:

- University #1 is an urban medical center and public research university;
- University #2 is a public research and teaching university;
- University #3 is a public land-grant and research university;
- University #4 is a private, faith-affiliated university;
- University #5 is a historically black university.

The estimated population size was 500-600, which is of sufficient size for use of correlational statistics and interpretations about the population of future educational leaders in one Southern state.

Instruments

Defining Issues Test (DIT). First developed by Rest in the early 1970s, the DIT measures levels of moral reasoning and builds on the ground-breaking psychological theories of cognitive moral development by Piaget (1932/1965) in children and Kohlberg (1969, 1976) in adults. Like Kohlberg's moral interview research, the DIT is based on participants' critical analysis of complex ethical dilemmas. In contrast to Kohlberg's qualitative process, however, the DIT is a quantitative, paper-and-pencil test (now also offered online) that relies on recognition data, not interview data; researchers say this is an advantage in that recognition data taps into more automatic and regular daily decision making (Rest et al., 1999). Additionally, although Kohlberg thought his interview process actually measured moral behavior, Neo-Kohlbergian researchers now recognize that the DIT measures only one of four key components in moral behavior, moral problem solving (Rest, 1983, 1986; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006). Evidence shows that moral problem solving, as described in Rest's Four Component Model of Morality, exists along with at least three other components—moral sensitivity, moral motivation, and moral character or action—in any ethical action (Rest, 1986; Thoma). After more than four decades, the DIT is the most widely used measure of moral reasoning (Thoma). Given that moral reasoning is one of the most teachable of the four components, the DIT it is commonly employed to establish moral development baselines and also assess the effectiveness of instructional interventions (Bebeau. 2002; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma). Today, the updated DIT-2, developed by Rest & Narvaez in 1998, is the preferred form of the test. The newer version also relies on dilemma analysis, but it draws on moral schema theory for interpretation of scores, instead of Kohlberg's stage theory

(Thoma). This change was based on factor analysis of an extremely large sample (44,000 participants) that indicated the items on the DIT cluster around three moral schemas: P score (for Postconventional or advanced thinking), a MN score (for Maintaining Norms or conventional thinking), and a PI score (for placing Personal Interest first (Rest et al., 1997). Moreover, researchers believe that moral schema theory more accurately integrates social cognition with the moral cognition process and allows researchers to measure more subtle indices of moral development (Thoma).

In the DIT-2, prompts direct participants to read six abstract, hypothetical dilemmas (such as the now retired dilemma that asked if a man should break into a pharmacy and steal a drug that might save his sick wife's life), and make a series of ethical decisions about the situations (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003). Participants engage cognitively in the moral complexity of the dilemma when they are asked to choose a course of action, then rate each of 12 course-of-action statements (from no importance to great importance), and rank the four most important action choices influencing their decision. Following the assessment, participants receive three scores that indicate the proportions of time they preferred each moral schema in their answers: a P score (for Postconventional or advanced thinking), an MN score (for Maintaining Norms or conventional thinking), and a PI score (for placing Personal Interest first). In theory, a person can score from 0 to 95 on the assessment, with the scores typically proportioned between the three schemas. The most widely reported score is the P score for advanced, or postconventional moral thinking, which research consistently shows rises with a person's level of formal education increases. Studies over the last four decades show senior high students typically scoring in the 30s, college students scoring in the 40s, and students

graduating from professional school programs in the 50s (Bebeau & Thoma). In addition to the P score for Postconventional thinking, most researchers also report a newer companion score, the N2. The N2 is highly correlated ($r = .91$) with the P score, yet it refines the P score based on the individual's ability to discriminate between high and low items, hence, demonstrates even greater construct validity (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez, & Bebeau, 1997). Additionally, three other indices are typically reported: a Utilizer or U score, a Consolidation-Transition (C-T) score, and a Moral Type indicator (Thoma & Rest, 1999). The U score is a moderator variable designed to measure the degree to which an individual might be expected to utilize his or her preferred schema, hence translate thoughts into actions. The C-T score is another variable that is analyzed to see if a person is consolidated or firm in his or her schema preference or transitioning to more advanced moral thinking. Finally, the "Moral Type" indicator blends the schema preference and the C-T score to show where an individual is in his or her moral development and whether he or she is fixed or growing. It is commonly used to measure change in pretest, posttest studies of ethics instructional interventions.

Although it is newer than the original DIT, the DIT-2's summary indices correlate highly with the older instrument $r(505) = .79, p < .01$ (Thoma, 2006). When both measures are corrected for unreliability, Thoma has indicated that reliability is even higher, .98. This correlation is important because the construct validity of the DIT and DIT-2, based on more than 1,000 studies over three decades (Rest et al., 1999), offers researchers a model for instrument development. The DIT's track record includes the following: (a) discrimination of more expert from less expert, with formal education "typically accounting for 30% to 50% of the variance in large, heterogeneous samples" (Rest et al., 1999, p.

70); (b) upward longitudinal data trends demonstrating developmental gains from formal education, from high school to graduate school; (c) receptivity to instructional interventions, based on more than 60 publications, including studies reporting as little as five weeks of intervention (Cummings et al., 2010); (d) documentation of developmental hierarchy when compared with other similar measures such as reflective judgment ($r = .46$), ego development ($r = .40$), and ethical reasoning inventory ($r = .57$); (e) correlation with behavior, such as pro-social behavior like community work, civic mindedness, and occupations with high social value; (f) links to political choice, with high P scores correlating positively with “civil libertarianism” (p. 91); and (g) reliability and internal consistency with Cronbach alphas from a composite sample of P scores ($n = 994$) in 1979 reported to be .76 and P scores ($n = 932$) in 1995 to be .78.

Demographic data. Although no research questions in this study directly involved demographic factors, a standard series of demographic questions are included in the DIT-2 for norming purposes; hence, the demographics were included in this study regarding educational level, gender, age, race, U.S. citizenship, English as a first language, and political leanings.

Academic Practices Survey (APS). Developed by Roig and DeTommaso (1995) to test a correlation between procrastination and plagiarism (which they found to be positively linked), the APS is a 24-item paper-and-pencil questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed to improve upon existing tools at the time and has the advantage of neutral and specific language to describe practices. On the first 16 items, students are asked to self-report the frequency of various degrees of plagiarism (use of unmarked text from another author). The last eight items are on cheating or less-than-honest approaches to

exam situations. Item responses are scored on a 5-point scale on which Never = 1, Almost Never = 2, Sometimes = 3, Frequently = 4, and Very Frequently = 5. Scores are calculated by adding the two subscales so that it is possible to separate out the different types of practices, with the highest scores demonstrating the strongest inclination toward unethical practices. Roig and DeTommaso reported a split-half reliability for the measure of .87, based on a Pearson product-moment correlation, and an internal consistency at a coefficient alpha of .81. No internal consistency test results were reported on the separate subscales.

Team Leader's Writing Dilemma. The researcher, working with committee members Drs. Steve Thoma, Marcia O'Neal, and Julia Austin, wrote a common, but complex ethical authorship and leadership dilemma (approximately 300 words) involving suspected plagiarism in a group writing project assigned to graduate students. The Team Leader's Writing Dilemma was an exploratory question designed to test the feasibility of development of a newer moral reasoning instrument known as an Intermediate Concept Measure (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Tests of intermediate concepts assess reasoning about problems that are typical of everyday decision-making in professional settings, such as privacy, informed consent, and conflict of interest, while the DIT-2 measures more general bedrock morality. Such measures typically include 5 or 6 dilemmas, and this study only attempted one intermediate concept dilemma as a pilot effort. The dilemma question was tested on a small focus group (9 educational psychology students and an instructor) in the spring of 2012. Participants were asked to rate and rank action and justifications for their choices. A scoring key for the dilemma was subsequently developed by asking 13 members of one university's faculty—ethics educators, rhetoric and composition teach-

ers, and reference librarians involved in teaching plagiarism avoidance—to also resolve it, and rate and rank the action choices and justifications. A consensus of expert opinions formed the key, and students were assessed on the percentage of time they agreed with the experts on the dilemma.

Relevant writing history data. The APS was followed by six questions about academic writing history and experience, including quantity and types of papers written, frequency of writing, types of instructional support, and self-reported authorship confidence levels about academic reading and writing. The questions were based on standard questions asked by academic writing instructors in graduate school to assess the experience and skill level of new students.

Data Collection Plan

Data collection began after the researcher obtained a commitment of support for access to student emails from each of the institutional gatekeepers (See Appendices B and C) and approval (See Appendix D) from the University of Alabama at Birmingham's (UAB) Institutional Review Board for Human Use (IRB). The approved plan called for EDL/EDA Students to be assessed in July and August of 2012, via a Web-based (Survey Monkey) questionnaire, which included the DIT-2, the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma, and the Academic Practices Survey, among other auxiliary questions (See Appendix E).

Recruiting participants. After receiving a short "heads up" email about the study in late June from their EDL/EDA Program Coordinator (See Appendix F), students received the first in a series of invitation emails (See Appendix G).on July 5, 2012, from the researcher with an explanation of the study, the protocol information from the IRB at

the researcher's host institution, UAB, and the link to the questionnaire on Survey Monkey. Participation was entirely voluntary. Students were informed that their decisions about participation would not jeopardize their relationship with any educational institution, including their own. They were also told that the questionnaire would take about an hour to complete. Students could elect to withdraw at any time, in accordance with the IRB protocol. The researcher recognized that the length of the questionnaire was a possible deterrence to garnering an adequate response rate (Creswell, 2009). Once the study was underway, she worked closely with her methodologist to monitor the response rate and send regular follow-up emails to noncompleters and nonresponders. Additionally, she offered an incentive in the form of a free \$5 electronic coffee coupon to all who completed the questionnaire.

Ethical Considerations

In accordance with the researcher's IRB protocol, participants' identities were protected throughout the process. The researcher kept all information that students supplied confidential and secure. She did not have any student names, only email addresses. The email addresses could not be linked with responses to any of the questionnaire items. As soon as the completion date for the study passed, all email addresses from the initial contact were immediately separated from the data base and destroyed. Email addresses supplied for the incentive were used to comply with this request, then were deleted. All other data collected from the survey were stored on secure institutional servers in password protected electronic files. Participating universities were assigned a letter for reporting response rates, and any identifying characteristics were omitted or changed for report-

ing purposes. Results are reported here as aggregated findings only (by subgroups, by a school's letter, etc.); individual responses remain confidential. The aggregated findings for a participating university are available to that institution's program coordinator upon request.

Method of Analysis

Preliminary analysis. Response rates and demographics were analyzed using descriptive statistics to determine numbers of respondents, percentages, means, and standard deviations, displayed in frequency tables.

Analysis of Question 1. What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of educational leadership/administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2)? This analysis involved descriptive statistics to determine means and standard deviations, displayed in frequency tables. Additionally, differences between P scores and N2 scores for subgroups, such as master's and doctoral students, were analyzed for significance using an independent samples *t* test. Further analysis of DIT-2 scores involved the creation of a bar graph to visualize these patterns and comparison of this figure with a rubric of bar graphs for seven "Moral Types" in the Guide for the DIT-2.

Analysis of Question 2. How do the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South compare with national norms, based on historic composites of scores on the DIT-2? This analysis involved descriptive statistics to determine means and standard deviations, displayed in frequency

tables. Additionally, an independent samples *t* test was used to determine if the difference between the sample group and the composite norm was significant.

Analysis of Question 3. What are the characteristic academic and authorship practices reported by EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the APS? This analysis involved descriptive statistics to determine means and standard deviations, displayed in frequency tables. Additionally, an independent samples *t* test was used to determine if the difference between the subgroups (master's and doctoral students) and subscales (plagiarism and cheating) represented a significant effect for education. Finally, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to see if there was a difference among groups (based on DIT-2 low, medium, and high P-score groupings) on the sub scales, cheating and plagiarism. Descriptive statistics were also employed to analyze students' writing histories and create frequency tables and figures to represent their levels of experience and confidence.

Analysis of Question 4. What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South when deciding on an intermediate concept, such as plagiarism, based on their scores on the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma? This analysis involved descriptive statistics to determine means and standard deviations, for the entire sample and two educational subgroups, displayed in frequency tables. Additionally, a one-way ANOVA was performed to test to see if there was a difference in the grand total on the Dilemma score among groups (based on DIT-2 low, medium, and high P-score groupings), the subscales for the APS. Finally, Consolidation-Transition analysis was also conducted on the Dilemma score and the DIT-2 to see if any developmental patterns emerged.

Analysis of Hypothesis 1: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score lower on academic dishonesty, as measured by the APS. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no negative relationship between DIT-2 and APS scores. A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to test this hypothesis.

Analysis of Hypothesis 2: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score higher the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma. A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to test this hypothesis. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no positive relationship between the DIT-2 scores and the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma scores.

RESULTS

Introduction

For more than three decades, moral psychologists (Bebeau, 2002; Rest, 1983; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006) have produced evidence that ethical behavior draws on at least four essential components—sensitivity, problem solving, motivation, and character or action. Among the most measurable and teachable of these components is moral problem solving, also known as moral reasoning or judgment. For educators, the capacity for ethical judgment represents more than a moral compass; it is part of the same cognitive process as rational decision making, which is the “sine qua non” of educational administration (Hoy & Miskel, 2008, p. 325). In the past, moral reasoning has been studied, using a well-validated instrument like the DIT, in preservice and working teachers (Chang, 1994; Cummings et al., 2001, 2002, 2010; McNeel, 1994; Reiman, 2002), and, to a lesser extent, in education graduate students (Bloom, 1976; Yeazell & Johnson, 1988) and school principals (Slavinsky, 2006; Vitton & Wasonga, 2009). These studies suggest that levels of moral reasoning may be lower than average in this profession, and educators can benefit dramatically from evidenced-based instructional interventions. To this researcher’s knowledge, no studies have used the DIT to evaluate moral problem solving in future school leaders, including EDL/EDA graduate students.

Moreover, no studies have examined moral problem solving in the context of a core professional competency for these educators—academic integrity. Graduate EDL/EDA students warranted investigation not only because they will provide leadership

on academic integrity issues and policy (Bertram Gallant, 2008, 2011; Johnson, 2009; McCabe, 2005; Shapiro & Stekovitch, 2011; Starratt, 2004; Strike, et al., 2005), but also because they themselves are becoming scholars. Unlike undergraduate students, graduate students face numerous high-stakes written assessments of their learning, expectations for mastery of discipline-specific academic literacy practices, and the acquisition of new identities as researchers and potential contributors to scholarship (Yancey, 2008; Casanave & Li, 2008; Howard, 2008; Hyland, 2004; Mullen, 2001, 2006; Pennington, 2010).

Accordingly, this correlational explanatory study sought to create a baseline profile of moral problem solving for one group of EDL/EDA graduate students and to describe the relationship between moral problem solving and academic integrity, including authorship practices, for them. The research involved the administration of an online questionnaire to EDL/EDA graduate students in five advanced degree-granting schools in one Southern state. The questionnaire relied primarily on two existing measures, the updated DIT-2 (Rest & Narvaez, 1998), and the APS (Roig & DeTommaso, 1995). An exploratory authorship/leadership dilemma question, developed by the researcher to test an intermediate ethical concept (dealing with group plagiarism), was added, along with six questions about students' writing history and confidence. Two additional sets of data were gathered on demographics and online test-taking conditions. The analyses that follow document the results of this study. Because the participating schools and respondents were assured confidentiality, the results are presented only in aggregate or by subgroups. Any lists of the institutions are presented in a random order, which does not correspond with any other description of them in this report.

In general, descriptive analyses were conducted to document the response rate to the research questionnaire and describe the characteristic demographics and writing histories of this sample of educational leadership/administration graduate students. Additional descriptive analyses were executed to create frequency distributions for three profiles: one of the participants' moral problem solving strategies, one of their academic practices, and one of their responses to the ethical writing and leadership dilemma. Selected inferential statistics, including *t* tests of independent samples, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and Pearson product-moment correlations, were employed to further investigate possible differences and relationships as they emerged from the descriptive statistics. Correlations among the three profiles were computed to respond to the two hypotheses.

Response Rate and Characteristics of Sample

Following IRB approval, a total of 540 email addresses were collected for this census study of educational leadership/administration students in the five advanced degree-granting schools in one Southern state. After the exclusion of one ineligible address, a total of 539 participants were contacted via email between July 5, 2012, and August 21, 2012, and invited to participate. During this 6-week period, an initial recruiting email was sent to all participants and three follow-up requests were emailed to nonrespondents and noncompleters. Each recruitment email contained a link to the questionnaire in Survey Monkey, which automatically allowed students to opt out of receiving future emails.

In all, 205 students responded, with 10 electing not to participate. As shown in Table 1, a total of 195 respondents initially indicated that they would take the study, for an overall response rate of approximately one third (36%). Response rates varied by

schools from less than a third (30%) at School E to almost half (49%) at School D. Actual completion rates, however, were lower and fluctuated across the three main assessments in the questionnaire. This was not unexpected, given the length of the questionnaire (See Appendix E); it began with the DIT-2, followed by the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma, the APS, then optional questions about demographics, writing confidence and history, and test-taking environment. For the purposes of answering the research questions, this investigator chose to start with the subgroup that completed the DIT-2 ($n = 113$), for a complete response rate of approximately one fifth (21%).

Table 1

Respondents and Response Rate by School and Overall

School	Number Sent	Number Responded	Response Rate	Number Completed*	Response Rate Completed
School A	47	19	40.43%	9	19.15%
School B	80	24	30.00%	12	15.00%
School C	126	49	38.89%	28	22.22%
School D	94	46	48.94%	29	30.85%
School E	192	57	29.53%	35	18.23%
Total	539	195	36.18%	113	20.96%

*Number Completed is based on the number of respondents who finished the DIT-2.

Demographic factors, such as educational level, gender, language, and political frames, have been previously linked to levels of moral judgment (Rest et al., 1999). Although no research questions in this study directly involved individual demographic fac-

tors, a standard series of demographic questions accompany the DIT-2 for norming purposes, and these were included as optional items. As Table 2 indicates, 82 respondents answered all of them. Of those respondents, more than two thirds, 71%, self-identified as White, with most of the remaining self-identifying as Black. The average age of the group was 41, with two thirds (66%) female and one third (34%) male. The majority (59%) were seeking a master's degree; whereas, the remaining pursued a doctorate (PhD or EdD). Five students reported "other" for educational level (but no specific levels), and they were not included in any analysis broken down by master's and doctoral levels. All respondents considered English their primary language, which was important for comparative analysis with national norms, and all but one was a U.S. citizen. Finally, students were asked to indicate a direction of their political views as "very conservative," "somewhat conservative," "neither conservative nor liberal," "somewhat liberal," or "very liberal." A larger number ($n = 97$) responded to this question. Nearly half of the sample (48%) identified as somewhat or very conservative, with 20% identifying as politically neutral, and 32% as somewhat or very liberal.

Research Questions with Variables and Analysis

Moral problem-solving based on the Defining Issues Test (DIT). The first research question addressed in this study was the following: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the DIT-2? As indicated previously, the DIT-2 returns

Table 2

Characteristics of EDL/EDA Graduate Students Reporting Complete Demographics

Demographics	Number of Subjects	Percentage of Total	Mean (SD)
Education			
Master's	48	58.50%	
Doctoral	34	41.50%	
Total	82	100.00%	
Gender			
Male	28	34.10%	
Female	54	65.90%	
Total	82	100.00%	
Age			41.16 (9.17)
Race			
White	58	70.70%	
Black	23	28.00%	
Asian or Pacific Islander	1	1.20%	
Total	82	99.90%*	
Citizenship Status			
U.S. Citizen	81	98.80%	
Non-Citizen	1	1.20%	
Total	82	100.00%	
English Primary Language Totals	82	100.00%	
Political Frame			
Very Conservative	14	14.40%	
Somewhat Conservative	33	34.00%	
Neither Conservative or Liberal	19	19.60%	
Somewhat Liberal	27	27.80%	
Very Liberal	4	4.10%	
Total	97	100.00%	

*Percentage total is less than 100.0 due to rounding error.

scores for three moral judgment schemas: Personal Interest (PI), Maintaining Norms (MN), and the more advanced Postconventional thinking (P), which is the most widely used score and the primary outcome variable for this study. The P score is reported as a percentage, or the extent to which a person prefers Postconventional thinking, which prioritizes moral ideals and relies on theoretical frameworks for resolving complex moral issues (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003; Rest et al., 1999). In theory, the P score can range from 0 to 95, but historically, scores increase by educational level with senior high students averaging in the 30s, college students averaging in the 40s, students graduating from professional programs averaging in the 50s, and moral philosophy/political science doctoral students averaging in the 60s (Bebeau & Thoma). In addition to the P score, the newer, more rigorous N2 score, which is highly correlated ($r = .91$) with the P score (Rest et al., 1999), is also reported as it has consistently demonstrated greater construct validity (Rest et al., 1997; Thoma, 2006).

The sample's DIT-2 scores and summary statistics were provided by the Office for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama as part of the scoring service for use with the instrument and the office's ongoing norming process. As can be seen in Table 3, mean scores for the entire sample ($n = 113$) clustered around the Maintaining Norms schema ($M = 39.16$, $SD = 12.33$), indicating that it is the group's preferred schema for default decision-making. The remainder of the scores almost split between the more advanced Postconventional thinking ($M = 29.98$, $SD = 13.70$) and the less advanced Personal Interest schema ($M = 25.50$, $SD = 11.27$). As expected in this sample, the N2 score ($M = 29.27$, $SD = 13.69$), was highly correlated with the P score ($M = 29.98$, $SD = 13.70$), given the observed value ($r = .89$) in this sample. Individually, P scores for the

Table 3

Preferred Problem-Solving Schemas: DIT-2 Score Mean Proportions and Standard Deviations for EDL/EDA Graduate Students

Score	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	113	25.50	11.27
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	113	39.16	12.33
Post Conventional (P score)	113	29.98	13.70
N2 score (N2 score)	113	29.27	13.69

Note. DIT-2 = Defining Issues Test-2; EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

group of 113 respondents ranged widely from a low score of 6 to a high score of 66. Given that formal education is the single most important predictor of higher P scores (Rest et al., 1999), a descriptive analysis and *t* test of independent samples were conducted for scores on those reporting educational levels ($n = 90$), master's degree and doctoral degree (PhD and EdD). As Table 4 shows, master's students ($n = 51$) demonstrated a higher proportion of items selected that appeal to Postconventional thinking ($M = 32.47$, $SD = 14.80$) than did doctoral students ($n = 39$, $M = 28.92$, $SD = 13.56$), but the difference was not statistically significant. The observed value of *t* was 1.17, which was less than the critical value of *t* ($df = 88$, $\alpha = .05$) = 1.99.

An additional analysis was performed on the DIT-2 scores to identify possible patterns of change in the respondents' moral judgment, such as whether students were consolidated or fixed in their schema preference, or transitioning to a higher schema. As adults develop through their lives, they might be expected to move from consolidated profiles to transitional profiles as a function of moral growth (Thoma & Rest, 1999). This

Table 4

Comparison of Respondents' Moral Judgment Schemas by Educational Level: EDL/EDA Master's and Doctoral Students

Educational Level & Schema	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Master's			
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	51	25.37	11.44
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	51	36.67	12.57
Post Conventional (P score)	51	32.47	14.80
N2 score (N2 score)	51	30.08	14.87
Doctoral			
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	39	26.26	11.32
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	39	40.15	11.90
Post Conventional (P score)	39	28.92	13.56
N2 score (N2 score)	39	29.59	13.65
Total			
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	90	25.76	11.33
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	90	38.18	12.34
Post Conventional (P score)	90	30.93	14.31
N2 score (N2 score)	90	29.87	14.27

Note. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

pattern is often evident during or after formal educational interventions. The analysis involved using the three DIT-2 mean schema scores for both master's and doctoral students to create a bar graph or profile of respondents' scores, as described in the *Guide for the DIT-2* (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003). The two graphs were visually compared with the guide's rubric of bar graphs for seven Moral Types, which are based on prior meta-analysis of how consistent or inconsistent students are in preferring a given schema in their item choices on the DIT. Type was determined by finding the best match for the bar

graph of the respondents' schema profile. As Figure 6 shows, students at both the master's and the doctoral levels fell into the Type 4 category, which indicates that, on the

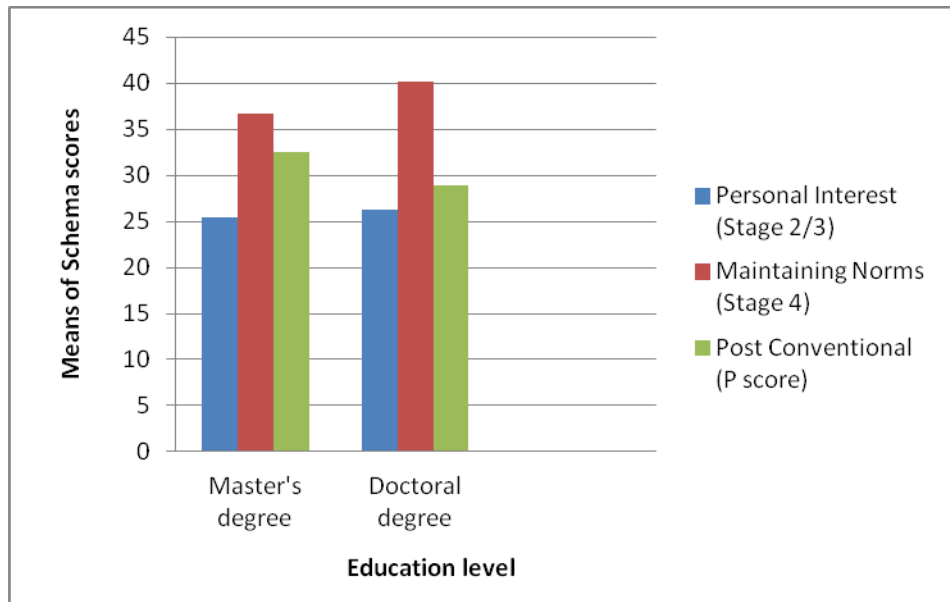


Figure 6. Moral types by subgroups for EDL/EDA master's and doctoral students. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

whole, respondents are consolidated in their preference for the Maintaining Norms schema and not transitioning to the Postconventional schema.

To provide additional context for interpreting DIT-2 scores for this sample, the second research question addressed in this study was the following: How do the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South compare with national norms, based on historic composites of scores on the DIT-2? The respondents' mean scores were compared with national norms, using a composite sample of master's and doctoral graduate student scores from 2005 to 2009 (Office for the Study of Ethical Development, 2012). The DIT-2 composite sample included

graduate students ($n = 15,496$) who are all native English speakers from a variety of disciplines and all regions of the country. An independent-samples t test was conducted to compare the P scores ($M = 29.98$, $SD = 13.70$) and N2 scores ($M = 29.27$, $SD = 13.69$) of the EDL/EDA graduate sample's with the P scores ($M = 41.06$, $SD = 15.22$) and N2 scores ($M = 41.33$, $SD = 14.47$) of a composite sample from 2005-2009 national norms. As Table 5 shows, there were significant group differences between the two samples. For the P scores, the observed value of t was -8.60 , which was greater than the critical value of t ($df=112$, $\alpha=.05$) $=1.98$. For the N2 scores with the observed value of t was -9.34 , which was greater than the critical value of t ($df=112$, $\alpha=.05$) $= 1.98$. Effect sizes for P scores and N2 scores were $.77$ and $.86$, respectively, indicating practical significance. Effect sizes of greater than $.33$ standard deviations are typically considered to be practically meaningful.

Self-reported behavior on academic and authorship practices. The third research question addressed in this study was the following: What are the characteristic academic and authorship practices reported by EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South, based on their scores on the APS? Students were asked to self-report on 24 specific practices, including 16 related to plagiarism and 8 related to cheating. Specific activities varied from borrowing text from another source without citing it to comparing answers on a test with a friend and correcting them together. In theory, possible scores range from a total low of 24 for answering "never" on all questions to a total high of 120 for answering "very frequently" on all questions. Because of the way the survey was designed, scores for both plagiarism and cheating can be calculated, in addition to a total score for academic dishonesty. Before looking at separate subscales, Cronbach's alpha

reliability tests were run on the overall complete responses for the total APS ($n = 96$, $\alpha = .91$), complete responses for the plagiarism scale ($n = 97$, $\alpha = .87$), and complete responses for the cheating scale ($n = 99$, $\alpha = .85$).

Table 5

Comparison of EDL/EDA Graduate Students with National Norms: DIT-2 Score Means and Standard Deviations for Respondents and 2005-2009 Composite Sample

<u>Educational Leadership/Administration Graduate Students</u>			
Score	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	113	25.50	11.27
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	113	39.16	12.33
Post Conventional (P score)	113	29.98	13.70
N2 score (N2 score)	113	29.27	13.69
<u>Composite Sample from 2005-2009 National Norms, Office for Ethical Study of Development</u>			
Score	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Personal Interest (Stage 2/3)	15,496	20.61	11.46
Maintain Norms (Stage 4)	15,496	34.07	14.36
Post Conventional (P score)	15,496	41.06	15.22
N2 score (N2 score)	15,496	41.33	14.47

Note. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

Descriptive statistics were then calculated to create a frequency distribution of respondents' plagiarism scores, cheating on exam scores, and overall academic practices/dishonesty scores. Because several students failed to complete an answer for each sub-

scale, the strategy of replacing missing data with a mean score was used to determine an overall number of completes (Norman & Streiner, 2003). As can be seen in Table 6, respondents ($n = 100$) scored relatively low on a total academic dishonesty scale ($M = 31.63$, $SD = 8.31$), given that 24 is the lowest possible score. When an average of the item means was calculated, typical responses on each item were higher for the Plagiarism

Table 6

Self-Reported Behavior on Academic Practices Survey (APS): Means and Standard Deviations for EDL/EDA Graduate Students

Score	<i>N</i>	* <i>MS</i>	<i>SD</i>	** <i>MI</i>	<i>SD</i>
Plagiarism	100	14.13	4.75	1.60	.55
Cheating	100	16.77	2.27	1.17	.34
Total (Academic Dishonesty)	100	30.87	6.02	1.32	.35

**MS* indicates the summated means.

***MI* indicates the average of item means.

subscale ($M = 1.60$, $SD = .55$) than the Cheating subscale ($M = 1.17$, $SD = .34$). Further, a paired t test of the average of item means showed this difference was statistically significant. Specially, the observed value of t was 8.43, which was greater than the critical value of t ($df = 99$, $\alpha < .01$) = 2.36. The effect size was .94, indicating practical significance. Effect sizes of greater than .33 standard deviations are typically considered to be practically meaningful. In particular, students reported problems APS items 1, 3, 4, 8, & 9, which indicates that they are engaging in mosaic plagiarism (changing several sentences from source work only slightly and presenting it as their own) and corner-cutting, such as paraphrasing secondary sources and presenting them as primary sources, and paraphrasing from abstracts while citing actual articles.

In theory, if moral reasoning influences behavior, plagiarism in particular, there should be differences in APS scores, based on how students scored on the DIT-2. In a previous investigation of teachers' moral judgment and academic integrity, Cummings et al. (2002) conducted additional analyses of differences by P-score thirds. A similar approach was taken for this study to see if differences existed on APS performance in relation to DIT-2 preferred moral schemas. Analyses included descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA. These analyses were based on cut-off points for the DIT-2 P score thirds, such as Low (1) = < 24, Mid (2) = 24-33, High (3) = > 33, and mean scores for the APS totals and averages of the item means for the two subscales. Table 7 provides the means and standard deviations for each DIT-2 P score grouped by thirds. As can be seen, in all instances, the High (3) P score respondents had lower mean scores on the APS (a

Table 7

Means and Standards Deviations for P-score Thirds and Academic Practices Survey (APS) Subscales

	<u>Descriptives</u>			
	P-Score Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
APS	1.00	31	31.74	6.35
	2.00	33	34.52	11.66
	3.00	36	28.89	4.58
	Total	100	31.63	8.31
Plagiarism	1.00	31	12.79	3.98
	2.00	33	14.20	5.36
	3.00	36	11.32	3.29
	Total	100	12.73	4.40
Cheating	1.00	31	19.18	4.55
	2.00	33	20.24	7.98
	3.00	36	17.11	1.82
	Total	100	18.79	5.46

total measure of academic dishonesty) and its Plagiarism and Cheating subscales than the Low (1) P score respondents.

To test to see if these group differences were significant, one-way ANOVAs were conducted focused on three sets of scores (overall APS, Plagiarism, and Cheating). Table 8 provides the results of the ANOVA for each analysis. The ANOVAs revealed that there were significant group differences by P-score thirds for the overall APS score and Plagiarism, but not for Cheating. On the overall APS, the observed F of 4.20 exceeded the critical $F(2, 97, \alpha = .05)$ of 3.09. Using Eta-squared, 8% of the variability on the APS scores is accounted for by the difference. On the Plagiarism subscale, the observed F of 3.93 also exceeded the critical $F(2, 97, \alpha = .05)$ of 3.09. Using Eta-squared, 8% of the variability on the plagiarism scores is accounted for by the difference. However, on the Cheating sub

Table 8

Analysis of Variance for P-score Thirds and Academic Practices Survey (APS) Subscales

<u>One-Way ANOVA Summary Tables</u>						
		Sum of Squares	<i>Df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
APS	Between Groups	545.58	2	272.79	4.20	.02
	Within Groups	6293.73	97	64.88		
	Total	6839.31	99			
Plagiarism	Between Groups	143.72	2	71.86	3.93	.02
	Within Groups	1772.49	97	18.27		
	Total	1916.20	99			
Cheating	Between Groups	175.91	2	87.96	3.08	.05
	Within Groups	2774.64	97	28.66		
	Total	2950.55	99			

Note: *Sig.* = significance.

scale, the observed F of 3.08 did not exceed the critical $F(2, 94, \alpha = .05)$ of 3.09. The effect sizes for the differences on the overall APS score and the Plagiarism subscale did not exceed .33 standard deviations, which are typically considered to be practically meaningful. Nevertheless, the 8% variability did fall within DIT research expectations for the general strength of the association between moral problem solving and a behavioral measure, typically accounting for 5% to 20% of the variance (Rest et al., 1999).

Additionally, to inform the APS data and see how practiced students were, six supplemental questions were asked about students' academic writing history and confidence. The questions fell into three basic categories: One category inquired about the kind and amount of writing, publishing, and presenting experience; the second type asked for respondents' confidence levels regarding graduate academic literacy skills; the third set of questions asked about the most important sources of instruction in graduate academic writing and any additional thoughts (an open-ended question for limited qualitative data). As Table 9 shows, participants ($n = 100$) do face high-stakes writing assessments, with 74% having written to pass comprehensive exams and 65% having written at least one scholarly paper to graduate. Yet, they have not been writing regularly to get practice at this kind of scholarship, with an average of 1.5 years having passed since writing their last academic paper; moreover, they have not written extensively, with most reporting that they had written a total of 4 academic papers. Although one in four students reported professional presentation experience (oral skills), they indicated relatively low levels of authorship experience (written skills), with only 11% authoring at least one published article to graduate, only 3% publishing 2-3 articles to graduate, and only 3% publishing 4 or more articles period.

Table 9

Academic Writing History and Experience Reported by EDL/EDA Graduate Students

<u>Writing History Experiences ($n=100$)</u>		
	<u>Mean (SD)</u>	<u>Percentage of “Yes” Responses (%)</u>
Years Since Last Academic Paper	1.52 (1.10)	--
Number of Academic Papers	4.31 (1.03)	--
Which Have You Done?		
-Written comprehensive exams for candidacy or graduation		74%
-Written a scholarly project thesis, research proposal, dissertation, etc. for graduation		65%
-Authored or co-authored 1 published article for graduation		11%
-Authored or co-authored 2-3 published articles for graduation		03%
-Authored or co-authored 4 or more published articles		03%
-Presented or co-presented scholarship at a professional conference		25%

Note. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

Against this backdrop of relative authorship inexperience, respondents reported varying levels of confidence for graduate academic literacy skills ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .59$), rating common activities on a scale of 1 to 3 (with 1 being the lowest confidence, and 3 being the highest confidence). As Figure 7 illustrates, confidence levels were lower for academic writing or productive skills—summary writing ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .64$), paraphrasing ($M = 2.50$, $SD = .64$), writing ($M = 2.52$, $SD = .58$) and citing ($M = 2.57$, $SD =$

.62) –than for academic reading or receptive skills ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .49$). A paired t test comparing the lowest reported confidence level, summary writing, with the highest reported confidence level, academic reading, showed that the observed t value of 4.64 was greater than the critical value of t ($df = 99$, $\alpha = .05$) = 1.98. This result indicates a significant difference between respondents' confidence levels in summary writing and academic reading. The effect size was .44, indicating practical significance. Effect sizes of greater than .33 standard deviations are typically considered to be practically meaningful.

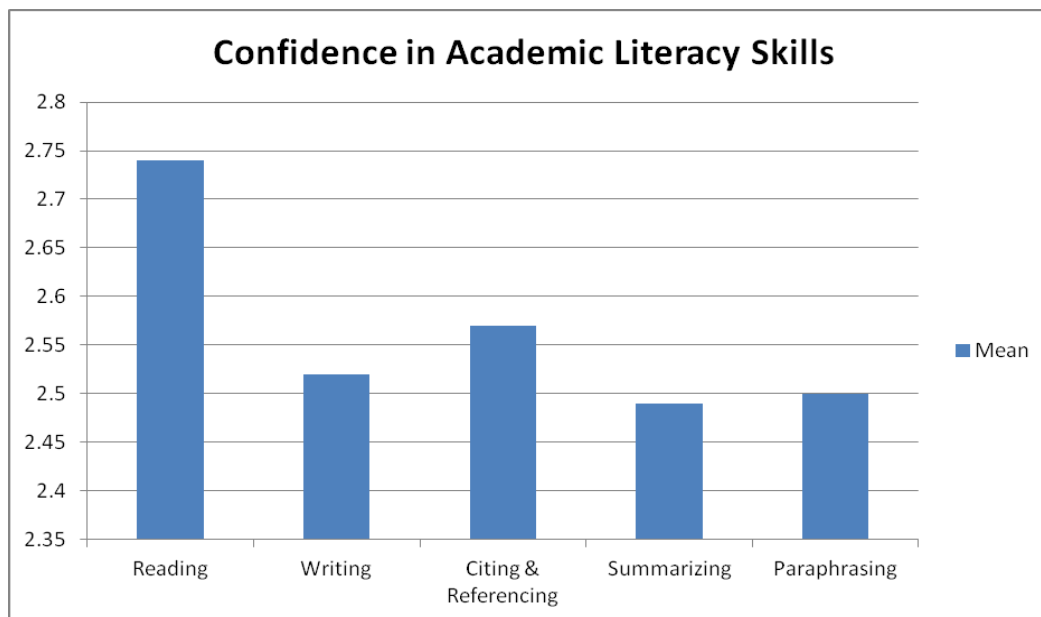


Figure 7. Respondents' levels of confidence for academic literacy skills.

To see if publication experience was driving higher confidence levels, a bar graph was created depicting both self-assessment values. As Figure 8 shows, respondents who had published two or more papers rated the highest level of confidence in one skill only—citing and referencing. In all other skills, students who had published one paper rated the highest levels of confidence of the three groups. Perhaps not surprisingly, un-

published writers reported their highest levels of confidence in reading. In sum, published writers reported higher levels of confidence than unpublished writers in three key areas – summarizing, and citing and referencing.

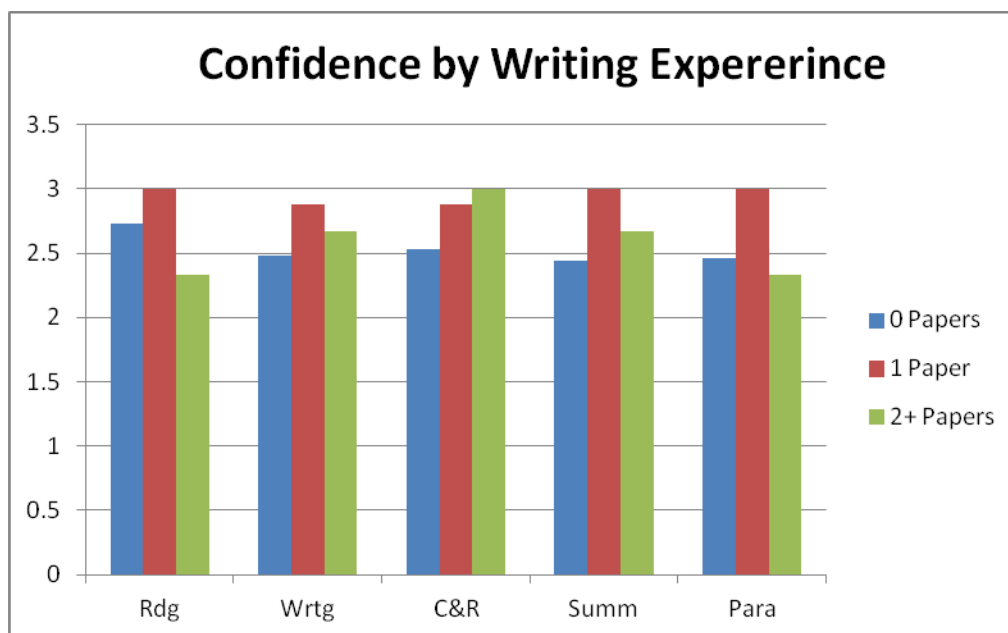


Figure 8. Levels of confidence by number of published papers authored or co-authored.

Third, students were asked to rank five sources—graduate instructor, mentor, peer, librarian, and online resource—in order of importance for instruction in formal academic writing with “1” being the most important and “5” being the least important. They were also asked to provide any additional thoughts about their instruction and preparedness in a box for a short qualitative answer. To create a visual image of their comparative responses indicating the highest bar for “most important,” mean scores for each category were subtracted from 5. As Figure 9 shows, respondents ranked instructors as most important ($M = 1.90$), mentors in second place ($M = 2.57$), peers in third place ($M = 3.08$),

online sources in fourth place ($M = 3.50$) and librarians in fifth place ($M = 3.90$). Only seven students offered additional comments in instruction and preparedness, resulting in insufficient text for formal qualitative analysis (See Appendix H). Nevertheless, four respondents (#1, #2, #3, and #5) seemed to indicate that more writing instruction would be beneficial. Student 1 was direct: “In most graduate courses of study, it would be useful to have a writing course included just to ensure a review of writing and ethical writing practices. . . .” Student 5 wrote: “No one teaches you the difference in paraphrasing and plagiarism. I give credit and cite in all of my works. I have been doing this a long time, and

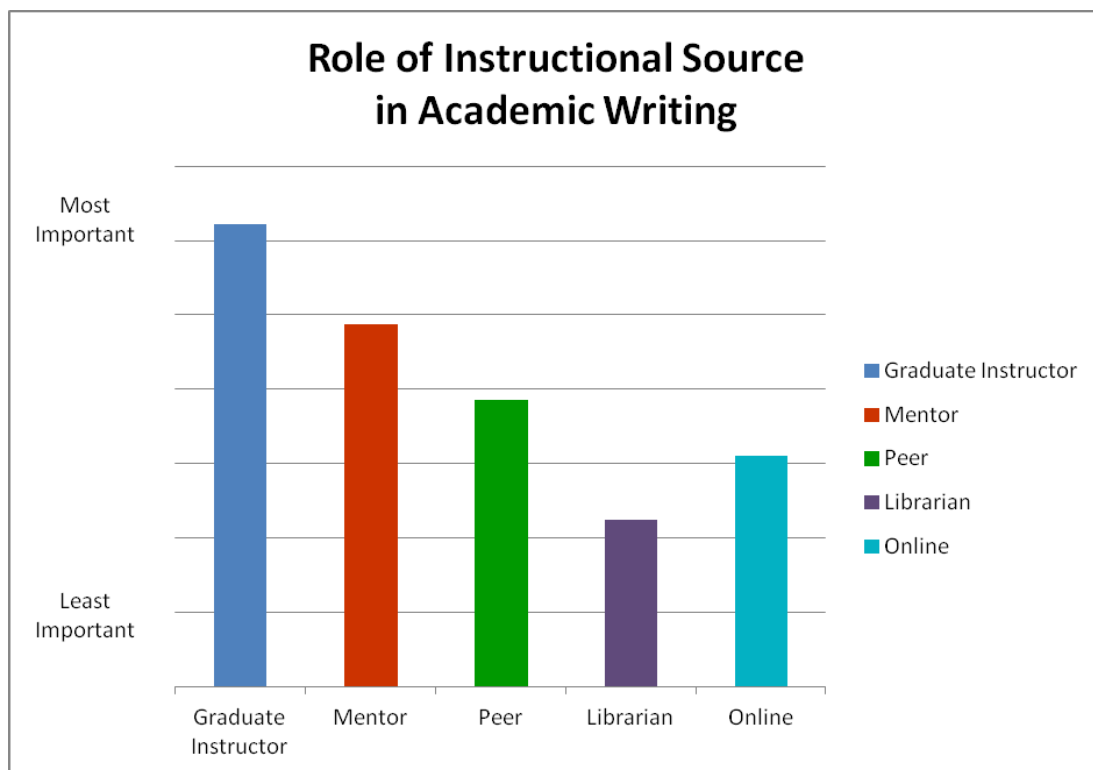


Figure 9. Ranking of most important source of instruction in formal academic writing.

I still have never been taught the difference in plagiarism and paraphrasing.” Student 2 recognized that graduate academic literacy skills need a long time to develop, writing: “It takes years of writing to actually be able to write with ‘your own style’ in anything approaching an original ‘voice.’ I think this is why it is so hard for college students to avoid some of the citation errors described above.”

Decision-making on the Team Leader’s Ethical Writing Dilemma. The fourth research question addressed in this study was the following: What are the characteristic moral problem-solving strategies of EDL/EDA graduate students in one state in the South when deciding on an intermediate concept, such as plagiarism, based on their scores on the Team Leader’s Writing Dilemma? This Dilemma was a pilot question designed to test students’ moral reasoning about plagiarism as an intermediate concept, like privacy or informed consent, common in professional situations and distinct from bedrock (life-and-death) moral concepts measured by the DIT (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). Accordingly, the Dilemma story and questions were modeled after newer moral reasoning instruments, Intermediate Concept Measures (ICMs), developed and used in health professions, such as dentistry. The goal of an ICM is to see how closely student thinking aligns with that of experts in the profession, so the measure can be used in pretests and posttests of professional development instruction. In this case, respondents were asked to resolve an authorship ethics dilemma involving potential plagiarism in a graduate school group writing project with which they had been charged with leading. After judging each of 10 possible actions and 10 justifications, they were asked to rank their choices and justifications “the two best” and “the two worst,” and these last two items, along with a total score, represent the three key indices on this type of measure. The descriptive statistics shown in Ta-

ble 10 indicate that EDL/EDA graduate students ($n = 101$) agreed with the experts on ethical action and justification choices a majority (74%) of the time, with agreement higher (79%) when deciding on the two worst choices and lower (70%) when deciding on the two best choices.

Table 10

Intermediate Ethical Decision Making: Means and Standard Deviations on Writing Dilemma for EDL/EDA Graduate Students

Score	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Justifications	101	6.07	.91
Actions	101	5.13	.91
Best Total	101	.70	.33
Worst Total	101	.79	.36
Dilemma Total	101	.74	.29

Note. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

Correlating moral problem-solving with academic behavior and intermediate concept decision-making. The final two research questions addressed in this study took the form of directional hypotheses, based on prior research showing that high DIT scores are linked to a range of “prosocial behaviors” (Rest, 1986; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006). Hypothesis 1 was the following: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score lower on academic dishonesty, as measured by the Academic Practices Survey (APS). Or, as stated in the null form, there is no negative relationship between DIT-2 and APS scores. Hypothesis 2 was the following: EDL/EDA graduate students who score higher on the DIT-2 will score higher the Team Leader’s Writing Di-

lemma. Or, as stated in the null form, there is no positive relationship between the DIT-2 scores and the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma scores. A Pearson product-moment correlation (one-tailed test) was computed to test each hypothesis. As shown in Table 11, the results called for rejecting the first null hypothesis, based on significant correlations between the APS and the DIT-2 P score and the N2 score. For the P score, the observed value of r was $-.19$, which was greater than the critical value of r ($df = 95$, $\alpha = .05$) = $.17$.

Table 11

Correlational Matrix: DIT-2 P Scores, Academic Practices Survey (APS) Scores, and Ethical Writing Dilemma Scores for EDL/EDA Graduate Students

		DIT-2 P score	DIT-2 N2 score	Dilemma Total
APS Total	Pearson Correlation	$-.19^*$	$-.20^*$	$-.01$
	Sig. (1-tailed)	$.03$	$.02$	$.46$
	N	97	97	98
DIT-2 P score	Pearson Correlation		$.89^{**}$	$.15$
	Sig. (1-tailed)		$.00$	$.07$
	N		113	99
DIT-2 N2 score	Pearson Correlation			$.12$
	Sig. (1-tailed)			$.11$
	N			99

Note. EDL/EDA = Educational Leadership/Administration.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

For the N2 score, the observed value of r was $-.20$, which was greater than the critical value of r ($df = 95$, $\alpha = .05$) = $.17$. Although statistically significant, these correlations are weak to moderate, explaining only 4% of the shared variance in either case. The second

null hypothesis was not rejected given that the observed correlation for the Dilemma total of r was .15, which did not exceed the critical value of r ($df = 95$, $\alpha = .05$) = .17. This result indicated no significant positive relationship between the DIT-2 scores and the Dilemma question.

Finally, as indicated in the Methods section, the DIT-2 was recently adapted to the online environment, and the instrument includes a standard series of questions for respondents to help researchers assess the problem of distraction in the virtual test-taking environment. This is an especially important consideration with a cognitively complex test like the DIT-2 (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003). As Figure 10 shows, the majority of participants (91%) said they took the test in one sitting, with 88% indicating they took in the

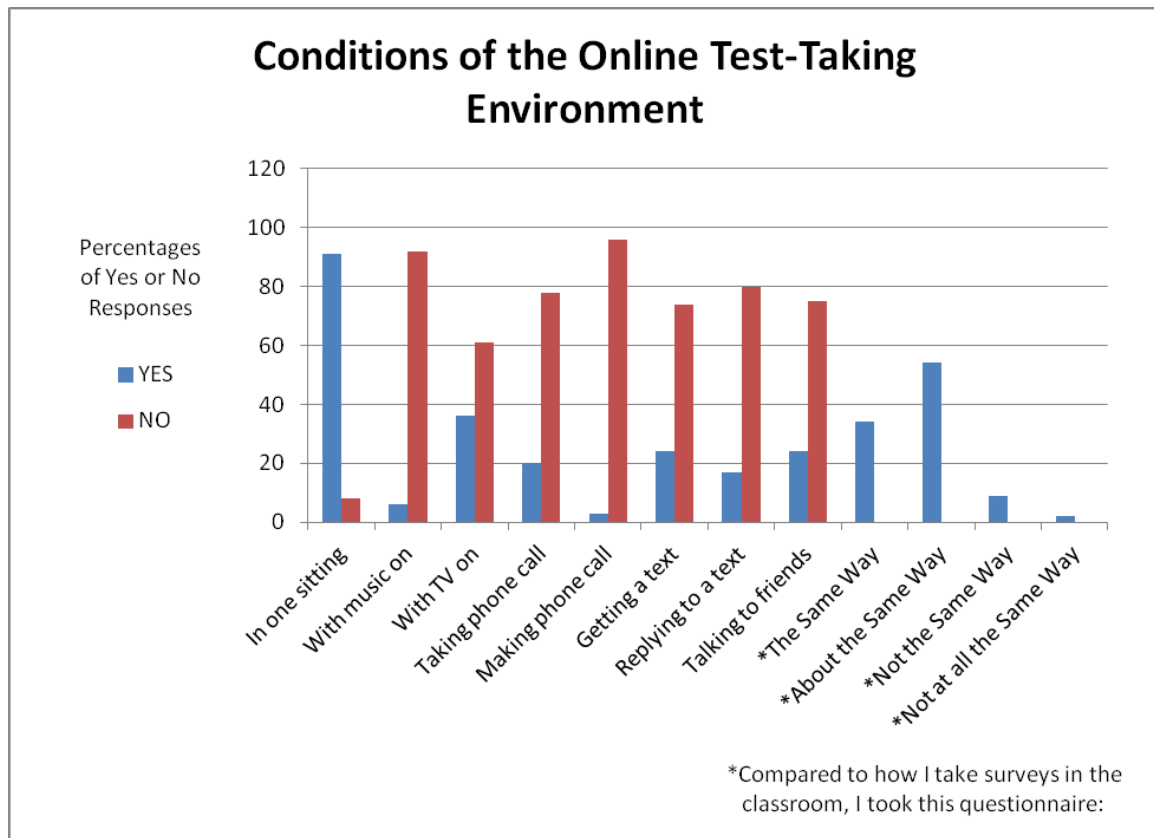


Figure 10. Conditions of the online test-taking environment.

same way or almost the same way as they would in the classroom. The most notable possible distraction was having the TV on (37%), with 20% of respondents reporting other lesser interruptions including phone calls, receiving and email or text message, and conversation.

DISCUSSION

Introduction

“Leaders must build a strong sense of identity and ethical maturity so as to align their values with their choices and actions. If not, they lose their way in the daily grind—and many sell their souls.” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 204)

Today’s educational leaders face a morally complex future, whether they work in K-12 or higher education, in the United States or the global classroom (virtual or real). Moral dilemmas arise out of regular routines, ranging from handling difficult teacher evaluations to enforcing student discipline, from managing communication with angry parents to negotiating controversial community issues (Bertram Gallant, 2011; Johnson, 2009; Kidder & Born, 2002; McCabe, 2005; Shapiro & Stekovitch, 2011; Starratt, 2004; Strike et al., 2005). In the words of ethics educator and author Johnson: “As soon as one ethical crisis passes, there’s likely to be another on the horizon” (2009, p. 224). Given the central mission of schools and universities, one type of ethical dilemma—academic dishonest—is both common and serious (Anderman & Murdock, 2007; Bertram Gallant, 2008a, 2008b; McCabe, 2005; McCabe et al., 2001). Although teachers model academic integrity on the front lines, educational leaders carry an extra burden of responsibility in this area. Educational leaders serve as exemplars for their professional and instructional staffs, who, in turn, communicate academic integrity values to students. This added responsibility is part of why ethics is at “the heart of leadership” (Ciulla, 2004).

Given this context, the goal of this correlational explanatory study ($n = 100-113$, depending upon the variable) was to conduct baseline assessments of moral problem

solving and academic practices in EDL/EDA graduate students in one Southern state. In addition, the researcher analyzed how the respondents' reasoning correlated with their behavior on academic dishonesty measures of plagiarism, cheating, and an authorship/leadership dilemma. Moreover, for the first time with this population, the researcher employed the Neo-Kohlbergians' evidenced-based, moral schema theory and theoretically-grounded Defining Issues Test, DIT-2 (Rest & Narvez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006) to study moral reasoning. Hence, these findings also demonstrate how opportunities may exist for developing moral reasoning as part of comprehensive professional ethics education, using the process-oriented approach suggested by the Neo-Kohlbergians with their Four Component Model of Morality (Bebeau, 2002; Bebeau & Monson, 2008; Rest, 1983, 1986; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006).

In summary, this study found that: (a) the EDL/EDA students showed a firm preference for conventional moral reasoning on the DIT-2, scoring significantly lower on advanced, or postconventional, moral thinking than a composite sample of graduate students from 2005-2009 national norms; (b) educators' DIT-2 moral problem-solving scores were significantly correlated with their scores on the APS, especially the Plagiarism subscale, but not the Cheating subscale, or the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma about plagiarism; and (c) EDL/EDA students reported relatively low levels of authorship and writing activity as well as significantly lower levels of confidence in their summarizing skills than in their academic reading skills. The discussion that follows interprets each of these key findings in greater detail and recognizes the limitations of the study. Finally, the researcher suggests implications for higher education faculty and administrators who

train EDL/EDA graduate students to be exemplary scholars as well as leaders, and she also makes recommendations for further study.

Respondents' Low P Scores and Firm Conventional Schema Preference

As previously indicated, the most widely reported score for the DIT is the P score, which represents the proportion of items selected that rely on postconventional or advanced moral thinking and also factors in the relative importance respondents give to moral considerations when making moral decisions (Rest et al., 1999). The N2 score, developed by DIT researchers as a more rigorous measure of construct validity and highly correlated with the P score ($r = .91$), is also reported. The 113 EDL/EDA students who completed the DIT-2 had an average P score of approximately 30, and an average N2 score of approximately 29. These scores indicated that they preferred postconventional moral thinking only 30% of the time, a percentage which is about 20 points lower than expected, based on the DIT norms distributed with the assessment guidelines (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003). Historically, P scores rise as educational levels rise, with each higher level typically bringing a 10-point increase in scores. Hence, senior high students have averaged in the 30s, college students in the 40s, graduate students and students graduating from professional programs in the 50s, and moral philosophy/political science doctoral students in the 60s. Only 10 respondents in the EDL/EDA sample had individual P scores of 50 or above, which would meet the historic expectation for graduate students. By comparison, the EDL/EDA students' average P score (like the N2 score), was 11 points lower than the average P score and average N2 score (41) for a national average of graduate students from 2005-2009 DIT norms. Another 16 respondents in the EDL/EDA

sample had individual P scores in the 40s. In sum, only 26 students (23% of this sample) had individual P scores around or above the averages for graduate students in DIT's 2005-2009 the national norms. Notably, when compared with historic expectations for graduate students, the 2005-2009 national mean P score of 41 is also lower than expected, suggesting that overall scores on the DIT may have declined for this educational level across disciplines. Two recent comparable studies on educators of similar educational and occupational levels provide additional context for interpreting the EDL/EDA sample's average P score (30). Slavinsky (2006) found that 64 Connecticut school principals (elementary, middle, and high school) had an average P score of 42; Vitton and Wasonga (2009) found that 60 elementary school principals in the Midwest had an average P score of 39. To put these scores in context, moral reasoning has a long track record of being linked to prosocial behaviors in education, from critical reflection on practice and facilitative classroom management to student-centered teaching and respect for diversity (Chang, 1994; Cummings et. al., 2007; Cummings et al. 2010; McNeel, 1994; Reiman, 2002; Vitton & Wasonga). In theory, then, the more advanced postconventional educator would be better able to solve new and complex moral dilemmas that are beyond the scope of the rule book or policy manual.

The literature offers several possible reasons for the EDL/EDA respondents' comparatively low average P score, including the possibility of disciplinary differences in moral development. As early as 1976, Bloom reported low P scores—an average of 30—for education graduate students ($n = 82$). In 1988, Yeazell & Johnson repeated these concerns when they found a mean P score of 43 ($n = 33$) for education graduate students with no significant difference in P scores of 38 for undergraduate education students ($n = 38$).

Although some researchers (Derryberry et al., 2006; King & Mayhew, 2002; Livingston et al., 2006; Rest, 1986) have asserted that evidence of disciplinary differences is inconsistent, others have confirmed a moral reasoning edge for certain disciplines. For example, in a recent meta-analysis of DIT data, (Maeda, Bebeau, & Thoma, 2009) researchers found that medical students could expect to score an average of 7.1 points higher on the DIT's P scale than other graduate students, when all other conditions are controlled. The authors observed that the data for their study was gathered during a time of rapid growth of professional ethics education in the field of medicine. In the field of education, Cummings and her associates (2001, 2002, 2003, 2007, 2010) have expressed concern about a moral judgment gap for teachers and teacher education students for more than a decade. In a review of the DIT literature on educators, Cummings et al. (2007) postulated two possible reasons: first, education as a practitioner-oriented field may attract and self-select students who are less critical/ethical thinkers than other more scholarly fields; second, the standard educational curriculum is too practical and hands-on to allow students to develop their critical/ethical thinking skills. The second explanation might have particular application with this EDL/EDA sample. In 2003, for example, Cummings et al. had an expert panel review elementary education curriculum—more than 500 courses—across 30 institutions and found 90% of it to be methods or skills-driven, in contrast with an emphasis on developing critical ethical judgment. In recent years, the graduate EDL/EDA curriculum for the state where the sample group resides (indeed, most of the Southern region) was overhauled, making it less theoretical and scholarly, and more experiential and field-oriented. Another contextual factor, educational setting, has also been implicated as influencing P scores in previous research (Maeda et al., 2009), but that does

not appear to be a plausible option here as the five participating schools represented diverse educational settings, from a private religious institution and a historically black college to a land-grant institution and two public research universities.

Related to this idea of the educator's difference on the DIT could be the typical demographic profile of EDL/EDA graduate cohorts. DIT research shows that moral reasoning scores can plateau and after long absences from formal education (Rest et al., 1999). Many students in professional schools today include older, nontraditional students who are returning to graduate school after a decade or more of being in the workforce and away from scholarly engagement (Mullen, 2001, 2006). Practitioners, they work full time as teachers, instructional leaders, and principals while earning their master's or doctoral degrees over a period of 4 to 7 years (Searby, personal communication, 2012). Given the average age of this sample (41 years), the educational levels represented, and personal observations of faculty, respondents may have fit this profile. Another possible factor in the EDL/EDA sample's comparatively low P scores may be regional cultural influences. Recent meta-analyses of DIT scores (Maeda et al., 2009) show participants in the South scoring lower than other major regions of the country, confirming earlier regional differences detected by other researchers. In trying to understand differences by regional context, researchers surmise that fundamentalist ideological frames (political and/or religious) may inhibit opportunities for debating ethical dilemmas and predispose some individuals to conventional thinking (Getz, 1984, 1985; Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006). Although no research questions were posed along this line, a demographic question on the DIT showed that nearly half of the sample, 48%, identified as either somewhat or very conservative. Additionally, recent research integrating moral reasoning with cultural psy-

chology indicates that the low scores could be a result of “reciprocal dynamics” (Rest et al., 1999, p. 180) between the collective ideology of K-12 public schools and the educators’ cognitive moral development. For example, is the maintaining norms schema “more efficient” at helping children develop in a public school setting than more advanced postconventional thinking? In sum, context matters, according to more than 4 decades of DIT research (Rest et al., 1999; Thoma, 2006). To develop moral reasoning, a person must be in a diverse, intellectually rich milieu, where moral issues and priorities are debated and tested, where there is exposure to the liberal arts, and where critical reflection is encouraged, through both discussion and direct instruction. The sample’s low scores may be a perfect storm of a variety of contextual factors.

Finally, it is possible, that the online test-taking environment could have influenced this sample’s P/N2 scores. Although the DIT-2 has traditionally been given in face-to-face settings, it recently moved online, which raised obvious questions about the test-taking environment. However, researchers (Xu, Nejad, & Thoma, 2007) found the online DIT-2 to be comparable to the paper-and-pencil version in three critical areas: reliability, discriminant validity, and ease of use. Furthermore, given this population, many of whom are working professionals with families, it was thought that the convenience of taking the test during off hours should have made the study’s format amenable. Almost 92% of respondents said they took the questionnaire in one sitting, with 89% indicating they responded to the test in the same way that they would have in the classroom. Nevertheless, nearly 40% of students admitted to answering the questionnaire with the television on, and 20% indicated other possible distractions, such as receiving a phone call, email or text, and talking with friends. These conditions were somewhat surprising, given that ed-

ucators routinely administer cognitive tests and presumably understand how distractions can affect scores. Whether these conditions represent significant distractions remains a fair question. Other explanations for the low scores could relate to individual demographic analysis also warrant further study, but they are beyond the scope of this research.

Link between Moral Problem Solving and Academic Practices

The second key finding of this study involved the negative correlation between the educators' DIT-2 moral problem-solving scores and their scores for self-reported academic dishonesty, as measured by the APS. This finding includes significant group differences ($p < .05$) on the Plagiarism subscale, but not on the Cheating subscale ($p = .118$). Admittedly, the overall correlation between the DIT-2 and APS is weak, ($r = -.19$) for the P score and ($r = -.20$) for the N2 score, accounting for only 4% of the variance shared by the groups. Yet this finding is not altogether unexpected. Neo-Kohlbergians believe that moral reasoning is just one of four components in moral behavior; DIT research shows that this behavioral link typically accounts for only 5% to 20% of the variance of the behavioral measure (Rest et al., 1999). In particular, the relationship between the DIT and the APS, especially the Plagiarism subscale, is worth noting for several reasons. First, this tentative link between moral judgment and plagiarism seems to contradict conclusions by previous scholars that some college students may not perceive plagiarism to be unethical (Gross, 2011; Martin et al., 2009; Power, 2009; Wadja-Johnston et al., 2001). Further, this finding supports a large body of research that shows plagiarism is a more nuanced and cognitively complex construct—in the minds of students and faculty—than cheating (Anson, 2008; Brown & Howell, 2001; Howard, 2008a, 2008b; Howard &

Robillard, 2008; Jamieson, 2008; Jamieson & Howard, 2012; Marsh, 2007; Nadelson, 2007; Pecorari, 2003; Pennington, 2010; Williams, 2008). Third, this finding informs an earlier study of teacher education students by Cummings et al. (2002) using the DIT with another self-report measure of academic dishonesty; the results of this study did not significantly differentiate students' self reported levels of plagiarism from cheating. This current study refined our knowledge by demonstrating that a self-report instrument breaking out specific unethical practices brings moral reasoning to bear on decision making and also highlights areas where students need direct academic writing instruction and mentoring.

With the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma, the response to a question about a specific plagiaristic writing practice, unaccredited textual borrowing, differed when the EDL/EDA students are asked not about their own practices, but how to resolve a dilemma involving the same practice by a member of their team on a group project. Students agreed with the experts on ethical action and justification choices a majority (74%) of the time, yet there was no significant correlation with the DTT-2 to confirm the activation of moral schemas, hence, the usefulness of the question. The writing dilemma was developed as an exploratory question to test the idea of developing an ICM for use in professional authorship ethics education. The dilemma findings in this study are consistent with earlier ICM studies (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma, 2006), albeit weaker. This weakness is due, in part, to the fact that only one story was offered, hence, the pilot question did not offer enough stability to accurately assess the construct. Most ICMs contain five or six different case studies situated in a professional ethical context around an agreed-upon set of moral best actions and justifications. It is also worth noting

that the panel of experts showed clear agreement on the best and worst choices for solving the dilemma, but not on the justification items; this discrepancy calls for additional information gathering from the experts to revise this part of the dilemma if it is to be used in building an authorship ethics ICM. Additionally, since the students' exhibited such low levels of writing and authorship activity and confidence, they may not have had enough experience to identify with the dilemma in an academic or professional context. Furthermore, Bebeau, who has lead the field in this area regarding professional ethics, and Monson (2008) asserted that even people who are convinced of their own positions and action choices must be taught how to handle ethical conflicts with other professions. Finally, the relatively low DIT scores in this sample create a restriction in the range that limits the magnitude of relationships.

Relatively Low Levels of Authorship Activity and Confidence

Finally, the third key finding of this study was based on auxiliary data from six writing history questions that the researcher, an academic writing instructor, requested to inform the third research question about academic and authorship practices. Although admittedly limited in scope, these data showed that the EDL/EDA students reported relatively low levels of authorship and writing activity as well as significantly lower levels of confidence in their summarizing skills than in their academic reading skills. This finding confirms an older qualitative study by Love and Simmons (1998), in which six education graduate students reported a basic lack of knowledge, confidence, and mentoring in the area of academic writing and scholarship. Although this researcher has been unable to locate other more current studies on academic writing and support for scholarship among

EDL/EDA graduate students, this experience-confidence data supports the larger body of research on a lack of support for graduate writing and publishing (Casanave & Li, 2008; Howard, 2008; Mullen, 2001, 2006; Pennington, 2010; Yancey, 2008). Importantly, students rated their graduate instructors and mentors and the two most important sources of instruction for them in graduate academic writing, which raises the question of whether faculty see their roles in this educational process as similarly important.

Additionally, similar concerns previously mentioned above about the prototypical educators who comprise EDL/EDA cohorts may also apply to the emerging picture of relative inexperience and low confidence levels. Older working students returning to graduate school after decades in the workforce have had little opportunity to improve their academic writing skills or publishing track records, according to Mullen (2006): “Education graduate students have confessed that their greatest challenge in academic life is to acquire the necessary skills to create publishable research” (p. 121). The author, who has studied graduate writing among education doctoral students for more than a decade, attributes this challenge both to the students’ busy lives as adults (managing jobs and family lives in addition to doctoral studies) as well as instructional gaps in EDL/EDA programs. Also, private conversations with faculty involved in working with graduate EDL/EDA students in this state have indicated that the curriculum was revised in 2007 to be more field-oriented and hands-on and less theoretical and scholarly. Although this curriculum shift may be appropriate for those students with practitioner-oriented goals, such as those only seeking a master’s degree or EdS, it may not provide the academic support for those who go on to pursue an EdD or a PhD. Doctoral students will eventually be charged with reading and understanding empirical research on evidenced-based teaching

as well as contributing to action research and the development of works to contribute to the growing movement of scholarship of teaching and learning.

With a finding of relatively low levels of academic writing experience and confidence, this study supports the views of veteran scholars who remember learning their own graduate literacy practices in a “sink or swim environment” (Swales, 2008). Admittedly, Swales added, much has changed in graduate education over in the last three decades, with instructional support in literacy practices now coming from writing centers, graduate schools, centers for teaching and learning, and English language institutes. Still, not all schools provide these services, argued Mullen (2006): “Writing itself and for a research audience is also mostly overlooked as a fundamental area of practice . . . As a result, many graduate students . . . enter professional fields without having mastered a skill that is essential to their development of their identities and careers” (p. 123). Such pedagogical oversight ignores composition research showing that a writer’s sense of authorship ethics, along with core competencies—literature searching, summary writing, research paper construction, peer review, productive writing habits, and academic identity—develops over time, from elementary to graduate school (Pennington, 2010), from both direct instruction (Yancey, 2008) and “repeated mentored practice” Howard (2008, p. 23). This finding of lower authorship productivity and writing confidence levels is based on six brief questions added to a larger questionnaire, so caution must be taken in interpreting these findings. Nevertheless, it provides justification for a more formal needs assessment of EDL/EDA graduate students in the area of preparedness for academic writing, authorship, and scholarship, particularly with regard to high-stakes artifacts such as

theses, comprehensive exams, dissertations, and grant applications and articles for publication.

Limitations of the Study

These findings must be viewed in light of several limitations. First, the respondents came from five advance-degree granting institutions for educational leadership and administration in one state in the South; hence, they may not be generalizable to all EDL/EDA students or to other graduate students. Second, the study involved three online measures, including a complex cognitive test, requiring a total of 60 minutes with the opportunity to stop and restart any number of times. Of the 195 students who initially responded, a much smaller number finished the assessment (DIT-2 $n = 113$; APS $n = 100$; Dilemma $n = 101$), and why they did not finish is not known. Additionally, although the majority of completers (91%) said they finished the questionnaire in one setting, at least 20% took it with potential distractions, including having the TV on, receiving a phone call or email/text, or talking to friends. It is not known what role these distractions might have played. Third, the APS is a self-reported assessment of behavior and subject to bias if respondents do not accurately report their actual practices during the academic writing process. Finally, the Team Leader's Writing Dilemma was a pilot question, not a fully developed, previously tested, and validated instrument.

Recommendations for Practice

If, as Ciulla (2004) asserts, ethics is at the heart of leadership, then ethics should also be at the center of training for educational leaders (Bertram Gallant, 2011; Cum-

mings et al., 2010; Johnson, 2009; McCabe, 2005; Koehane, 2006; Shils, 1997; Strike et al., 2005; Vitton & Wasanga, 2009). Given the findings in this study—comparatively low moral reasoning scores, some self-reported plagiarism and confusion about group plagiarism, and relatively low levels of experience and confidence for academic writing—four recommendations follow. These recommendations may not apply to EDL/EDA programs outside of the South, but they should be of interest to institutions of higher education in Southern states that attract similar student demographic profiles for their programs. This is especially true since the five advanced-degree granting institutions who participated in this study represent a diverse group of educational settings: religious liberal arts college, a historically black university, a land-grant institution, an urban medical and research university, and a traditional teaching and research university.

Implement evidenced-based moral reasoning interventions. More studies of EDL/EDA graduate students are definitely needed to accept or reject the idea of a gap in moral reasoning. Yet this new evidence, taken together with the numerous benefits of advanced ethical capacity for professionals (Bebeau, 1993, 1994, 2002; Bebeau & Monson, 2008; Bebeau & Thoma, 1994) leaders, should prompt faculty to consider implementing evidence-based moral reasoning instruction in the EDL/EDA graduate curriculum. Such a curricular revision does not have to be time-consuming, or difficult, using proven Neo-Kohlbergian strategies and tools. For example, in 2010, Cummings et al. conducted a 5-week moral reasoning instructional intervention at a Western university among 192 teacher education students. With 3 additional weeks for communication, pre-testing and post-testing, they achieved remarkable results; students posted 7-10 point gains in DIT moral reasoning scores in one semester, and these gains held during repeat post-testing a

semester later. To achieve these gains, instructors employed real-life and hypothetical case studies with classic dilemma discussion techniques, including online discussion. They also provided the teachers with direct instruction in Neo-Kohlbergian moral development principles with the idea that a metacognitive understanding of the psychological processes would have additional positive effects on their teaching and student interactions. Similar kinds of interventions could be integrated into other content courses or developed into stand-alone courses, perhaps offered with an online component, for any existing ethics course requirement or professional development training options post-graduation.

Review program and counseling options for EDL/EDA students on doctoral tracks. The recent revision of EDA/EDA master's programs by the Southern Regional Education Board (SHREB, 2007) made graduate studies at this level more experiential and less theoretical because the goal was to help educational leaders focus on maximizing student achievement in an era of high-stakes accountability. Although this revision may serve practitioner-oriented EDL/EDA students well, it gives rise to questions about whether students who go on to doctoral studies will be prepared for the scholarship demands of those programs. For example, if, on average, EDL/EDA graduate students have only written 4 papers (spending as much as 1.5 years between papers), they may not acquire sufficient practice to raise their literacy skills to a level that is required for successfully completing a doctoral program. For example, the course work for the PhD program completed by this researcher at UAB called for from two to three course papers per semester, or six to nine papers per year. Moreover, the trend toward the principal as an instructional leader, action researcher, and implementer of evidenced-based learning imply

a strong grounding in the scholarship of teaching and learning. For these reasons, faculty may want to look at programmatic and counseling options for EDL/EDA master's students, offering both an experiential track and a scholarly track for those who know they want to go on to the doctorate. In addition, faculty should offer clearer, and perhaps stricter, admissions guidelines for doctoral students, especially PhD programs, including an initial writing assessment and a capstone requirement of making an original contribution to the scholarship of teaching and learning. This type of counseling could extend students' horizons and invite them to think about possible publication earlier in their graduate experience and to factor this publication opportunity into the design of their research projects.

Integrate support for graduate literacy practices across the EDL/EDA curriculum. Given that all EDL/EDA graduate students will be evaluated with written assessments—from routine course papers, projects, and online discussion posts to high-stakes tests, comprehensive exams, and theses—efforts should be made to better align instruction with assessment. In this study, graduate students ranked their mentor 4th and graduate instructor 5th out of five possible sources of instruction in academic writing (below librarians, online sources, and peers, in that order). Hence, faculty may wish to examine ways to integrate support for discipline-specific graduate literacy practices across the curriculum. This support could undergird existing EDL/EDA content courses, but to be effective, students would have to be made aware of explicit graduate literacy goals and outcomes. Another option would be to add stand-alone courses in two survival areas: (a) literature searching/bibliography preparation, and (b) research paper construction. Because librarians have been identified as primary sources of graduate literacy instruction,

they would be logical strategic partners in such courses. These discipline-specific literacy courses could be offered as prerequisites, sanctioned electives, or methods requirements (similar to research methods courses), with the latter preferred for students pursuing doctorates.

Offer coaching for doctoral projects, dissertations, and publications. Regards of how strong a student's graduate experience is, if he or she comes into a doctoral program 10 or 15 years later, this nontraditional student, will face "the academic writer's learning curve" (Mullen, 2006, p. 111). The author cited 50% doctoral drop-out rates, the persistence of students as ABD (all but dissertation), and low publishing productivity rates for students as evidence of this learning curve. Long an advocate of "a curricular writing model" for graduate students, Mullen (2001) argued that these students merit special mentoring, instructional support, and coaching. Additionally, summer institutes, which have emerged in doctoral programs over the past couple of years, should be offered for EDL/EDA graduate students working on doctoral dissertations. Dissertation institutes, which are taught jointly by a team of educators and writing coaches, enable students to dedicate 8 to 10 weeks of time to daily writing; they have been shown to dramatically accelerate the pace of progress for both expert and novice writers. The institutes also provide more opportunities for faculty and students to collaborate on what some call the "preprint/reprint" dissertation, where students are lead authors on two or more published papers that fulfill the requirements for graduation. Although some educators believe that publication brings too much pressure to bear on doctoral students, others argue that it is one of the keys to improving the quality of doctoral education and scholarship

across the disciplines (Aitchison, Kamler, & Lee, 2010; Casanave & Li, 2008; Lee & Kamler, 2008; Mullen, 2001, 2006).

Implications for Research

Assess effectiveness of current ethics education in EDL/EDA graduate programs. Existing ethics education courses should be reviewed to ensure that they are grounded in theory, evidenced-based, and effective at achieving stated outcomes (Bebeau & Monson, 2008). Considering the low moral reasoning scores found for the EDL/EDA students in this study, one such outcome should be measurable growth in that critical area. To begin with, the DIT-2 could be used to assess EDL/EDA students' moral reasoning in pre- and posttests for a semester-long course or a series of courses. Or, given that the entire graduate school experience should result in significant moral reasoning growth (Rest, 1986; Rest & Narvaez, 1994; Rest et al., 1999), another approach would be to test EDL/EDA students as they come into a program and measure them again before they graduate. This DIT-2 data could eventually be used in longitudinal studies to track students' moral growth through the program. Such an assessment program would not only help faculty improve ethics instruction and overall EDL/EDA programming, it would also help DIT researchers clarify or dismiss the idea of a possible gap in moral reasoning among educators as a profession.

Develop intermediate concept measures (ICMs) for educational leadership and authorship ethics. Although the DIT is the most widely used measure of moral reasoning about bedrock concepts, newer measures of moral reasoning, ICMs have been developed by the Neo-Kohlbergians to assess more specific ethical constructs situated in the

professions (Bebeau, 2002; Bebeau & Monson, 2008; Bebeau & Thoma, 1999). These measures can strongly predict the quality of students' decision making when compared to an expert consensus of ethical standards in the field. Such an ICM could be developed especially for EDL/EDA graduate students to address moral reasoning about constructs common in educational leadership settings, such as academic integrity, confidentiality, diversity, in loco parentis, conflict of interest, among others. An ICM could be developed that would, in fact, integrate core concepts taught in existing EDL/EDA curricular across a range of courses such as organizational culture and climate, budgeting and finance, human resource management, and diversity and multicultural awareness. An ICM could also be used as a summative assessment. Likewise, an ICM could be developed more generally for all graduate students in the context of authorship ethics, addressing moral reasoning about issues like ethical paraphrase, unbiased sourcing and citing, naming of authors on a published paper, data integrity, and copyright. However, this investigator would not recommend the development of an authorship ICM with this group of students; instead, she would suggest it with students who already see themselves as authors, perhaps those in the humanities, such as graduate writers in English, philosophy, and liberate arts, or even students in the laboratory sciences involved in the RCR.

Assess experience, confidence, and instructional sources for incoming EDL/EDA students in graduate literacy practices. A needs assessment tool, including history, confidence levels, and actual writing exercise in ethical paraphrase, should be developed to routinely assess incoming students in graduate literacy practices and see where a cohort is on a novice-to-expert continuum (Howard, 2008a, 2008b; Howard & Davies, 2009; Pennington, 2010). The need for this type of information is especially

compelling, given the presence of a high number of nontraditional students in these programs and the 2007 revision of the master's curriculum to better prepare practitioner principals. Periodically, a graduate literacy expectations survey should be given to faculty to determine the intensity of and demands for written scholarship. Taken together, these surveys would help programs determine what type of instructional support is needed for EDL/EDA students in graduate literacy practices, especially, new doctoral students who are likely to be involved in action research and contributions to the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Conclusion

In perhaps no group of people is moral problem solving more important than in a community's leaders, especially its school leaders, who shape the next generation. As this dissertation concludes, current news in the researcher's state exposes a city-wide grading scandal, a state-takeover of a dysfunctional system, and a sex scandal involving a principal and a 17-year old. Against such a backdrop, this study revealed a sample of EDL/EDA graduate students in the South with significantly below-average scores on moral reasoning, a critical measure of professional competency. Further, it showed that postconventional moral reasoning exerts some influence over personal academic integrity, including self-reported plagiarism, but not necessarily over the integrity of a leader in a group of graduate peers. Ironically, the latter may have more to do with the students' relatively low levels of authorship experience and writing confidence than moral judgment. Clearly, more research on these topics is needed. Still, this study raises sobering questions about EDL/EDA students' prospects for "becoming scholars" in graduate

school. Will they find opportunities to develop their professional moral judgment in preparation for the wide range of dilemmas that are sure to come? Will they receive the academic literacy support they need to successfully complete an action research project, write a thesis, or pass a comprehensive exam? Will they discover that their best questions about teaching, learning, and leading are worthy of study and publication? To that end, Mullen (2006, p. 122) wrote that institutions of higher education must embrace “an ethic of responsibility” for bringing graduate scholars into the community of practice. Such an ethic would be a leadership ethic, perhaps even a transformational ethic. Failing the emergence of such an ethic, one could only conclude that graduate schools of education are content with the moral leadership in today’s schools, or the current scholarship of teaching, learning, and leading. This writer suspects that neither of those scenarios is true.

REFERENCES

- Aitchison, C., Kamler, B. & Lee, A. (2010). Publishing pedagogies for the doctorate and beyond. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Anderman, E. M. & Murdock, T. B. (2007). *Psychology of academic cheating*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Anderson, M. S. (2011). Research misconduct and misbehavior. In T. Bertram Gallant (Ed.), *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding misconduct and empowering change in higher education* (pp. 83-96). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Anson, C. (2008). We never wanted to be cops. In R. M. Howard & A. E. Robillard (Eds.), *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, contexts, and pedagogies* (pp. 140-157). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Baggaley, J., & Spencer, B. (2005). The mind of a plagiarist. *Learning, Media & Technology*, 30(1), 55-62.
- Bebeau, M. J. (1993). Designing an outcome-based ethics curriculum for professional education: Strategies and evidence of effectiveness. *Journal of Moral Education*, 22(3), 313-326.
- Bebeau, M. J. (1994). Influencing the moral dimensions of dental practice. In J. R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp. 121-146). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Bebeau, M. J. (2002). The Defining Issues Test and the Four-Component Model: Contributions to professional education. *Journal of Moral Education*, 31(3), 271-295.
- Bebeau, M. J., & Monson, V. E. (2008). Guided by theory, grounded in evidence: A way forward for professional ethics education. In L. P. Nucci & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Handbook of moral and character education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bebeau, M. J., Rest, J. R., & Narvaez, D. (1999). Beyond the promise: A perspective on research in moral education. *Educational Researcher*, 28, 18-26.
- Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. J. (1994). The impact of a dental ethics curriculum on moral reasoning *Journal of Dental Education*, 58(9), 684-692.
- Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. J. (1999). "Intermediate" concepts and the connection to moral education. *Educational Psychology Review*, 11(4), 343-360.
- Bebeau, M. J. & Thoma, S. J. (2003). Guide for DIT-2. Center for the Study of Ethical Development. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.
- Bertram Gallant, T. (2008a). *Academic integrity in the twenty-first century: A teaching and learning imperative*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Bertram Gallant, T. (2008b). Twenty-first century forces shaping academic integrity. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 33(5), 65-78.
- Bertram Gallant, T. (2011). *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding misconduct and empowering change in higher education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bertram Gallant, T., & Goodchild, L. F. (2011). Introduction. In T. Bertram Gallant (Ed.), *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding mis-*

- conduct and empowering change in higher education* (pp. 3-11). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bizzell, P., & Herzberg, B. (2001). *The rhetorical tradition: Readings from classical times to the present* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Bedford/St. Martin's.
- Bloom, R. B. (1976). Morally speaking, who are today's teachers? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 57, 624-625.
- Blum, S. D. (2009, February 20). Academic integrity and student plagiarism: A question of education, not ethics. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Academic-IntegrityStudent/32323>
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2003). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bolman, L. G., & Gallos, J. V. (2011). *Reframing academic leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bowers, W. J. (1964). Student dishonesty and its control in college. Bureau of Applied Social Research. New York, NY: Columbia University.
- Braxton, J. M. (2011). Improperities in teaching and learning. In T. Bertram Gallant (Ed.), *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding misconduct and empowering change in higher education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bredart, S., Lampinen, J., & Defeldre, A. (2003). Phenomenal characteristics of cryptomnesia. *Memory*, 11(1), 1-11.
- Brown, V., & Howell, M. (2001). The efficacy of policy statements on plagiarism: Do they change students' views? *Research in Higher Education*, 42(1), 103-118.

- Brown, V., Jordan, R., Rubin, N., & Arome, G. (2010). Strengths and weaknesses of plagiarism detection software. *Journal of Literacy and Technology*, 11(1), 111-131.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Burns, J. M. (2003). *Transforming leadership*. New York, NY: Grove Press.
- Callahan, D. (2004). *The cheating culture: Why more Americans are doing wrong to get ahead*. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Carlin, D., & Denecke, D. D. (2008). *Best practices in graduate education for the responsible conduct of research*. Washington, DC: Council of Graduate Schools.
- Casanave, C. P., & Li, X. (2008). *Learning the literacy practices of graduate school: Insiders' reflections on academic enculturation*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Chang, F. Y. (1994). School teachers' moral reasoning. In J. R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp. 71-83). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ciulla, J. B. (1995). Leadership ethics: Mapping the territory. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5(1), 5-28.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2003). *The ethics of leadership*. Belmont, CA: Thompson Wadworth.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2004). *Ethics, the heart of leadership*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2005). The state of leadership ethics and the work that lies before us. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 4(4) 323-335.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (3rd ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cummings, R., Dyas, L., Maddux, C. D., & Kochman, A. (2001). Principled moral reasoning and behavior of preservice teacher education students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(1), 143-158.
- Cummings, R., Harlow, S., & Maddux, C. D. (2007). Moral reasoning of in-service and pre-service teachers: A review of the research. *Journal of Moral Education*, 36(1), 67-78.
- Cummings, R., Maddux, C. D., & Cladianos, A. (2010). Moral reasoning of education students: The effects of direct instruction in moral development theory and participation in moral dilemma discussion. *Teachers College Record*, 112(3), 621-644.
- Cummings, R., Maddux, C. D., Harlow, S., & Dyas, L. (2002). Academic misconduct in undergraduate teacher education students and its relationship to their principled moral reasoning. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 29(4), 286-296.
- Cummings, R., Wiest, L. Lamintina, D. & Maddux, C. (2003). Teacher education curricula and moral reasoning. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*, 7(1), 163-168.
- Dee, T. J., & Jacob, B. A. (2010). Rational ignorance in education: A field experiment in student plagiarism. National Bureau of Economic Research. Retrieved from <http://www.nber.org/papers/w15672>
- Derryberry, W. P., Snyder, H.; Wilson, T., & Barger, B. (2006). Moral judgment differences in education and liberal arts majors: Cause for concern? *Journal of College & Character*, 52(4), 1-10.

- Devlin, M., & Gray, K. (2007). In their own words: A qualitative study of the reasons Australian university students plagiarize. *Higher Education Research and Development, 26*(2), 181-198.
- Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC). (2002). New ELCC standards. [Electronic version]. Retrieved from <http://www.npbea.org/ncate.php>
- Evans, E. D., & Craig, D. (1990). Teacher and student perceptions of academic cheating in middle and senior high schools. *Journal of Educational Research, 84*(1), 44-52.
- Evans, F., & Youmans, M. (2000). ESL writers discuss plagiarism: The social construction of ideologies. *Journal of Education, 182*(3), 49-65.
- Ferrell, C. M., & Daniel, L. G. (1995). A frame of reference for understanding behaviors related to the academic misconduct of undergraduate teacher education students. *Research in Higher Education, 36*(3), 345-375.
- Garavalia, L., Olson, E., Russell, E., and Christensen, L. (2007). How do students cheat? In E. M. Anderman & T.B. Murdock (Eds.), *Psychology of academic cheating*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Gardner, H. (1995). *Leading minds: An anatomy of leadership*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (2008). *5 minds for the future*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Getz, I. (1984). The relation of moral reasoning and religion: A review of the literature. *Counseling and Values, 28*(3), 94-116.
- Getz, I. (1985). The relation of moral reasoning and religious ideology to human rights. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Minnesota.

- Gill, R. (2006). *Theory and practice of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gross, E. R. (2011). Clashing values: Contemporary views about cheating and plagiarism compared to traditional beliefs and practices. *Education*, 132(2), 435-440.
- Harvard University (2012). What constitutes plagiarism? Harvard guide to using sources: A publication of the Harvard College Writing Program. Retrieved from <http://isites.harvard.edu/icb/icb.do?keyword=k70847&pageid=icb.page342054>
- Hayes, N., & Introna, L. (2005). Cultural values, plagiarism, and fairness: When plagiarism gets in the way of learning. *Ethics & Behavior*, 15(3), 213-231.
- Hedgcock, J. S. (2008). Lessons I must have missed: Implicit literacy practices in graduate education. In C. P. Casanave & X. Li (Eds) *Learning the literacy practices of graduate school: Insiders' reflections on academic enculturation* (pp.32-45). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Holmberg, M., & McCullough, M. (2005). Anti-plagiarism tools: Scrius v. Google. *IATUL Proceedings (New Series)*, 15. Retrieved from http://www.iatul.org/doclibrary/public/Conf_Proceedings/2005/scirus61.pdf
- Holmberg, M., & McCullough, M. (2006). Plagiarism in science and technology master's theses: A follow-up study. *New Review of Information Networking*, 12(1/2), 41-45.
- Howard, R. M. (2001, November 16). Forget about policing plagiarism. Just teach. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Forget-About-Policing/2792>
- Howard, R. M. (2008a, April). Preventing plagiarism in second language writing. Paper presented at the *Conference on College Composition and Communications*, New

Orleans, LA.

- Howard, R. M. (2008b). Plagiarizing (from) graduate students. In R. M. Howard & A. E. Robillard (Eds.), *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, contexts, and pedagogies* (pp. 92-100). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Howard, R. M. (2010a). The citation project workshop. Pre-conference workshop presented at the *Conference on College Composition and Communications*, Louisville, KY.
- Howard, R. M. (2010b). *Writing matters: A handbook for writing and research*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Howard, R. M., & Davies, L. J. (2009). Plagiarism in the internet age. *Educational Leadership* 66(6), 64-67.
- Howard, R. M., & Robillard, A. E. (2008). *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, contexts, and pedagogies*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Howard, R. M., & Serviss, T., and Rodrigue, T. K. (2010) Writing from sources, writing from sentences. *Writing & Pedagogy*, 2(2), 177-192.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2008). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill Higher Education.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

ISLLC (2008). *Educational leadership policy standards: ISLLC 2008*. Interstate School Leader Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved from <http://www.ccsso.org/>

Jamieson, S. (2008). One size does not fit all: Plagiarism across the curriculum. In R. M. Howard & A. E. Robillard (Eds.), *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, contexts, and pedagogies* (pp.77- 91). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Jamieson, S., & Howard, R. M. (2012). The Citation Project. Retrieved from <http://site.citationproject.net/>

Johnson, C. E. (2009). *Ethical challenges of leadership: Casting light or shadow*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Keohane, N. O. (2006). *Higher ground: Ethics and leadership in the modern university*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Kidder, R. M., & Born, P. L. (1998). Resolving ethical dilemmas in the classroom. *Educational Leadership*, 56(4), 38.

King, P. M., & Mayhew, M. J. (2002). Moral judgment development in higher education: Insights from the Defining Issues Test. *Journal of Moral Education*, 31(3), 247-270.

Koebler, J. (2011). Educators implicated in Atlanta cheating scandal. *US News and World Report Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.usnews.com/education/blogs/high-school-notes/2011/07/07/educators-implicated-in-atlanta-cheating-scandal>

Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive developmental approach to socialization. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.) *Handbook of socialization theory* (pp. 347-480). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

- Kohlberg, L. (1976). Moral stages and moralization: The cognitive developmental approach. In T. Lickona (Ed.), *Moral development and behavior: Theory, research, and social issues* (pp. 151-236). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Langlais, P. (2006). Ethics for the next generation. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 52(19), B11.
- Lapsley, D. K. (1996). *Moral psychology*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Lapsley, D., & Narvaez, D. (2004). *Moral development, self, and identity*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Laster, J. (2010). Malone U. president steps down amid plagiarism accusations. *Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Malone-U-President-Steps-Down/64328/>
- Lee, A., & Kamler, B. (2008). Bringing pedagogy to doctoral publishing. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 13(5), 5-11-523.
- Liu, D. (2005). Plagiarism in ESOL students: Is cultural conditioning truly the major culprit? *ELT Journal*, 59(3), 234-241.
- Livingston, G., Derryberry, W., King, A., Vendetti, M. (2006). Moral development consistency? Investigating differences among academic majors. *Ethics & Behavior*, 16(3), 265-287.
- Long, T. C., Errami, M., George, A. C., Sun, Z., & Garner, H. R. (2009). Responding to possible plagiarism. *Science*, 323, 1293-1294.
- Love, P., & Simmons, J. (1998). Factors influencing cheating and plagiarism among graduate students in a college of education. *College Student Journal*, 32(4), 539.

- Maeda, Bebeau, & Thoma (2009). Understanding the relationship between moral judgment development and individual characteristics: The role of educational contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 101*(1), 233-247.
- Marsh, B. (2007). *Plagiarism: Alchemy and remedy in higher education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Martin, D., Rao, A., & Sloan, L. (2009). Plagiarism, integrity, and workplace deviance: A criterion study. *Ethics & Behavior, 19*(1), 36-50.
- Mawdsley, R. D. (1994). *Academic misconduct: Cheating and plagiarism*. Topeka, KS: National Organization on Legal Problems in Education.
- May, W. W. (1990). *Ethics and higher education*. New York, NY: American Council on Education/Macmillan.
- McCabe, D. (2005). It takes a village: Academic dishonesty & educational opportunity. *Liberal Education, 91*(3), 26-31.
- McCabe, D. L., Butterfield, K. D., & Trevino, L. K. (2003). Faculty and academic integrity: The influence of current honor codes and a past honor code experiences. *Research in Higher Education, 44*(3), 367-385.
- McCabe, D. L., Butterfield, K. D., & Trevino, L. K. (2006). Academic dishonesty in graduate business programs: Prevalence, causes, and proposed action. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 5*(3), 294-305.
- McCabe, D. & Pavela, G. (2004). Ten updated principles of academic integrity. *Change, 36*(3), 10-15
- McCabe, D. L., & Trevino. (1996). What we know about cheating in college: Longitudinal trends and recent developments. *Change, 28*, 28-33.

- McCabe, D. L., Trevino, L. K., & Butterfield, K. D. (2001). Cheating in academic institutions: A decade of research. *Ethics & Behavior, 11*(3), 219-232.
- McNeel, S. P. (1994). College teaching and student moral development. In J. R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp. 27-49). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mullen, C. A. (2001). *Breaking the circle of one: Redefining mentorship in the lives and writings of educators*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Mullen, C.A. (2006). *A graduate student guide: Making the most of mentoring*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Murdock, T. B., & Stephens, J. M. (2007). Is cheating wrong? Students' reasoning about academic dishonesty. In E. M. Anderman & T. B. Murdock (Eds.), *Psychology of academic cheating* (pp. 229-251). Burlington, MA: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Nadelson, S. (2007). Academic misconduct by university students: Faculty perceptions and responses. *Plagiarism, 2*(2), 1-10.
- Narvaez, D., & Lapsley, D. K. (2008). Teaching moral character: Two strategies for teacher education. *Teacher Educator, 43*(2), 156-172.
- Norman, G. R. & Streiner, D. L. (2003). *PDQ statistics: Third edition*. Shelton, CT: People's Medical Publishing House.
- Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Nucci, L. P., & Narvaez, D. (2008). *Handbook of moral and character education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Office for the Study of Ethical Development. (2012). The University of Alabama, College of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.ethicaldevelopment.ua.edu/>

- Office of Research Integrity. (1994). ORI policy on plagiarism. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from <http://ori.hhs.gov/ori-policy-plagiarism>
- Office of Research Integrity. (2012). ORI closes four cases involving plagiarism. U.S. Department of Health & Human Services. Retrieved from <http://ori.hhs.gov/blog/ori-closes-2011-four-cases-involving-plagiarism>
- Park, C. (2003). In other (people's) words: Plagiarism by university students, literature and lessons. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 28(5), 471-488.
- Parker, K., Lenhar, A., & Moore, K. (2011). *The digital revolution and higher education: College presidents, public differ on value of online learning*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center.
- Pecorari, D. (2003). Good and original: Plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second-language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 317-345.
- Pennington, M. C. (2010). Plagiarism in the academy: Towards a proactive pedagogy. *Writing and Pedagogy*, 2(2), 147-162.
- Perez-Pena, R., & Slotnik, D. (2012). Gaming college rankings. *New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/2012/02/01/education/gaming-the-college-rankings.html?pagewanted=all>
- Phillips, A. M. (2012). Nine schools cited for exam and credit irregularities. *New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/schoolbook/2012/02/23/nine-schools-cited-for-exam-and-credit-irregularities/>
- Piaget, J. (1932/1965). *The moral judgment of the child* (M. Gabaian, Trans.). New York, NY: Free Press.

- Pittman, G., Elander, J., Lusher, J., Fox, P., & Payne, N. (2009). Student beliefs and attitudes about authorial identity in academic writing. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(2), 153-170.
- Posner, R. A. (2007). *The little book of plagiarism*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Power, L. G. (2009). University students' perceptions of plagiarism. *Journal of Higher Education*, 80(6), 643-662.
- Price, J., & Price, R. (2005). Finding the true incidence rate of plagiarism. *International Education Journal*. 6(4), 421-429. Retrieved from <http://ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/iej/articles/mainframe.htm>
- Reiman, A. J. (2002). A comparison of four-year longitudinal studies of postconventional moral judgment reasoning in teacher education and other selected undergraduate samples. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Rest, J. R. (1979). *Development in judging moral issues*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.
- Rest, J. R. (1983). Morality. In P. H. Mussen (Series Ed.) & J. Flavell & E. Markham (Vol. Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3, Cognitive Development* (4th ed., pp. 556-629). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Rest, J. R. (1986). *Moral development: Advances in research and theory*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Rest, J.R. (1994). Background: Theory and research. In J.R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp.1-26). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Rest, J. R., Bebeau, M. J., & Volker, J. (1986). An overview of the psychology of morality. In J. R. Rest (Ed.), *Moral development: Advances in research and theory* (pp. 1-27). New York, NY: Praeger.
- Rest, J. R., & Narvaez, D. (1994). *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Rest, J. R., Narvaez, D., Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. J. (1999). *Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Rest, J. R., Thoma, S. J., & Edwards, L. (1997). Designing and validating a measure of moral judgment: Stage preference and stage consistency approaches. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(1), 5-28.
- Rest, J. R., Thoma, S. J., Narvaez, D., & Bebeau, M. J. (1997). Alchemy and beyond: Indexing the Defining Issues Test. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(3), 498-507.
- Rogers, G. (2002). Rethinking moral growth in college and beyond. *Journal of Moral Education*, 31(3), 325-338.
- Rogers, L., & Sizer, N. F. (2010). Ethical dilemmas in education: Standing up for honesty and integrity. *Journal of Moral Education*, 39(2), 243-248.
- Roig, M. (2001). Plagiarism and paraphrasing criteria of college and university professors. *Ethics and Behavior*, 11(3), 307-324.
- Roig, M. (2002). Avoiding plagiarism, self-plagiarism, and other questionable writing practices: A guide to ethical writing. Office of Research Integrity. Retrieved from <http://ori.hhs.gov/avoiding-plagiarism-self-plagiarism-and-other-questionable-writing-practices-guide-ethical-writing>

- Roig, M., & DeTommaso, L. (1995). Are college cheating and plagiarism related to academic procrastination? *Psychological Reports*, 77, 691-698.
- Shapiro, J. P., & Stefkovich, J. A. (2011). *Ethical leadership and decision making in education: Applying theoretical perspectives to complex dilemmas*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Sheard, J., Markham, S., & Dick, M. (2003). Investigating differences in cheating behaviours of IT undergraduate and graduate students: The maturity and motivation factors. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 22(1), 91-108.
- Shi, L. (2011). Common knowledge, learning, and citation practices in university writing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 45, 308-334.
- Shils, E. (1997). The academic ethic. In E. Shils & S. Grosby (Eds.), *The calling of education: The academic ethic and other essays on higher education* (pp. 3-128). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Slavinsky, R. A. (2006). Cognitive moral development of Connecticut public school principals as measured by Rest's Defining Issues Test. Retrieved from ProQuest Information and Learning Company (UMI No. 3221571).
- Starratt, R. J. (2004). *Ethical leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Strike, K. A., Haller, E. J., & Soltis, J. F. (2005). *Ethics of school administration: Professional ethics in education series*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Swales, J. M. (2008). Forward. In C. P. Casanave & X. Li (Eds) *Learning the literacy practices of graduate school: Insiders' reflections on academic enculturation* (pp. ix-xi). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Tate & Denecke (2006). *Graduate education for the responsible conduct of research*.

Washington, DC: Council of Graduate Schools.

Thoma, S. (1994). Moral judgment and moral action. In J. R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp. 119-211). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Thoma, S. (2002). The Defining Issues Test and the Minnesota approach to morality research. *Journal of Moral Education*, 31(3), 221-367.

Thoma, S. (2006). Research on the defining issues test. In M. Killen & J. Smetena (Eds.), *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 67-91). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Thoma, S. J. & Rest, J. R. (1999). The relationship between decision-making and patterns of consolidation and transition in moral judgment development. *Developmental Psychology*, 35(2), 323-34.

Vitton, C. J., & Wasonga, T. A. (2009). Between Kohlberg and Gilligan: Levels of moral judgment among elementary school principals. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 8(1), 92-116.

Wajda-Johnston, V., Handal, P., Brawer, P., & Fabricatore, A. (2001). Academic dishonesty at the graduate level. *Ethics & Behavior*, 11(3), 287-305.

Warn, J. (2006). Plagiarism software: No magic bullet! *Higher Education Research and Development*, 25(2), 195-208. doi: 10.1080/07294360600610438

Wasley, P. (2007). Ohio U. revokes degree for plagiarism. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 53(31), 10.

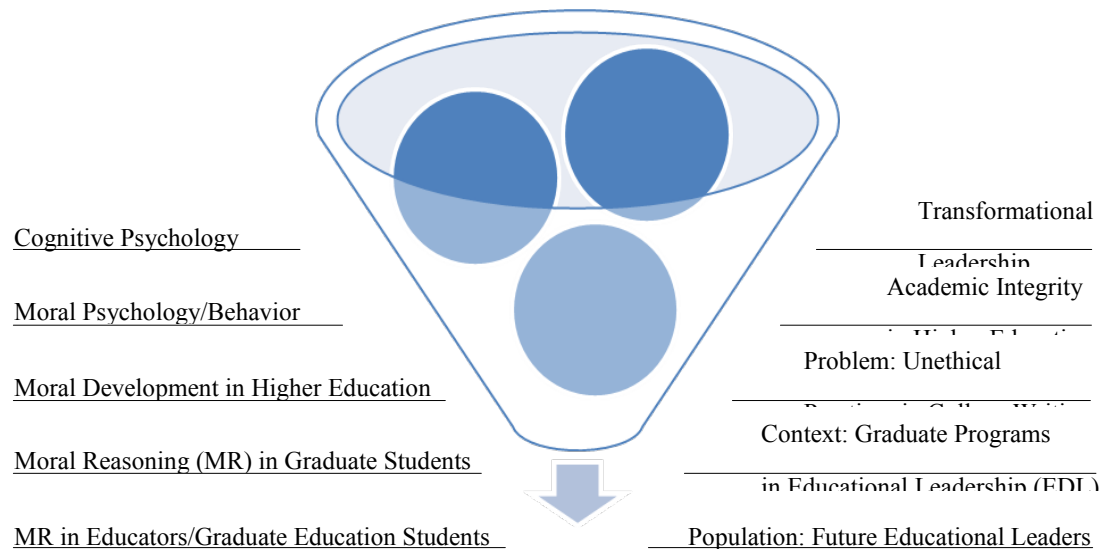
Williams, B. T. (2008). Trust, betrayal and authorship: Plagiarism and how we perceive students. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 51(4), 350-354.

- Xu, Nejad, & Thoma (2007). Administering the Defining Issues Test online: Do response modes matter? *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 6(1), 10-18.
- Yancey, K. B. (2008). Beyond plagiarism. In R. M. Howard & A. E. Robillard (Eds.), *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, contexts, and pedagogies* (pp. 158-170). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Yeazell, M. I., & Johnson, S. F. (1988). Levels of moral judgment of faculty and students in a teacher education program: A micro study of an institution. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 15(1), 61-70.

APPENDIX A
LITERATURE REVIEW MAP

LITERATURE REVIEW MAP

Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State



Basic Questions: What are the characteristic profiles of these students for moral reasoning and academic authorship practices, and how do these profiles relate in a way that informs graduate education of future educational leaders as moral exemplars and scholars?

APPENDIX B

RESEARCHER'S LETTER TO PROGRAM COORDINATORS

April 20, 2012

Dear Educational Leadership Program Coordinator,

I am a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), School of Education. For my dissertation research, I am the Principal Investigator of a proposed research study on ethical decision-making, a core competency for Educational Leadership/Educational Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students. The title of my study is *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*.

I plan to implement a Web-based questionnaire in July-August 2012 to examine connections between the problem-solving strategies and the academic writing and test-taking practices of EDL/EDA graduate students. Faculty members often assume that graduate students are seasoned scholars. However, many educators, by virtue of the practice-oriented nature of their profession are new to the process of producing written scholarship. My goal is to describe students' current problem-solving and academic practices profiles to see if new teaching and learning approaches are needed to support improved graduate student outcomes on comprehensive exams, theses, dissertations, articles for publication, and other high-stakes writing assessments.

I have chosen to study the strategies and practices of graduate students (master's and doctoral) at the 5 schools that offer advanced EDL/EDA graduate programs with *both* a master's and doctoral tract in one Southern state. The number of participants in the study is estimated to be approximately 500. One of the schools whose students I hope to include in this study is [your school], and I am requesting your help to access your EDL students in July and August by email. In June I would need you (a) to provide the email addresses of students currently enrolled in your EDL/EDA program to see if they would like to participate in the study and (b) to send out a brief preliminary email explaining the project and why you support it (I will gladly write or help you write this email). For details on how I plan to collect and report the data, please see the attached description of Data Collection and Confidentiality Assurances.

At present, I am completing my application for Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. I do not yet need for you to supply the actual email addresses, or for you to send any communication to the students. However, if you are able to support this research effort, I do need a brief confirmatory email or letter commitment from you indicating your support. Please email me at jlgreer1@uab.edu or return the attached form, Agreement to Support the Research Effort, signed in the self-addressed return envelope (SASE).

If you have any questions about my research plan, please contact me at jlgreer1@uab.edu or at 205-996-6355. I would be happy to discuss your concerns and address them in any way possible.

Thank you for your consideration of this educational leadership research opportunity.

Jennifer L. Greer
Doctoral Student
Educational Leadership/School of Education
University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB)
HUC 504C
1530 3rd Ave. S.
Birmingham, AL 35294-1150

Agreement to Support the Research Effort**Please Return this Signed Form in the SASE**

I, _____, at

_____ agree to provide UAB doctoral dis-

sertation researcher, Jennifer L. Greer, with the email addresses of EDL/EDA students in my program to give them the opportunity to participate in the dissertation research study:

Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State. I understand that these email addresses, the name of my university, and any identifying information about my institution will be kept strictly confidential and treated in accord with the approved UAB IRB protocol.

APPENDIX C

DATA COLLECTION AND CONFIDENTIALITY ASSURANCES

Data Collection and Confidentiality Assurances

Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State

After receiving a short “heads up” email about the study in mid to late June from an EDL/EDA Program Coordinator, students will receive a consent email from me. This email will include an explanation of the study, the protocol information from UAB’s Institutional Review Board (IRB), and the link to the Web-based questionnaire on Survey Monkey. If students decide to participate, they will be asked to complete the questionnaire with its three sections: the first section asks them to problem solve five social dilemmas; the second section asks them to solve a leadership/writing dilemma; and the third section asks them about their academic authorship and test-taking practices. Students will also be asked demographic information, such as age, gender, first language, educational level, type of EDL/EDA degree sought (master’s, EdD, PhD), academic writing experience, self-reported authorship confidence levels, citizenship, and political leaning.

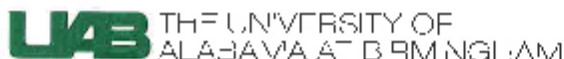
Participation is entirely voluntary. Students’ decisions whether or not to participate will not jeopardize their relationship with UAB, the School of Education, or their current educational institution. The questionnaire will take about an hour to complete, which is a recognized commitment of time. However, because it stimulates social problem-solving strategies that are central to their success as educational leaders, participants might actually enjoy taking it. Students may elect to withdraw at any time, in accordance with IRB protocols.

Participants’ identities will be protected throughout the process. I will keep all information they supply confidential and secure. I will not have any student names, only email addresses. The email addresses cannot be linked with responses to any of the questionnaire items. As soon as the completion deadline for the Web-based study is past, all email addresses from the initial contact will be immediately separated from the data base and destroyed. All other data collected from the survey will be stored on secure institutional servers in password protected electronic files. Participating universities will be assigned a pseudonym, and any identifying characteristics will be omitted or changed for reporting purposes. Results will be reported as aggregated findings only (by sub-groups, by schools’ pseudonyms, etc.); individual responses will be confidential. The aggregated findings for a participating university will be available to that institution’s Program Coordinator upon request.

In appreciation of their time and effort, if they wish to receive a \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon, at the end of the survey, students will be asked to submit an email address to Survey Monkey. Requesting the coupon is optional. Immediately upon close of the online data collection and electronic dissemination of coupons, all email addresses will be pulled into a separate database and destroyed to ensure confidentiality of respondents.

APPENDIX D

APPROVAL FROM INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD



Institutional Review Board for Human Use

Form 4: IRB Approval Form
Identification and Certification of Research
Projects Involving Human Subjects

UAB's Institutional Review Boards for Human Use (IRBs) have an approved Federalwide Assurance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP). The Assurance number is FWA0005960 and it expires on January 24, 2017. The UAB IRBs are also in compliance with 21 CFR Parts 30 and 31.

Principal Investigator: GREER, JENNIFER L

Co-Investigator(s):

Protocol Number: E120501003

Protocol Title: *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link Between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*

This above project was reviewed on 5/16/12. The review was conducted in accordance with UAB's Assurance of Compliance approved by the Department of Health and Human Services. This project qualifies as an exemption as defined in 45CFR 46.101, paragraph 2.

This project received EXEMPT review.

IRB Approval Date: 5/16/12

Date IRB Approval Issued: 5/16/12

Cari Oliver
Assistant Director, Office of the
Institutional Review Board for Human
Use (IRB)

Investigators please note:

IRB approval is given for one year unless otherwise noted. For projects subject to annual review research activities may not continue past the one year anniversary of the IRB approval date.

Any modifications in the study methodology, protocol and/or consent form must be submitted for review and approval in the IRB prior to implementation.

Adverse events and/or unanticipated risks to subjects or others at UAB or other participating institutions must be reported promptly to the IRB.

170 Administration Building
411 20th Street, South
35294-3709
-ext 205.504.1307
uab@uab.edu

The University of
Alabama at Birmingham
Mailing Address
314/31
1000 14th AVE S
BIRMINGHAM AL 35294-1104

APPENDIX E
QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

Informed Consent

TITLE OF RESEARCH: Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State, Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol number E120501003

INVESTIGATOR: Jennifer L. Greer, doctoral dissertation candidate in Educational Leadership

SPONSOR: University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), School of Education, Department of Human Studies

Dear Educational Leader,

You are invited to voluntarily participate in a dissertation research study on how educators like you make ethical decisions in the course of earning advanced degrees in Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA). Here are important details of this project:

Purpose of the study: Today's EDL/EDA graduate students must complete high-stakes writing assessments -- comprehensive exams, research proposals, theses, scholarly projects, and dissertations -- to graduate. Because their field is practitioner-oriented, however, some educators report a lack of confidence for research writing. New teaching and learning approaches may be needed to help EDL/EDA students improve outcomes on high-stakes assessments that affect their careers. The information you provide will inform future decisions.

Explanation of Procedures: If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that stimulates ethical decision making in three areas: social problems, a writing/leadership dilemma, and academic practices. You will also be asked about personal demographics. The entire questionnaire will take about one hour.

Risks, benefits, and alternatives: Participation is entirely voluntary, posing minimal risk to you as a participant. You may not personally benefit from your participation in this research; however, your participation will help faculty enhance curriculum for future EDL/EDA students. You may decline to participate with no penalty to you or your institution.

Confidentiality: All information will be confidential to the extent of the law. Contact emails will be separated from the database and destroyed upon completion of the questionnaire. Student data will be encoded without personal identifiers and stored on secure institutional servers. Results will be reported in aggregated form only (by sub-groups or by schools that are de-identified and assigned pseudonyms).

Completion or withdrawal: Please try to complete the entire survey within one week of receiving this email. You may elect to withdraw at any time without penalty by no longer responding to the survey; however, after you have returned your questionnaire you will be unable to withdraw your data since addresses will be immediately separated from questionnaire responses.

Cost/Payment: There is no cost or payment to participate.

Incentive: In appreciation of your time and effort, if you wish to receive a \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon at the end of the questionnaire, you will be asked for your email address. Requesting the coupon is optional. Immediately upon close of the online data collection and electronic dissemination of coupons, all email addresses will be pulled into a separate database and destroyed.

Questions: If you have any questions about the study, contact me at jlgreer1@uab.edu or at 205-996-6355. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Office of the Institutional Review Board for Human Use (OIRB) at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB) at (205) 934-3789 or 1-800-822-8816. If calling the toll-free number, press the option for "all other calls" or for an operator/attendant and ask for extension 4-3789. Regular hours for the Office of the IRB are 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. CT, Monday through Friday. You may also call this number in the event the research staff cannot be reached or you wish to talk to someone else.

PLEASE TRY TO FINISH THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING.

*1. Do you consent to participate in this questionnaire?

- ☐ Yes, I will participate.
- ☐ No thanks, I will not participate.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Example

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

Example of the task

Imagine you are about to vote for a candidate for the Presidency of the United States. Before you vote, you are asked to rate the importance of five issues you could consider in deciding who to vote for. Rate the importance of each item (issue) by checking the appropriate box.

*Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Financially are you personally better off now than you were four years ago?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Does one candidate have a superior moral character?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Which candidate stands the tallest?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Which candidate would make the best world leader?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Which candidate has the best ideas for our country's internal problems, like crime and health care.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Note. Some items may seem irrelevant or not make sense (as in item #3). In that case, rate the item as "NO".

After you rate all of the items you will be asked to RANK the top four items in terms of importance. Note that it makes sense that the items you RATE as most important should be RANKED as well. So if you only rated item 1 as having great importance you should rank it as most important.

*Consider the 5 issues above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Again, remember to consider all of the items before you rank the four most important items and be sure that you only rank items that you found important.

Note also that before you begin to rate and rank items you will be asked to state your preference for what action to take in the story.

Thank you and you may begin the questionnaire!

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Story 1. Famine

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

***What should Mustaq Singh do? Do you favor the action of taking food?**

☐ Should take the food ☐ Can't decide ☐ Should not take the food

***Rate the following issues in terms of importance.**

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Is Mustaq Singh courageous enough to risk getting caught for stealing?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Isn't it only natural for a loving father to care so much for his family that he would steal?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Shouldn't the community's laws be upheld?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Does Mustaq Singh know a good recipe for preparing soup from tree bark?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Does the rich man have any legal right to store food when other people are starving?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Is the motive of Mustaq Singh to steal for himself or to steal for his family?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. What values are going to be the basis for social cooperation?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Is the epitome of eating reconcilable with the culpability of stealing?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Does the rich man deserve to be robbed for being so greedy?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Isn't private property an institution to enable the rich to exploit the poor?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Would stealing bring about more total good for everybody concerned or wouldn't it?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Are laws getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of a society?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***Consider the 12 issues above and rank which issues are the most important.**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Story 2. Reporter

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

*Do you favor the action of reporting the story?

☐ Should report the story ☐ Can't decide ☐ Should not report the story

*Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Doesn't the public have a right to know all the facts about all the candidates for office?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Would publishing the story help reporter Dayton's reputation for investigative reporting?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. If Dayton doesn't publish the story wouldn't another reporter get the story anyway and get the credit for investigative reporting?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Since voting is such a joke anyway, does it make any difference what reporter Dayton does?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Hasn't Thompson shown in the past 20 years that he is a better person than his earlier days as a shoplifter?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. What would best service society?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. If the story is true, how can it be wrong to report it?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. How could reporter Dayton be so cruel and heartless as to report the damaging story about candidate Thompson?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Does the right of "habeas corpus" apply in this case?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Would the election process be more fair with or without reporting the story?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Should reporter Dayton treat all candidates for office in the same way by reporting everything she learns about them, good and bad?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Isn't it a reporter's duty to report all the news regardless of the circumstances?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Story 3. School Board

Mr. Grant has been elected to the School Board District 190 and was chosen to be chairman. The district is bitterly divided over the closing of one of the high schools. One of the high schools has to be closed for financial reasons, but there is no agreement over which school to close. During his election to the school board, Mr. Grant had proposed a series of "open meetings" in which members of the community could voice their opinions. He hoped that dialogue would make the community realize the necessity of closing one high school. Also he hoped that through open discussions, the difficulty of the decision would be appreciated, and that the community would ultimately support the school board decision. The first open meeting was a disaster. Passionate speeches dominated the microphones and threatened violence. The meeting barely closed without fist fights. Later in the week, school board members received threatening phone calls. Mr. Grant wonders if he ought to call off the next open meeting.

*Do you favor calling off the next Open Meeting

☐ Should call off the next open meeting ☐ Can't decide ☐ Should have the next open meeting

*Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Is Mr. Grant required by law to have open meetings on major school board decisions?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Would Mr. Grant be breaking his election campaign promises to the community by discontinuing the open meetings?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Would the community be even angrier with Mr. Grant if he stopped the open meetings?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Would the change in plans prevent scientific assessment?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. If the school board is threatened, does the chairman have the legal authority to protect the board by making decisions in closed meetings?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Would the community regard Mr. Grant as a coward if he stopped the open meetings?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Does Mr. Grant have another procedure in mind for ensuring that divergent views are heard?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Does Mr. Grant have the authority to expel troublemakers from the meetings or prevent them from making long speeches?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Are some people deliberately undermining the school board process by playing some sort of power game?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. What effect would stopping the discussion have on the community's ability to handle controversial issues in the future?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Is the trouble coming from only a few hotheads, and is the community in general really fair-minded and democratic?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. What is the likelihood that a good decision could be made without open discussion from the community?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Story 4. Cancer

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

*Do you favor the action of giving more medicine?

☐ Should give Mrs. Bennett an increased dosage to make her die. ☐ Can't decide ☐ Should not give her an increased dosage

*Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Isn't the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving an overdose would be the same as killing her?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Wouldn't society be better off without so many laws about what doctors can and cannot do?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. If Mrs. Bennett dies, would the doctor be legally responsible for malpractice?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Does the family of Mrs. Bennett agree that she should get more pain-killer medicine?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Is the pain-killer medicine an active hallucinogenic drug?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Does the state have the right to force continued existence of those who don't want to live?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Would the doctor show more sympathy for Mrs. Bennett by giving the medicine or not?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Wouldn't the doctor feel guilty from giving Mrs. Bennett so much drug that she died?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Should only God decide when a person's life should end?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Shouldn't society protect everyone against being killed?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Where should society draw the line between protecting life and allowing someone to die if the person wants to?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

DIT-2 Defining Issues Test - Story 5. Demonstration

Political and economic instability in a South American country prompted the President of the United States to send troops to "police" the area. Students at many campuses in the U.S.A. have protested that the United States is using its military might for economic advantage. There is widespread suspicion that big multinational oil companies are pressuring the President to safeguard a cheap oil supply even if it means loss of life. Students at one campus took to the streets in demonstrations, tying up traffic and stopping regular business in the town. The president of the university demanded that the students stop their illegal demonstrations. Students then took over the college's administration building, completely paralyzing the college. Are the students right to demonstrate in these ways?

*Do you favor the action of demonstrating in this way?

☐ Should continue demonstrating in these ways
 ☐ Can't decide
 ☐ Should not continue demonstrating in these ways

*Rate the following issues in terms of importance.

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. Do the students have any right to take over property that doesn't belong to them?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Do the students realize that they might be arrested and fined, and even expelled from school?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Are the students serious about their cause or are they doing it just for fun?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. If the university president is soft on students this time, will it lead to more disorder?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Will the public blame all students for the actions of a few student demonstrators?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Are the authorities to blame by giving in to the greed of the multinational oil companies?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Why should a few people like Presidents and business leaders have more power than ordinary people?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Does this student demonstration bring about more or less good in the long run to all people?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Can the students justify their civil disobedience?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Shouldn't the authorities be respected by students?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Is taking over a building consistent with principles of justice?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Isn't it everyone's duty to obey the law, whether one likes it or not?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Consider the 12 issues you rated above and rank which issues are the most important.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Most important item	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Third most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fourth most important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE ETHICAL DECISION-MAKING TASKS ON GENERAL SOCIAL ISSUES. THE NEXT TASK IS SHORTER. IT WILL ASK YOU TO SOLVE AN ETHICAL DILEMMA RELATED TO HIGH-STAKES WRITING IN A GRADUATE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**Team Leader's Writing Dilemma**

Jonathan Wright and his friend Bud Walker were assistant principals at local high schools. They had been friends since college. Previously, Jonathan was a middle school English teacher, and Bud was a history teacher and assistant football coach. Now, they worked full-time while studying for their doctoral degrees. Jonathan and Bud saw themselves as natural leaders and wanted to move up the ladder. They also needed to boost their incomes to send their children to good colleges.

Last summer, Jonathan took three courses, and Bud took four. They wound up in the same methods course online, working on a collaborative research paper for a final grade with another doctoral student, Kathy Henderson. Jonathan offered to lead the final project. They divided the paper up into sections so they could work independently, then peer review each other's work before putting the whole project together. Kathy always turned her work in early, taking great pains with her grammar, formatting, and citations, although Jonathan thought her writing was dull. Bud's parts usually came in late, appeared hastily composed and formatted, but were packed with information.

One night, while peer-reviewing Bud's part of the paper, Jonathan felt uncomfortable. One section offered a complex and sophisticated description of an educational theory, but Bud had not cited any sources. The text also sounded vaguely familiar. On a hunch, Jonathan flipped back through his notebook and found something very similar in one of the professor's published papers. He compared the two passages. Bud's text mirrored the structure and content of the professor's three paragraphs; he had substituted a synonym every couple of words, but he had not added anything new. Jonathan wondered: Was it plagiarism? Why had Bud stayed so close to the professor's text? Why had he not cited the professor's paper? Would Kathy recognize the professor's text in this section? If she did, would she consider it unethical? What about the professor? Jonathan wondered if any other sections of Bud's part of the paper reflected this kind of work. If it did, what would the professor think and do?

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

***Listed below are various actions that Jonathan, as a team leader, could choose. Rate the moral defensibility of each action using the following scale:**

Jonathan could . . .

	Highly Defensible	Defensible	Questionable	Not Defensible
1. Call Bud, talk to him about his writing and citing habits and attempt to peer mentor him as a developing scholar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Decide he (Jonathan) is over-reacting, ignore the issue, and turn the paper in as is.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Call Kathy, tell her what happened and ask for her opinion on what to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Rewrite Bud's portions of the paper, in case he has plagiarized in other areas.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Call the professor and tell her what he (Jonathan) discovered during his peer review of Bud's work. Ask for direction on how to proceed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Call the university's Ethics Hotline to report Bud's actions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Cut the over-worked Bud some slack.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Call Bud, tell him that he (Jonathan) and Kathy do not feel comfortable with his writing practices, and they no longer want him be part of their paper-writing team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Call Bud and remind him about the university Honor Code, pointing to the appropriate section of the student handbook.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Talk to a mentor or senior advisor in confidence about the problem to see how he or she would handle it in a professional setting.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***Consider the 10 actions above and indicate the two best actions in priority order:**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
First best action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second best action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***Consider the 10 actions above and indicate the two worst actions in priority order:**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
First worst action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second worst action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there other defensible action choices not listed above? If so, describe them briefly.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

*** Listed below are various reasons or justifications for the previously listed action choices. Rate the importance of each reason in justifying your decision on what Jonathan should do. Use the following scale:**

	Great	Much	Some	Little	No
1. This appears to be a first-time lapse for Bud. He may be unaware of ethical sourcing and citing practices in scholarly papers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. As a team leader, Jonathan is obligated to bring Kathy in the loop and consider her concerns and thoughts.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Jonathan cannot prove that Bud intended to plagiarize. He feels Bud is innocent until proven guilty.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. As an assistant principal and a doctoral student, Bud should know better than to copy or paraphrase without citing the source.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Bud's writing practices are putting both Jonathan and Kathy at risk for failing the course.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Bud is not doing anything that any other student hasn't done on course papers. It would be unfair to single him out for punishment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Reporting Bud to the instructor could hurt his career and their friendship.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Bud's paraphrase is fine. There are only so many ways that you can write up a theory and still be accurate.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Bud's writing practices could lead to the kind of scholarship that undermines the institution and the profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. The professor might see Bud's mosaic plagiarism as a compliment and not see any problem with it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*** Consider the 10 reasons above and indicate the two best reasons in priority order:**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
First best reason	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second best reason	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*** Consider the 10 reasons above and indicate the two worst reasons in priority order:**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
First worst reason	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Second worst reason	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there other justifications not listed above? If so, describe them briefly.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

KUDOS! YOU HAVE COMPLETED ALL OF THE ETHICAL DECISION-MAKING TASKS. THE LAST PRIMARY TASK IS A SHORT SURVEY ABOUT ACADEMIC PRACTICES. THANK YOU FOR CONTINUING. COMPLETION ENSURES THAT THIS STUDY PRODUCES VALID AND USEFUL FINDINGS FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN YOUR STATE.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

ACADEMIC PRACTICES SURVEY

In responding to the following writing practices, please assume that none of the information you have taken from a secondary source has been put in quotation marks in your paper. In addition, unless otherwise noted, assume that you have cited the source used in your paper/homework in the reference section. Please read each description carefully.

***In writing a paper or doing homework (e.g., essay) for a college course I have:**

	Never	Almost Never	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
1. Taken one or two sentences from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), changed them slightly (e.g., transposed the subject and predicate, or changed an article or preposition) and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Taken several sentences from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), changed them slightly (e.g., transposed the subject and predicate, or changed an article or preposition), and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Taken one or two sentences from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), changed them moderately (e.g., transposed the subject and predicate, changed articles and prepositions, used synonyms to substitute some but not all of the terms, added a few words and short phrases), and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Taken several sentences from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), changed them moderately (e.g., transposed the subject and predicate, changed articles and prepositions, used synonyms to substitute some but not all of the terms, added a few words and short phrases), and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Taken a single brief phrase or sentence from someone else's written (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), left them unchanged and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Taken two or more phrases or sentences from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), left them unchanged and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Taken two or more paragraphs from someone else's written work (e.g., a published source, another student's paper or homework), left them unchanged, and inserted this information in my paper (or written homework assignment) as my own writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Paraphrased information from a secondary source (e.g., a published article that reviews the pertinent literature or book), but did not cite this source in my reference section. Instead, I cited one or more references listed in this secondary source which pertained to the information I had paraphrased.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Paraphrased information from an abstract (e.g., psychological abstracts, ERIC) or some other such summary, but cited the actual journal article instead of the abstract.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Taken another student's term paper from a previous semester, and submitted it under my name.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Taken another student's term paper from a previous semester, changed a few	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

paragraphs and submitted it under my name.

- | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 12. Bought a term paper and used it entirely, or large portions of it, as my own writing. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 13. Used part of, or the entire paper, previously submitted in another course, to satisfy the requirements of a different course without permission of the instructors involved. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 14. Paid another student or person to write large portions or all of my paper or homework or my entire paper or homework. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 15. Added sources not read to the reference section of my paper or written homework assignment. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 16. Claimed that a paper was turned in when in fact it had not been. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

***While taking an examination I have:**

- | | Never | Almost
Never | Sometimes | Frequently | Very
Frequently |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 17. Copied answers from another student during an exam. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 18. Reviewed an inappropriately attained copy of a test prior to taking the test and memorized the answers to the questions. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 19. Used hidden notes, books, or calculators during an exam even though such use was prohibited. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 20. Made up a false excuse (e.g., feigning illness) in order to avoid taking a test. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 21. Not reported a mistake in grading which resulted in a grade higher than I should have received. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 22. Used a system of hand and/or foot signals to give and receive answers during an exam. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 23. Traded exam papers with a friend during an examination and compared and corrected our answers. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 24. Brought completed exam booklets to an examination and submitted them as my actual answers. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

YOU'RE ALMOST DONE! PLEASE ANSWER A FEW DEMOGRAPHIC/PROCESS QUESTIONS, THEN LET US KNOW IF YOU WANT TO RECEIVE A FREE STARBUCK'S COFFEE COUPON.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**Demographics**

What is your level of education? Please mark the highest level of formal education you are currently enrolled in or have completed:

- ☐ Grades 7, 8, 9
- ☐ Grades 10,11,12
- ☐ Vocational/technical school (schools that do not offer a bachelor's degree)
- ☐ Junior college
- ☐ Freshman in a bachelor's degree program
- ☐ Sophomore in a bachelor's degree program
- ☐ Junior in a bachelor's degree program
- ☐ Senior in a bachelor's degree program
- ☐ Professional degree beyond the bachelor's degree (M.D., M.B.A., D.D.S., J.D., Nursing)
- ☐ Professional degree in Divinity
- ☐ Master's in teaching or master's in education
- ☐ Master's degree in graduate school
- ☐ Doctoral degree Ed.D.
- ☐ Doctoral degree Ph.D.
- ☐ Other

Which best describes your race/ethnicity? (Select all that apply.)

- ☐ African American or Black
- ☐ Asian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ American Indian/ other Native American
- ☐ Caucasian (other than Hispanic)
- ☐ Other (please specify)

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**What is your age?**

Enter your age in whole years (not in a fraction).

In terms of your political views, how would you characterize yourself?

- ☐ Very Liberal
- ☐ Somewhat Liberal
- ☐ Neither Liberal nor Conservative
- ☐ Somewhat Conservative
- ☐ Very Conservative

Are you a citizen of the United States?

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

Is English your primary language?

- ☐ YES
- ☐ NO

How many years have passed since you last wrote a formal academic or college paper (15-20 pages+ with references)?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-2 years
- ☐ 3-5 years
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

What is the approximate number of formal academic or college papers (15-20 pages+ with references) that you have written?

- ☐ Zero
- ☐ 1-2 papers
- ☐ 3-5 papers
- ☐ 6-10 papers
- ☐ More than 10 papers

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

Rate your level of confidence with each of the following tasks:

	Low	Medium	High
Reading formal academic texts, including research papers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing formal academic texts, including research papers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Citing and referencing academic sources	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Summarizing entire academic articles or books	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Paraphrasing sections of academic articles or books	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Which of the following have you done?

	Yes	No
Written comprehensive exams for candidacy or graduation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Written a scholarly project thesis, research proposal, dissertation, etc. for graduation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authored or co-authored 1 published article for graduation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authored or co-authored 2-3 published articles for graduation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authored or co-authored 4 or more published articles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Presented or co-presented your scholarship at a professional conference	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Rank the following sources of instruction in formal academic writing according to their importance for you, with "1" being most important and "5" being least important.

	1	2	3	4	5
Graduate course instructor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mentor/advisor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Peer/colleague	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing center tutor/librarian	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online resource	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please offer any additional sources of or thoughts about your instruction and preparedness for formal academic writing in your program and field.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices

Test-taking Environment

We would like to know something about how you completed this questionnaire. Your answers are optional but will help us understand how students take questionnaires outside of class.

	Yes	No
I completed the questionnaire in one sitting.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Music was playing while I completed the questionnaire.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The TV was on while I completed the questionnaire.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I received phone calls while completing the questionnaire.

- ☐ Yes-more than one
- ☐ Yes-just one
- ☐ No

I made phone calls while completing the questionnaire.

- ☐ Yes-more than one
- ☐ Yes-just one
- ☐ No

I received emails/text messages while completing the questionnaire.

- ☐ Yes-more than one
- ☐ Yes-just one
- ☐ No

I responded to emails/text messages while completing the questionnaire.

- ☐ Yes-more than one
- ☐ Yes-just one
- ☐ No

I stopped and talked to friends while completing the questionnaire.

- ☐ Yes-more than once
- ☐ Yes-just once
- ☐ No

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**Compared to how I take surveys in the classroom, I took this questionnaire:**

- ☐ The same way – not different at all.
- ☐ About the same way – I had a minimal amount of distractions.
- ☐ Not the same way – I had distractions that made me stop and start the questionnaire.
- ☐ Not at all the same way – I completed the questionnaire when I could while doing other things.

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**Starbuck's anyone?**

If you wish to receive a \$5 Starbuck's electronic coupon, please type your email address below. Requesting the coupon is optional. Immediately upon close of the online data collection and electronic dissemination of coupons, all emails will be pulled into a separate database and destroyed.

Email Address

Questionnaire on Ethical Decision-Making and Academic Practices**Thank you.**

To finish, select "Done>>" below.

APPENDIX F

COORDINATOR'S EMAIL TO STUDENTS

Heads-up Email from EDL/EDA Program Coordinator to their Students

In a day or two, you will receive an email from a doctoral student, Jennifer L. Greer, to request your voluntary participation in her dissertation research.

Ms. Greer's objective is to learn how to offer better instructional support for educational leadership/administration students in one critical area – academic writing for high stakes, such as comprehensive exams, scholarly projects, theses, and dissertations.

To collect baseline data, she has designed an online questionnaire to assess the ethical decision-making strategies and academic authorship practices of all Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in advanced programs in one Southern state.

She has assured us that her research protocols will protect the privacy of individual respondents as well this institution. Thank you for considering her request.

APPENDIX G

RESEARCHER'S INVITATIONS TO PARTICIPATE

Invitation Email

Dear Educational Leader,

You are receiving this email because your Program Coordinator has indicated that you are a graduate student enrolled in an advanced Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate program.

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research study on how educators like you make ethical decisions that can affect their careers in the course of earning an advanced degree. The study is being conducted as part of the requirements for my doctoral program in Educational Leadership at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB).

The study, a Web-based questionnaire (link below), is called: *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*, Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol number E120501003.

The results of the questionnaire will be used to help EDL/EDA graduate students improve outcomes on high-stakes writing assessments, such as comprehensive exams, research proposals, theses, scholarly projects, and dissertations.

Your assistance in filling out this questionnaire is completely voluntary. Students who complete the questionnaire can elect to offer their email addresses to receive a free \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon. After the drawing, all email addresses will be destroyed.

Your answers will be kept strictly confidential, and survey results will only be reported in group form by schools that are identified only with pseudonyms.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at 205-937-0683 (cell phone), or jlgreer1@uab.edu. Thank you in advance for taking the time to help with this important research for educational leaders.

Here is the link to the questionnaire.
[Survey link goes here.]

Sincerely,

Jennifer L. Greer
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership/School of Education/Department of Human Studies
University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB)
HUC 504C
1720 2nd Ave. S. Birmingham, AL 35294-1150

Please note: If you do not wish to receive reminders from me, click the link below. Be aware, however, that clicking on the link will prevent you from acting on this opportunity to support new scholarship in your field.
[Opt-out link goes here.]

Follow-up Email (1)

Dear Educational Leader,

Recently, you were invited to participate in a unique educational research opportunity, a Web-based questionnaire called: *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*, Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol number E120501003.

Part of my doctoral dissertation research at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), this study is the first of its kind on this topic with this population, and I believe that educational leaders like you are in the best position to inform current and future graduate education.

As of this time, I have not received your reply or your responses were incomplete. I sincerely want to include your opinions and observations in the findings of this study that seeks to help Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students improve outcomes on high-stakes writing assessments – comprehensive exams, research proposals, theses, scholarly projects, and dissertations.

If you have completed and submitted the questionnaire, I thank you for your cooperation and ask that you disregard the link provided below. If, however, the original email about the questionnaire did not reach you, or if you have deleted the email, would you please consider completing and submitting the questionnaire by clicking on the link provided below?

Your assistance in filling out this questionnaire is completely voluntary. Students who complete the questionnaire can elect to offer their email addresses to receive a free \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon. After the drawing, all email addresses will be destroyed.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at 205-937-0683 (cell phone), or jlgreer1@uab.edu.

Here is the link to the questionnaire.

Thank you for your consideration and support of new scholarship in educational leadership.

Sincerely,

Jennifer L. Greer
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership/School of Education/Department of Human Studies
University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB)
HUC 504C

1720 2nd Ave. S.
Birmingham, AL 35294-1150

Please note: If you do not wish to receive reminders from me, click the link below. Be aware, however, that clicking on the link will prevent you from acting on this opportunity to support new scholarship in your field.
[Opt-out link goes here.]

Follow-up Email (2)

Dear Educational Leader,

Recently, you received a follow-up email inviting you to voluntarily participate in a Web-based questionnaire called: *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*, Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol number E120501003.

This study seeks to profile current thinking and practices of Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students in one Southern state with the goal of helping students improve outcomes on high-stakes writing assessments – comprehensive exams, research proposals, theses, scholarly projects, and dissertations – that are required to graduate.

As of this time, I have not received your reply or your responses were incomplete. If you have completed and submitted the questionnaire, thank you! I appreciate your support of new scholarship in the field of educational leadership. Please disregard the link provided below.

If, however, the original email about the questionnaire did not reach you, or if you have deleted the email, would you please consider completing and submitting the questionnaire by clicking on the link provided below? This study is attempting a census approach to this population, and your participation will help ensure the validity and reliability of its findings.

Students who complete the questionnaire can offer their email addresses to receive a free \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon. After the drawing, all email addresses will be destroyed.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at 205-937-0683 (cell phone), or jlgreer1@uab.edu.

Here is the link to the questionnaire.

Thank you for your consideration and commitment to educational leadership.

Sincerely,

Jennifer L. Greer
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership/School of Education/Department of Human Studies
University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB)
HUC 504C
1720 2nd Ave. S.
Birmingham, AL 35294-1150

Please note: If you do not wish to receive reminders from me, click the link below. Be aware, however, that clicking on the link will prevent you from acting on this opportunity to support new scholarship in your field.

[Opt-out link goes here.]

Extension of Survey Email

Dear Educational Leader,

Recently, you received a follow-up email inviting you to voluntarily participate in a Web-based questionnaire called: *Becoming Scholars: Examining the Link between Moral Problem-Solving and Academic Authorship Practices in Future Educational Leaders in One Southern State*, Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol number E120501003.

The study results are generalizable if everyone who receives the questionnaire completes and submits it. For this reason, I am extending the time period on the study.

The information from the study will be used to help Educational Leadership/Administration (EDL/EDA) graduate students improve outcomes on high-stakes writing assessments – comprehensive exams, research proposals, theses, scholarly projects, and dissertations – that are required to graduate.

As of this mailing, I have not received your reply or your responses were incomplete. If you have completed and submitted the survey, thank you! I appreciate your support of new scholarship in the field of educational leadership. Please disregard the link provided below.

If, however, the original email about the questionnaire did not reach you, or if you have deleted the email, would you please consider completing and submitting the survey by clicking on the link provided below?

Students who complete the questionnaire can elect to offer their email addresses to receive a free \$5 Starbucks electronic coupon. After the drawing, all email addresses will be destroyed.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me at 205-937-0683 (cell phone), or jlgreer1@uab.edu.

Here is the link to the questionnaire.

Thank you for your consideration and commitment to new leadership.

Sincerely,

Jennifer L. Greer
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership/School of Education/Department of Human Studies
University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB)
HUC 504C
1720 2nd Ave. South
Birmingham, AL 35294-1150

Please note: If you do not wish to receive reminders from me, click the link below. Be aware, however, that clicking on the link will prevent you from acting on this opportunity to support new scholarship in your field.
[Opt-out link goes here.]

APPENDIX H
SHORT ANSWER RESPONSES

Please offer any additional sources of or thoughts about your instruction and preparedness for formal academic writing in your program and field.

1. In most graduate course of study, it would be useful to have a writing course included just to ensure a review of writing and ethical writing practices are review. Most college students may have never be told or reminded that writing is a legal/moral issue. As a graduate student, until I took the writing course, I never really thought about plagiarism or paraphrasing in the light that I do now.
2. We humans learn by imitating. It takes years of writing to actually be able to write with "your own style" in anything approaching an original "voice." I think this is why it is so hard for college students to avoid some of the citation errors described above. When reading really sound and strong content and theoretical works, the typical college student should be gobbling up the new vocabulary, ideas, concepts, relationships, and "connections" to what they already know. That is why citation is so important--it memorializes, sometimes with birth announcements, sometimes with cemetery inscriptions, the growth and development of the writer. I wonder if citation crimes and misdemeanors would be reduced in undergrad (and some lower level grad courses) if we insisted that, in addition to all the things we currently do to minimize plagiarism, students conspicuously and deliberately use the vocabulary and phrases of the authors they read in both oral (no notes) and written presentations made in response to questions posed. I think it might build confidence as well as hammer home that, as novices and beginners, immersing oneself in the lexicon and milieu of specific writers and thinkers is to be praised, not condoned. Just some thoughts.
3. More instruction on formal writing would be beneficial, also a more common trend among [my] professors.
4. Combination of course instructor and APA manual - recommendation of instructor to always have the manual for reference.
5. No one teaches you the difference in paraphrasing and plagiarism. I give credit and cite in all of my works. I have been doing this a long time, and I still have never been taught the difference in plagiarism and paraphrasing. I also agree with a previous statement that, how many different ways can you say something.
6. I received an undergraduate degree in English, so my writing skills have developed over a number of years. Reading professionally reviewed research papers allowed me to analyze the academic tone and paper characteristics and use them in my own academic writing.
7. Most of these skills I acquired at the bachelor's level, so I already knew them when I worked on advanced degrees.