

# 1 Ethical Demand and First Year Civil Engineering Study: Applying Virtue Ethics

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## 16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Incidents within the civil engineering profession (structural collapses, collusion and the like)

18 draw attention to the need for ethical conduct on the part of civil engineering practitioners.

19 This manuscript explores ethical action in first year civil engineering study. This is done to

20 discuss the role of universities in the development of civil engineering graduates with a

21 critical awareness of the need for ethical action. The manuscript uses Alasdair MacIntyre's

22 virtue ethics to theorize first year student actions during a practical exercise in concrete mix

23 proportioning. Three aspects of ethical action emerged from observation of the students'

24 completion of this practicum: corner-cutting, erroneous reporting, and misrepresentation of

25 knowledge and ability. The manuscript argues that ethical behavior should be nurtured and

26 discussed throughout the undergraduate degree, so that students are more likely to practice

27 ethical behavior after graduation. There is thus opportunity to better integrate consideration

28 of ethical responsibility into the undergraduate curriculum, and to shift the focus of higher

29 education away from 'external goods' to the good of the profession and the communities it

30 serves.

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32 **ETHICAL DEMAND AND FIRST YEAR CIVIL ENGINEERING STUDY:**

33 **APPLYING VIRTUE ETHICS**

34

35 **INTRODUCTION**

36

37 In recent years, the engineering and built environment sector in South Africa has been  
38 negatively affected by various scandals and structural collapses. For example, in the early  
39 2010s, it was revealed that the South African construction industry had been engaged in  
40 collusion and price-fixing regarding the development of large-scale infrastructure  
41 development projects, including five stadiums built for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Benjamin  
42 2013). This involved anticompetitive practices in which large construction companies  
43 divided projects amongst themselves, and greatly inflated prices. In addition, in November  
44 2013, a section of a mall in Tongaat, close to Durban on the South African east coast,  
45 collapsed, killing two people and injuring 29 others (eNews Channel Africa 2016). Media  
46 reports suggest that the concrete strengths of several parts of the mall were below standard,  
47 possibly leading to the failure of at least one beam and one foundation (SABC 2014; Africa  
48 News Agency 2015). More recently, a temporary bridge structure collapsed over a busy  
49 highway in Johannesburg, the economic center of South Africa. This collapse killed one  
50 person and injured several others (Corke n.d.); again, there have been various allegations of  
51 short-cuts, and concerns raised prior to the collapse of the bridge (Mutizwa and Brown 2016;  
52 Corke n.d.).

53

54 Although these three incidents are unrelated, they nonetheless draw attention to the  
55 importance of ethical conduct on the part of, amongst others, design and construction  
56 engineers. Furthermore, these issues are not only prevalent in South Africa, but are of global

57 concern. Transparency International's most recent *Bribe Payers Index* ranks the construction  
58 sector as the most corrupt sector globally (Hardoon and Heinrich 2011). Indeed, the ethical  
59 challenges facing the global construction industry are becoming more complex, and more  
60 serious, as corruption, fraud, kickbacks and collusion become more commonplace (Liu et al.  
61 2017). Of course, such actions are usually a product of multiple contributing factors that can  
62 be technical, human and organizational (Basart and Serra 2013; Liu et al. 2017). As such,  
63 they raise questions about the role of higher education institutions in preparing candidate  
64 engineers for the ethical demands of engineering practice.

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66 This manuscript asks how ethics can be incorporated into the undergraduate engineering  
67 degree curriculum. It addresses this question by deploying a particular philosophical  
68 approach to ethics, namely, Alasdair MacIntyre's notion of virtue ethics, which argues that  
69 people should recognize themselves as virtuous agents contributing towards ethical  
70 development within society. MacIntyre claims that "what matters [...] is the construction of  
71 local forms of community within which civility and the intellectual and moral life can be  
72 sustained" (2007, 263). Within this approach, we argue that the ethical question to be asked,  
73 in cases where ethics fail, is not 'who is guilty', but 'how does each individual contribute to  
74 the situation' (Basart and Serra 2013). We apply this virtue ethics approach to the observed  
75 behavior of first year civil engineering degree students in a particular module on Concrete  
76 Technology.

77

78 The manuscript is structured such that it begins with discussion of the positioning of 'ethics'  
79 within the civil engineering curriculum and within the regulatory guidelines provided by,  
80 inter alia, the Engineering Council of South Africa (ECSA) and the Accreditation Board for  
81 Engineering and Technology (ABET). Thereafter, it introduces the notion of virtue ethics,

82 and explains MacIntyre's specific approach to individual ethics. Finally, it discusses some of  
83 the conduct demonstrated by students as they were filmed completing a practical exercise in  
84 concrete mix proportioning. The conduct of students within the groups is framed within the  
85 lens of MacIntyre's approach to virtue ethics. However, this is not undertaken in order to  
86 label these students as 'unethical': rather, it seeks to raise questions about the role of higher  
87 education institutions in promoting critical awareness of the need for ethical conduct, and  
88 preparing students for the ethical demands of the construction industry.

89

## 90 **ETHICS IN ENGINEERING EDUCATION**

91

92 Inspection of engineering degree curricula in South Africa reveals that while most programs  
93 include content related to ethical conduct, this content is usually presented in the form of an  
94 isolated module in 'Professional Practice' almost always at final year level. Similarly, in the  
95 United States, Carpenter et al. (2014) identify what they call the 'bookend' effect, where  
96 ethics instruction is most common in introductory and/or senior-level modules. There are  
97 thus few attempts at the embedded development of ethics within the curriculum and, where  
98 such attempts do exist, they are often stymied by limitations of time, resources and training  
99 (Beever and Brightman 2016). Also, internationally, there is great variation in the quality  
100 and type of ethics instruction that is given to undergraduate engineering students, with little  
101 consensus as to what the objectives of such instruction should be (Keefer et al. 2014).

102

103 Furthermore, the development of engineering students as ethical practitioners has been given  
104 little attention in the literature (Bairaktarova and Woodcock 2015). This dearth of literature  
105 is startling as both the standard for registration as a professional engineer in South Africa  
106 (ECSA 2012) and the qualification standard for engineering degree programs (ECSA 2014)

107 include requirements relating to ethical conduct. The ECSA qualification standard states that  
108 all engineering degree program graduates must “demonstrate critical awareness of the need to  
109 act professionally and ethically and to exercise judgment and take responsibility within [their]  
110 own limits of competence” (ECSA 2014, 7). Similarly, the ABET requirement is that  
111 students demonstrate “an understanding of professional and ethical responsibility” (ABET  
112 n.d.). Furthermore, in South Africa, the engineering code of conduct states that professional  
113 engineers should discharge their duties with due diligence, should not misrepresent their  
114 competencies, should be honest and factual in their decisions and recommendations, should  
115 ensure the correctness of any work that they sign off on and should, at all times, give due  
116 regard to health and safety and the interest of the public (ECSA 2013).

117

118 However, these documents have little to say regarding how higher education institutions  
119 should incorporate these issues. Indeed, they are intentionally non-prescriptive, allowing  
120 engineering schools and departments to determine for themselves how best to achieve the  
121 required student outcomes. Nonetheless, the ECSA qualification standard indicates that  
122 evidence of the development of ethical conduct can be found in the use of “case studies  
123 typical of engineering practice situations in which the graduate is likely to participate”  
124 (ECSA 2014, 7). Some of the literature supports this assertion: for example, Alpay (2013)  
125 contends that case studies enhance the perceived relevance of ethics education in engineering,  
126 while Abaté (2011) argues that the study of cases will develop the philosophical skills  
127 required to resolve similar ethical dilemmas in the future.

128

129 While such case studies may be of significant value in drawing students’ attention to the  
130 implications of unethical conduct, our observation is that they do not require that students  
131 demonstrate ethical conduct during their time at university. The use of case studies is limited

132 (Beever and Brightman 2016) in that they are afforded little time in the curriculum and are  
133 often grossly simplified and studied out of context (Basart and Serra 2013; Reid 2012). This  
134 is exacerbated by the fact that few engineering academics necessarily have the required  
135 insight to identify ethical paradigms or the philosophical tools to conduct clear and rational  
136 ethical deliberation (Abaté 2011). And, it is further exacerbated by the fact that students tend  
137 to commit less time to studying for ethics courses (Dabbour 2016).

138

139 ECSA's exit-level outcome for engineering degree programs states that students must  
140 *demonstrate an awareness* of the need for ethical conduct but this does not necessarily  
141 require students to *be* ethical in their everyday activities. We would argue, as Carpenter et al.  
142 (2014) have done, that there is a difference between knowledge of ethics, ethical reasoning,  
143 and ethical behavior, and that developing knowledge *of* ethics does not necessarily promote  
144 ethical reasoning, or ensure students exhibit ethical behavior (Carpenter et al. 2014). There is  
145 thus a need for institutions of higher education to assist students in developing an awareness  
146 of themselves as ethical actors who are more likely to act responsibly and in the interest of  
147 society after graduation.

148

149 Consideration of the responsibility of institutions of higher education is particularly important  
150 as an individualistic account of ethics is limited by the fact that solutions to ethical problems  
151 often require changes in the context in which engineers work (Conlon and Zandvoort 2011;  
152 Liu et al. 2017). The engineering professions possess macro-ethical issues that require the  
153 resources of both individual engineers and their organizations and professional bodies to  
154 resolve (Conlon and Zandvoort 2011). It is thus clear that the development of engineering  
155 ethics extends beyond the purview of the higher education institutions. Nonetheless, these  
156 educational institutions must still participate in the development of engineering professionals

157 that are more likely to “play an active role in reshaping the environment in which they work”  
158 (Conlon and Zandvoort 2011, 229).

159

## 160 **VIRTUE ETHICS AND MACINTYRE’S APPROACH**

161

162 Ethics, as a field in Philosophy, involves identifying and categorizing actions or behavior as  
163 right or wrong. There are three major branches of ethical theory: metaethics, applied ethics  
164 and normative ethics (Hursthouse 2013). While each of these branches focuses on specific  
165 aspects of ethics, normative ethics, in particular, advocates the practice of ethical behavior  
166 and identifies the ways in which people ought to behave. One major approach found within  
167 normative ethics is virtue ethics, which “[m]any scholars contend...offers great promise for  
168 developing ‘emotional engagement’ with ethics in engineering students” (Troesch 2015).

169 Generally, students are able to intellectually engage with the *idea* of ethics, which means they  
170 are able to identify ethical approaches and are able to develop responses to case studies, that  
171 is, they have knowledge of ethics. However, being able to intellectually engage with the idea  
172 of ethics does not necessarily mean a student is in the position to emotionally engage with the  
173 idea of ethics. Emotional engagement involves the ability to recognize ethical issues, as well  
174 as the capacity to care about and address these issues (Troesch 2015). While it might be that  
175 metaethics and applied ethics focus primarily on intellectual engagement, normative ethics  
176 appears to assist in the development of emotional engagement with ethical issues. Therefore,  
177 this manuscript focuses on a normative approach, namely virtue ethics.

178

179 Virtue ethics can be understood as an approach that emphasizes moral or virtuous character,  
180 as opposed to other forms of ethics which emphasize the rules of ethics or the ethical  
181 consequences of actions (Harris 2008). Persons who advocate duties and rules as a form of

182 ethics stipulate that the need to help someone, for example, is done from the perspective that  
183 to help that person is a moral obligation or rule (Jordan 2006). Whereas, a consequentialist  
184 may examine the possible results of helping a person and, from this, determine its ethical  
185 validity based on how it will affect themselves and others. However, a person who practices  
186 virtue ethics will help a person because they are intrinsically virtuous rather than helping a  
187 person based on a set of rules or consequences. Therefore, virtue ethics focuses largely on  
188 the development of a self that is intrinsically virtuous (Hursthouse 2013).

189

190 MacIntyre explores the concept of virtue ethics in relation to the self within a particular  
191 community or society. In *After Virtue: A Study in Moral Theory*, MacIntyre develops the  
192 notion of virtue ethics by focusing on three main virtues, namely, justice, honesty and  
193 courage (MacIntyre 2007). According to MacIntyre, a person is virtuous when they possess  
194 and exhibit these three virtues. However, for MacIntyre, it is important to note that these  
195 virtues are not practiced by an individual in isolation; rather, they are practiced within a  
196 societal context (MacIntyre 2007). Furthermore, it is this realization, that an individual plays  
197 an important role in the development and sustainability of a moral society, that encourages  
198 individuals to embrace virtuous behavior or action.

199

200 Despite this, MacIntyre (2007) argues that society appears to be in a moral vacuum, that is,  
201 that morality has been dislodged as an important feature of everyday behavior, replaced  
202 instead by emotivism. Emotivism focuses on classifying actions as good or bad, where this  
203 classification is based solely on opinion. Opinions are expressions of emotions and, as such,  
204 subjective (Wiggins 2010). That is to say, what one person considers good, another may  
205 consider bad: there is thus little shared consensus as to what is actually good or bad. Ayer (in  
206 Wiggins 2010, 181) claims that “judgements of value, insofar as they are not scientific



207 statements, are not in the literal sense significant but are simply expressions of emotion  
208 which can be neither true nor false”.

209

210 According to the virtue ethics perspective, to develop a more objective account of morality,  
211 an individual should consider embracing the concept of virtue. The identification of virtues  
212 and the implementation thereof serves three important purposes: 1) it allows the individual  
213 the perspective of themselves as virtuous agents; 2) it allows the individual to understand that  
214 their virtues matter in a societal sense and 3) it informs society of its moral status. As  
215 MacIntyre (2007, 219) points out, “virtues are anything which sustain the kind of households  
216 and the kind of political communities in which men and women seek for good together”.

217 This is relevant to engineering, because engineers operate within organizations in which  
218 various interests, stakeholders and boundaries interrelate (Basart and Serra 2013). Basart and  
219 Serra (2013, 181) continue:

220

221       What engineers do and how they do it depends on all of these people,  
222       organizations, requirements and regulations. The quality of their work, the  
223       degree of responsibility they are willing to take, and the commitment to good  
224       service, are all under the influence of the elements named above. Engineers  
225       are not a singularity inside engineering; they exist and operate as a node in a  
226       complex network of mutual relationships with other nodes.

227

228 With this in mind, MacIntyre (2007) asserts that virtues are shared practices undertaken by,  
229 and for the good of, a given community. MacIntyre identifies two kinds of good: internal and  
230 external. Internal goods result directly from actions whereas external goods result indirectly  
231 from actions. Performing an action primarily with the aim of producing internal goods serves  
232 to 1) develop and 2) make use of virtues. That is to say, it is performed with the good of a  
233 given social community in mind.

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Such ethical reasoning, and the notion of virtue, is of crucial importance to engineering because it is closely tied to issues of globalization, development, sustainability, and technology (Beever and Brightman 2016). According to the Engineering Council of South Africa (ECSA 2013), registered engineers must perform their duties under the banner of ethics which advocates competency and integrity. Almost all of the requirements found under this banner of ethics are relevant to virtue ethics. In particular, however, the following rules are directly related to what has been set out in this article regarding virtue ethics:

Registered persons:

- a) must discharge their duties to their employers, clients, associates and the public with integrity, fidelity and honesty;
- c) must not engage in any act of dishonesty, corruption or bribery;
- h) must give engineering decisions, recommendations or opinions that are honest, objective and based on facts;
- l) must notify Council on becoming insolvent where such insolvency is caused by his or her negligence or incompetence in performing engineering work.

These ‘rules’ set out in the Code of Conduct represent the virtues that underpin engineering activity. That is to say, codes of conduct, such as this, reflect a “logical compatibility and consistency with certain principles of common morality” (Abaté 2011, 585). Despite this, some engineers nonetheless fail to adhere to these requirements, or virtues. In part, this may be related to the tertiary education they receive regarding the importance of ethics, where engineering students often perceive ethics as irrelevant (Bairaktarova and Woodcock 2015). It is for this reason that this manuscript considers the role played by institutions of higher education in promoting awareness of virtue in the practice of engineering.

262 **IDENTIFYING OPPORTUNITIES FOR ETHICS INSTRUCTION: A DESIGN FOR**  
263 **RESEARCH**

264

265 As already mentioned, this manuscript seeks to address the question of how ethics instruction  
266 might be incorporated into the undergraduate engineering degree curriculum. So far, this  
267 question has been addressed by considering perspectives from the relevant literature as well  
268 as the statutory bodies that oversee engineering education and practice. Moreover, a  
269 particular approach to ethics has been introduced. The remainder of this paper examines  
270 video-recorded data collected within a first year civil engineering module (on concrete  
271 technology) with a view to identifying instances in which focused ethics instruction could be  
272 provided.

273

274 This video data was collected at a large university in Johannesburg, South Africa, one that  
275 attracts a diverse student population from both urban and rural areas. The university offers a  
276 number of engineering qualifications, all of which are accredited by the Engineering Council  
277 of South Africa, in line with the requirements of the Washington, Sydney and Dublin  
278 accords. One of these qualifications is an accredited, four-year, professional degree in civil  
279 engineering.

280

281 As part of this degree, first year students complete a module called Concrete Technology, a  
282 semester module in the first year of the civil engineering degree program. The module  
283 includes a strong practical component, which is reflected both in the teaching of the module  
284 and in the assessment of students. This was necessary because the nature of concrete  
285 technology is such that it relies on practical knowledge and experience. One of the practical  
286 assignments that the students have to undertake is to perform two concrete mix proportioning

287 exercises according to two separate, but commonly-used (in South Africa), approaches to  
288 concrete mix proportioning. This practical places emphasis on understanding the properties  
289 of both the constituent materials and the fresh concrete, and the effect of the constituent  
290 materials on the fresh concrete.

291

292 The practical was undertaken in groups of five. Students were supplied with all the necessary  
293 materials and equipment and, where applicable, were given the characteristics of the  
294 constituent materials. However, the students did have to calculate the mix proportion values  
295 needed for one of the approaches. The students were required to obtain a specified slump in  
296 both mixes and assess and compare the fresh properties of the concrete for each mix. Prior to  
297 the practicum, lectures were given in which the students were introduced to mix  
298 proportioning theory and procedure, including the procedures involved in conducting a slump  
299 test and the calculations required for the mix proportions.

300

301 All groups were asked to volunteer to be filmed, and those groups who came forward  
302 participated in this study. In total, twelve groups – each with five students – were filmed as  
303 they completed the assigned practical tasks. This represented approximately one-third of the  
304 total student cohort within the concrete technology module. In addition, the groups that  
305 volunteered were also filmed as they delivered a verbal presentation on the concrete mixes.  
306 The PowerPoint slides they used in their verbal presentation were collected as well as the  
307 written reports that the group members submitted. All students in these groups gave written  
308 permission for the filming to take place and had the opportunity to refuse to be filmed or  
309 withdraw from being filmed at any point. All students' participation in the project has been  
310 kept confidential.

311

312 The researchers then viewed all the video footage, in conjunction with the other data  
313 collected, making notes as they did so. These notes served as observations of points at which  
314 questions of ethics were evident in the students' completion of the practical task. It should be  
315 noted that, in the majority of the data obtained, the students' actions displayed a high level of  
316 ethical responsibility, while the instances discussed below represent isolated events. These  
317 isolated instances are reported upon not with the intention of labeling this minority of  
318 students as 'bad apples', but with the intention of explaining how these instances can be used  
319 as springboards for discussion about the importance of ethical action. Such discussion, we  
320 argue, is a cornerstone of incorporating ethics instruction throughout the curriculum, even in  
321 so-called 'technical' modules, such as concrete technology.

322

## 323 **STUDENT ACTION AND VIRTUE ETHICS**

324

325 Concrete mix proportioning is a process-governed activity in that there are strict procedures  
326 and protocols involved in the mixing of concrete and the assessment of fresh concrete  
327 properties. These procedures and protocols are designed so as to ensure the safety and fit-for-  
328 purpose of the concrete within structural elements. One of the methods undertaken in order  
329 to assess fitness for purpose is the slump test. The slump test is important to assess  
330 workability, cohesion and 'bleeding', amongst others. Performing the slump test and  
331 measuring the slump is important because the consistence of each batch of concrete placed  
332 inside a structure should be as similar to each other as possible (Kellerman and Croswell  
333 2009; Owens 2013). The slump test also helps ensure that fresh concrete is able to be  
334 effectively handled, placed and compacted. Construction engineers thus need to understand  
335 the properties of fresh concrete and be able to visually assess these properties. The inclusion  
336 of the slump test in the first year module is aimed at introducing students to these properties

337 and providing them with practice in the visual assessment of concrete. However, in order to  
338 benefit from this opportunity, students need to accurately, and honestly, carry out the test.

339

340 Some students did not fill the slump cone in three layers of approximately equal thickness;  
341 tamped the fresh concrete incorrectly, or an incorrect number of times; did not ensure that the  
342 slump cone remained stable on the base plate during completion of the slump test; did not  
343 measure the slump from the highest point; and recorded the slump value from an angle rather  
344 than horizontally. Of course, in each of these instances, these errors can be attributed to the  
345 fact that the students had not previously mixed concrete and, given that this was their first  
346 time doing so, they were liable to make such errors. In addition, given that they are new to  
347 the subject, they may not, as yet, fully understand the implications that these kinds of errors  
348 might have in concrete work. Nonetheless, in the discussion that follows, three observations  
349 pertaining to the students' actions are presented.

350

### 351 **Corner-cutting**

352

353 As already mentioned, because of the students' inexperience with concrete mixing, it was to  
354 be expected that numerous problems would emerge and mistakes made during the concrete  
355 mixing practicum. However, what was telling for the purposes of this discussion was the  
356 groups' decision-making processes. For example, few groups obtained the required slump on  
357 their first attempt with many not able to complete the slump test because of incorrect tamping  
358 and failure to pre-wet the base plate and slump cone. It is worth considering how the groups  
359 decided to either re-do the test, acknowledging their errors, or continue on, for the sake of  
360 expediency. In almost all the groups that faced this dilemma, there were members arguing

361 for each of the options. In most instances, the groups made the decision to repeat the slump  
362 test.

363

364 Nonetheless, the fact that groups engaged in these debates shows the ease with which  
365 decisions can come to be made for the sake of expediency rather than the common good. For  
366 example, one student used the argument that it was Friday afternoon and that it would take  
367 too long to repeat the test. Of course, there is not necessarily a direct causal relationship  
368 between such cutting of corners at undergraduate level and the unethical actions that may  
369 occur in practice. However, we would argue that these moments of debate are ideal  
370 opportunities in which engineering educators can engage students in discussion of the  
371 importance of ethics in engineering practice and, in turn, engineering study.

372

373 This can be done, for example, by introducing the case of the Grayston Bridge collapse  
374 mentioned in the introduction to this manuscript. Mutizwa and Brown (2016) report that  
375 various short cuts (such as beginning construction before the building plans were completed)  
376 resulted in the failure of the bridge. From a virtue ethics perspective, it is worth noting that  
377 such a practice, although in contravention of international building standards, did not  
378 necessarily contravene South African standards (Mutizwa and Brown 2016). This illustrates  
379 the importance of virtuous action for the common good, even when no formal laws or  
380 procedures exist.

381

382 Decision-making regarding corner-cutting is of particular importance, as it bears direct  
383 relation to the engineering design process: engineering design involves a series of decisions  
384 and, as such, these decisions need to be guided by ethical principles and the common good at  
385 all times (Bero and Kuhlman 2011). A common decision-making practice undertaken by the

386 students in the practical exercise studied herein involved discussion amongst group members,  
387 and the generation of consensus. This usually, but not always, led to an ethical course of  
388 action. These decision-making discussions represent students' ethical reasoning, and it is  
389 worth considering how these experiences can be harnessed for the purpose of the teaching  
390 and learning of ethics.

391

392 To illustrate this point, it was observed that students may cut corners for reasons that  
393 primarily consider immediate gratification for themselves (for instance, the student who  
394 wanted to leave early on a Friday). In such instances, it could be that the individual's own  
395 personal interest is more important than the overall achievement of the group. This illustrates  
396 the notion of emotivism, where individuals make subjective choices based on their own,  
397 personal goals rather than the good of a broader community which, in this particular instance,  
398 can be seen to be the group they were working within. That is, decisions came to "rest on a  
399 choice whose justification is purely subjective" (Aron 1967, 206).

400

401 From the perspective of MacIntyre's (2007) virtue ethics, if individuals have a common goal  
402 that acknowledges benefit to society, rather than benefit to the individual, it is possible that  
403 engineering ethics guidelines would be better adhered to. In other words, the processes and  
404 procedures developed should be undertaken with the good of the community in mind (Alpay  
405 2013, 1456). When undertaking decision-making processes, students should be encouraged  
406 to see themselves as situated within communities with shared goals, rather than as individuals  
407 seeking to advance their own interests. Practical classroom instances such as this serve as  
408 valuable opportunities for engaging in such pedagogical conversations.

409

410 **Inaccurate reporting**



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412 The video footage collected showed that some students inaccurately reported upon their  
413 actions in their verbal and written reports on the practical exercise. For example, one group  
414 paid no attention to the number of blows during the slump test, but reported, in the verbal  
415 presentation, that they had tamped each layer the required 25 times. Similarly, some students  
416 read a slump value that was outside that which was required but reported that they had  
417 obtained the required slump. In an even more telling example, one of the groups found that  
418 they had made a mistake in their calculations as their mix turned out too dry. Instead of re-  
419 doing their calculations, they added more water but neglected to track this additional amount  
420 of water, and also added further sand again without measuring the added sand. However,  
421 their verbal presentation reflected none of this. Instead, their presentation slides presented a  
422 corrected calculation and an indirect insinuation that that was how the mix was completed.

423

424 Again, while such mistakes are not, in themselves, problematic, given that the students are  
425 novice practitioners and that the repercussions of these decisions are minor, it is possible that  
426 the students may have demonstrated greater learning by acknowledging the errors they made  
427 and reflecting on how these errors may have impacted upon the properties of the fresh  
428 concrete. Errors should be seen as part of the learning process, but it may be the case that  
429 this is undermined by students' concern with external goods such as, in this case, the award  
430 of marks. It is likely that many students see the means (the processes to be followed) and the  
431 ends (the award of marks, and the notions of pass and fail) as separate from each other.

432 However, both the means and the ends are important skills that students will need to integrate  
433 into their future development as engineers. The means enable them to complete their work,  
434 while the ends are a form of social feedback from the community that they seek to enter.

435

436 According to MacIntyre (2007), individuals need to understand their role in society, and to  
437 understand how their actions and their own development can affect the development of  
438 society. A practical example of this is the fact that, should a student continue to misrepresent  
439 their findings because they continue to erroneously perform procedures, that student will not  
440 acquire the skills and competencies necessary in the workplace. Those who do not recognize  
441 the way in which they contribute to the development of society, through the development of  
442 their own intrinsic virtues, may instead contribute to some of the negative issues currently  
443 facing the civil engineering profession (see collapse of structures, collusion, and the like).

444

445 This has prompted some to call for a “return to an emphasis on character in professional  
446 ethics instruction” (Walling 2015, 1639) in order to overcome the focus on external rewards  
447 and individual achievements. An individual should think of their actions as cumulative rather  
448 than as separate instances of behavior. When students view their actions as unique instances  
449 of behavior, they may come to believe that these are ‘once-off’ decisions that are not likely to  
450 be repeated and, therefore, they might be less likely to take full responsibility for those  
451 particular actions. The pedagogical implication of this is that assessment, particularly in  
452 instances such as this, should focus on accountability, rather than accuracy alone.

453

#### 454 **Misrepresenting knowledge and ability**

455

456 Finally, it was also evident that a number of students misrepresented their knowledge and  
457 ability regarding mix proportioning. In numerous groups, a ‘leader’ would emerge who  
458 would direct the activities of the group. In some instances, this leader gave insightful  
459 direction and accurate feedback. However, there were some leaders that reported inaccurate  
460 information as if it was factual, because they were operating outside of the limits of their own

461 competence. Failure to acknowledge the limits of one's own knowledge and competence can  
462 have disastrous implications in civil engineering practice, and it is for this reason that this is a  
463 cornerstone of the engineering code of conduct (ECSA 2013) and is also included in the  
464 ECSA exit-level outcomes (ECSA 2014).

465

466 Students in a group are more likely to align with a strong-minded, dominant, overconfident  
467 individual, regardless of that individual's beliefs or abilities (Nevicka et al. 2013).

468 Sometimes, it might be that as long as the ends are met, the means to get there are of little  
469 concern to individual group members. This is because "whenever a complex undertaking is  
470 broken into separate parts, and the people assigned to work on these parts have a high degree  
471 of autonomy, the responsibility for the whole project begins to blur" (Basart and Serra 2013,  
472 181). The reasons for this are that, generally, within group dynamics, the leader takes on the  
473 bulk of the decision-making and, therefore, the bulk of the responsibility.

474

475 A self-appointed leader, as was evident in the case of this practicum, is a person who tacitly  
476 maintains that they hold more knowledge and have greater abilities than the other group  
477 members. Thus, it is a natural development that other group members would place their trust  
478 in this supposed knowledge and acumen. Of course, this can be problematic if that leader is  
479 misrepresenting his or her knowledge and ability. The issue with this scenario is that the  
480 judgements are essentially criterion-less in that they are often based on personal  
481 considerations (MacIntyre 2007) and, as such, they might not be in the best interest of the  
482 group. Again, discussion of these instances with students, as they occur, is a valuable  
483 opportunity to promote ethical knowledge, ethical reasoning and ethical behavior, and can be  
484 used to foster the ability to critically interrogate voices of power.

485

486 **CONCLUSIONS**

487

488 Three observations have emerged from the students' actions during the mix proportioning  
489 practical. These relate to: cutting of corners; erroneous reporting; and the misrepresentation  
490 of individual knowledge and ability. The purpose of the practical exercise was to introduce  
491 students to the principles and procedures of concrete mix proportioning and give them  
492 practical exposure to the properties of the constituent materials within concrete as well as to  
493 the properties of fresh concrete. However, filming volunteer groups of students as they  
494 undertook the practical exercise assigned to them brought to light a number of ethical  
495 considerations indirectly involved in completion of the activity. In this manuscript, these  
496 ethical considerations have been discussed from the perspective of Alasdair MacIntyre's  
497 approach to virtue ethics.

498

499 These three instances demonstrate that there is ample opportunity, even within 'technical'  
500 modules, to embed ethics instruction. Civil engineering as a profession has a common goal  
501 that acknowledges the good of society. This is stated in numerous documents and speaks to  
502 the important role of civil engineering in nation building, sustainability and so on. The  
503 question remains, however, as to how to instill this common goal in the day-to-day activity of  
504 engineering professionals, as well as engineers-in-training, and the role that educational  
505 institutions might play in this regard. This is important because, as Chang and Wang (2011,  
506 389) argue, "engineering ethics education is less about providing vast quantities of  
507 information and more about fostering lifelong scientific habits and an intrinsic motivation to  
508 innovate and excel at improving the human environment".

509

510 The ECSA Code of Conduct stipulates the importance of virtuous behavior, in MacIntyre's  
511 sense, within engineering practice. However, the first year students filmed for the purposes  
512 of this manuscript did not appear to relate their actions in the concrete mix proportioning  
513 practical to their future selves as civil engineering professionals. Of course, there is not a  
514 direct, causal relationship between what students do in a first year module, and the actions  
515 they take in their future careers. However, if students gain reward from engaging in 'corner-  
516 cutting', or indeed cheating, at first year level (and in subsequent years of study), such  
517 practices are more likely to continue after graduation. It is for this reason that Carpenter et al.  
518 (2014, 9) argue that "the way to encourage the greatest effect and strongest impact on  
519 students' ethical reasoning development is to concentrate on providing developmentally  
520 appropriate curricular experiences across all years". Such experiences should not be limited  
521 to designated 'ethics' courses, but can be introduced throughout the curriculum: in this  
522 manuscript, we note some of the ethical issues at play in a concrete mix proportioning  
523 practical at first year level.

524

525 It is thus possible that higher education institutions need to do more to tie student activities to  
526 the development of a future professional self that acts in the interest of society and the  
527 profession. This may require a re-examination of assessment practice within the  
528 undergraduate curriculum. This is because, at present, higher education appears to be  
529 premised on the award of external goods, in the form of marks and credits. The question  
530 needs to be asked as to how such a focus can be challenged so as to promote students'  
531 awareness of the need for their own development as ethical professionals. An answer to this  
532 question may be that institutions of higher education need to hold students to higher standards  
533 of ethical responsibility and embed ethical considerations throughout the curriculum.

534 Another answer may be that the current reliance on ethics case studies may be limited in its  
535 ability to promote awareness of the importance of ethical action.

536

537 However, a parallel answer, not addressed in this manuscript but worthy of future research,  
538 pertains to the issue of role models. The “characters” (MacIntyre 2007) that are found in  
539 modern societies often embody the attitude that one’s own goals are of utmost importance  
540 and that others exist as a means to the end of achieving individual success. Institutions of  
541 higher education, and the staff within them, need to display ethical behavior in their own  
542 actions, such that the institution and its people serve as a role model for future civil  
543 engineering practitioners (Carpenter et al. 2014). Holsapple et al. (2012, 182) find that  
544 students often do not perceive lecturers as ethical role models and that, in order to mitigate  
545 this, lecturers, even when teaching topics other than ethics, “can draw on their own  
546 experiences describing ethical dilemmas they encountered and the positive ethical behaviors  
547 enacted when encountering the dilemma”. MacIntyre argues that, all of us – student,  
548 practitioner or lecturer – can adopt a virtuous common goal and embrace our community-  
549 situated selves by directing our action toward the greater good.

550

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